1
2
3 **SUMOylation of Jun fine-tunes the *Drosophila* gut immune response**
4
5 Amarendranath Soory & Girish Ratnaparkhi
6
7 Department of Biology, Indian Institute of Science Education & Research, Pune 411008,

8 INDIA

9
10
11 Author for Correspondence: girish@iiserpune.ac.in

13 Address:

14 Biology, Indian Institute of Science Education & Research (IISER)

15 Dr. Homi Bhabha Road, Pashan, Pune 411008, INDIA

16 Phone: +91-20-2590-8053

17
18 ORCID IDs: AS (0000-0003-3023-6121), GR (0000-0001-7615-3140)
19
20
21 Running Title: Conjugation of Jun by SUMO regulates gut immunity

ABSTRACT

Post-translational modification by the small ubiquitin-like modifier, SUMO can modulate the activity of its conjugated proteins. The transcriptional regulator Jun, a member of the AP-1, complex is one such SUMO target. We find that Jra, the *Drosophila* Jun ortholog, is a regulator of the *Pseudomonas entomophila* induced gut immune gene regulatory network, modulating the expression of a few thousand genes, as measured by quantitative RNA sequencing. Decrease in *Jra* in gut enterocytes is protective, suggesting that reduction of Jra signaling favors the host over the pathogen. In Jra, lysines 29 and 190 are SUMO conjugation targets, with the $Jra^{K29R+K190R}$ double mutant being SUMO conjugation resistant (SCR). Interestingly, a Jra^{SCR} fly line, generated by CRISPR/Cas9 based genome editing, is more sensitive to infection, with adults showing a weakened host response and increased proliferation of *Pseudomonas.* Transcriptome analysis of the guts of Jra^{SCR} and Jra^{WT} flies suggests that lack of SUMOylation of Jra significantly changes core elements of the immune gene regulatory network, that include antimicrobial agents, secreted ligands, feedback regulators, and transcription factors. SUMOylation attenuates Jra activity, with the master immune regulator Relish being an important transcriptional target. Our study implicates Jra as a major immune regulator, with dynamic SUMO conjugation/deconjugation modulating the kinetics of the gut transcriptional immune response.

Keywords

NFκB, *Pseudomonas*, Enterocytes, infection, SUMO, Jra, AP-1

 INTRODUCTION

Proteins undergo post-translational modifications (PTM) by reversible and covalent

attachment of a diverse set of molecules. PTMs can modulate the target protein's structure,

stability, interactions, or location and alter its function. This modulation increases the

complexity and diversity of a proteome. The effect of the PTM on the target protein is usually

context-dependent, with the combination of different PTMs affecting function in a

differential manner. PTMs come in all shapes and sizes with a wide variety of chemical groups.

One common PTM is the conjugation of one protein to another. The best-known examples of

such protein modifiers are Ubiquitin-like proteins (UBLs) (VAN DER VEEN AND PLOEGH 2012;

VIERSTRA 2012; EIFLER AND VERTEGAAL 2015; CAPPADOCIA AND LIMA 2018), a large group of proteins

exhibiting a Ubiquitin fold. These, along with Ubiquitin, include Nedd8, ISG15, SUMO,

ATG8/12, and many others. These protein PTMs conjugate a wide variety of proteins, usually

targeting lysine side chains.

The small ubiquitin-like modifier, SUMO (MELCHIOR 2000; MULLER *et al.* 2001; HAY 2005)

can be reversibly and covalently conjugated to a target protein. For conjugation, the

translated SUMO protein is made conjugation-competent by proteolytic cleavage of the C-

terminal tail of SUMO, exposing a –GG dipeptide. The SUMO-GG is then picked up by the

SUMO activating enzymes (SAEs) which transfer the SUMO to the SUMO conjugase Ubc9.

Ubc9 interacts with the target protein and works to attach the C-terminal GG-COO- to a lysine

side chain, on the target protein, via an isopeptide bond (FLOTHO AND MELCHIOR 2013; CELEN AND

SAHIN 2020). The conjugation is reversible and requires deconjugating enzymes (HICKEY *et al.*

2012). Ubc9, during conjugation, can be assisted by one or multiple SUMO ligases, which are

believed to provide specificity and enhance conjugation.

Our laboratory is interested in the role of SUMO conjugation of proteins during an

innate immune response in flies (HANDU *et al.* 2015; HEGDE *et al.* 2020). A subset of proteins

involved in immune regulatory networks are known to be SUMOylated both in vertebrates or

invertebrates (HANNOUN *et al.* 2016; ADORISIO *et al.* 2017; HEGDE *et al.* 2020). Our approach to

the problem was first to identify proteins that changed their SUMOylation status on infection.

We used quantitative proteomics to identify a set of proteins whose SUMOylation state either

increased or decreased with infection (HANDU *et al.* 2015). One SUMO target uncovered in our

quantitative proteomics screen (HANDU *et al.* 2015) is the *Drosophila* c-Jun ortholog Jra

(Flybase ID, FBgn0001291) - the Jun related antigen (PERKINS *et al.* 1988; SLUSS *et al.* 1996). Jra

is one of the transcriptional effectors of the JNK (Jun N-terminal kinase) signaling pathway,

the other being Kayak (Kay, ortholog of c-Fos) (Noselli 1998; Noselli and Agnès 1999). Jra

function has been uncovered in multiple developmental contexts (Bohmann *et al.* 1994;

RiesgoEscovar and Hafen 1997; Kockel *et al.* 2001; Rios-Barrera and Riesgo-Escovar 2013), as

well as in the adult animal (Biteau *et al.* 2011; La Marca and Richardson 2020). The JNK kinase

cascade has been broadly classified as a 'stress' pathway in organisms, and our current

research focuses on its role in immune signaling.

In this study, we have explored roles for SUMO conjugation of Jra in the gut immune

response. Using the loss of function genetics, in combination with quantitative RNA

sequencing, we find that Jra is a major regulator of the genes involved in the gut immune

response, triggered by oral *Pseudomonas entomophila* (*Pe*) infection. Our data suggest that

Jra is part of an extensive immune Gene regulatory network (i-GRN) and is crucial for evoking

a robust immune response and maintain gut immune homeostasis. We find that SUMO

conjugates Jra at lysines 29 and 190, and a Jra$^{K29R+190R}$ mutant is SUMO-conjugation resistant

(SCR). The Jra^{SCR} double mutant line, generated by CRISPR Cas9 genome editing, is sensitive

to *Pe* infection and carries a higher load of bacteria, suggesting that the absence of Jra

SUMOylation weakens the ability of the host to resist infection. At the level of transcription,

lack of Jra SUMOylation changes the kinetics of the immune response, delaying and

weakening the activation of defense genes, an important example being the NFκB factor

Relish (Rel).

Our study thus uncovers Jra as a major transcriptional regulator of the gut immune

response. Increased Jra signaling appears to favor *Pseudomonas*, while SUMOylation of Jra

favors the host, presumably by enhancing the host response to pathogens. Thus, we postulate

that SUMOylation of Jra fine-tunes the host transcriptional response to infection.

 RESULTS

 Jra is a target for SUMO conjugation

We initiated our studies by validating our initial observation (Handu *et al.* 2015) that

Jra is SUMO conjugated (SUMOylated). Jra SUMOylation was validated using a previously

described *in-bacto* approach (Nie *et al.* 2009). Here, Jra was co-expressed in bacteria with

Drosophila SAE1, SAE2, Ubc9, and mature 6XHis-tagged SUMO (SUMO-GG) to facilitate target

SUMOylation. Affinity purification using glutathione beads, followed by western blotting, was

used to detect SUMOylated species migrating at a higher molecular weight than Jra, based on

the degree of conjugation. A similar experiment with an immature/dead 6XHis-tagged SUMO

(SUMO-ΔGG) served as a negative control. We consistently find two high molecular weight

bands that correspond to 1X and 2X SUMO conjugated species in the Western blots (Fig. 1A),

confirming that Jra is a target of SUMO conjugation. We also find a third higher molecular

weight band corresponding to >3X SUMO conjugated species. To discover the lysine residues

that are targets of SUMO machinery, we used the web-based tool, Joined Advanced

SUMOylation Site and Sim Analyser (JASSA) (Beauclair *et al.* 2015) to predict the putative

SUMO sites (Fig. 1B). SUMO is known to prefer lysine residues that follow the broad

consensus SUMO motif (ψ**K**XE/D), where ψ is a hydrophobic residue. A total of seven sites

(Fig. 1B) were targeted based both on JASSA predictions and the evolutionary conservation

of SUMO sites. Of these, K214 was a strong consensus motif while K29 and K190 were part of

Negatively charged amino acid-dependent SUMOylation (NSDM) site and Synergy Control

(SC) – SUMO motifs, respectively (Fig. 1C). The three-dimensional structures of Jun available

in the Protein Data Bank do not include the N-terminal and C-terminal regions, with secondary

structure predictions (Mitchell *et al.* 2019) suggesting that K29 and K190 are in unstructured

regions. We replaced each of the predicted lysine residues, one at a time, with an arginine

residue, whose side chain is resistant to SUMO conjugation (Fig. 1D & E). Our goal was to

identify SUMO conjugation sites and generate a SUMO conjugation resistant mutant (SCR) of

Jra. Of the seven site-directed mutants tested (Fig. 1C, D and E), only two, K190R and K29R,

showed partial loss of SUMOylation. There were changes in the intensity of SUMOylated

bands for the remaining single mutations, but their SUMOylation status was maintained (Fig.

1D & E). As a further step to generate a Jra SCR mutant, we cloned and tested the Jra double

mutant, Jra$^{K29R+K190R}$. Interestingly, we found that the double mutant could not be SUMO

conjugated, with all three SUMOylation bands missing (Fig. 1F).

Figure 1: Site-directed lysine mutagenesis screen identifies Jra(K29) and Jra(K190) as acceptor sites for SUMOylation,

A. Anti-His western blot (upper panel) post Glutathione agarose affinity pulldown (PD) shows three SUMOylated bands for GST-Jra. *GST-Jra^{WT}* co-transformed with immature *SUMO (SUMO-ΔGG)* serves as a negative control for SUMO conjugation. Anti-GST WB (lower panel) post affinity PD indicates similar levels of expression of GST-Jra^{WT} for the experimental and control lysates.

B. Schematic of the primary sequence of *Drosophila* Jra. The conjugation sites to be tested (panel C) are mapped onto Jra. Secondary structure prediction indicates that the Jra N-terminus is unstructured (black line), while the C-terminus (residues 210-275) is helical. This is in agreement with structures deposited in the Protein Data Bank

(PDB:1FOS), which correspond only to the C-terminal leucine zipper (orange box), formed from c-Jun/c-Fos
dimers.

C. Putative SUMO motifs predicted for Jra include the negative amino-acid dependant SUMO motif (NDSM; K29),
synergy consensus SUMO motif (SCSM; K190), four consensus SUMO motifs (K214, K233, K239 and K248) and
an inverted consensus motif (K218).

D. Anti-His western blot (upper panel) post PD showing the SUMOylated bands of Jra and its mutant variants.
Jra^{K190R} shows partial loss of SUMOylation where the upper and lowermost SUMOylated bands disappear. Jra^{K214R}
and Jra^{K218R} do not show any loss of bands and behave like the wildtype. Anti-GST western blot (lower panel)
post PD showing equal expression of different variants of GST-Jra. The lanes expressing the SUMO($\otimes$GG) variant
serve as a negative control for SUMO conjugation.

E. Anti-His western blot (upper panel) post PD showing the SUMOylated bands of Jra and its mutant variants.
Jra^{K29R} shows partial loss of SUMOylation where the two bands on the top disappear. Jra^{K233R}, Jra ^{K239R} and Jra^{K248R}
do not show loss of higher molecular weight SUMO bands. Anti-GST western blot (lower panel) post PD showing
expression of different variants of GST-Jra. The lanes expressing the SUMO-$\otimes$GG variant serve as a negative
control for SUMO conjugation.

F. Anti-His western blot (upper panel) of Jra post PD showing the three distinct SUMOylated Jra bands in Jra^{WT}.
Partial loss of SUMOylation in Jra^{K29R} and Jra^{K190R,} as seen in panels D and E, is confirmed. Jra$^{K29R+K190R}$ shows
complete loss of SUMOylation. Anti-GST western blot (lower panel) post PD showing expression levels of
unmodified Jra.

G. *In-vivo* demonstration of SUMOylation of Jra post-Ni-NTA affinity pull-down. Anti-Flag western blot in the
upper panel represents the SUMOylated species of Jra and was seen as two distinct bands, marked by asterisks
(*). Jra^{K190R} shows loss of the upper band, indicating partial loss of SUMOylation. Jra^{K29R} and Jra$^{K29R+K190R}$ show
complete loss of SUMOylation. Jra^{K218R} that was previously shown not to alter SUMOylation status in the
bacterial assay, is at par with Jra^{WT}. The empty vector was used as a master negative control. Anti-His western
blot (lower panel) represents unmodified Jra and serves as input post affinity PD.

Based on the molecular weight of the SUMOylated species in the Jra^{K29R} and Jra^{K190R}

lanes, we suspect that there is a third SUMO site in Jra which is dependent on SUMOylation

of Jra^{K29}. However, this third site is not populated either in the Jra^{K29R} single mutant or the

Jra$^{K29R+K190R}$ double mutant. Another possibility, di-SUMOylation at Jra^{K29R}, exists, but there is

evidence against poly-SUMOylation in insects (U$_{RENA}$ *et al.* 2016).

The Jra$^{K29R+K190R}$ is our putative SCR mutant (Jra^{SCR}). To confirm the resistance of this

mutant to SUMO conjugation *in-vivo*, we cloned *Jra^{WT}, Jra^{K29R}, Jra^{K190R}* and *Jra$^{K29R+K190R}$* with a

6XHis tag into an inducible pRM vector and transfected 529SU cells transiently with these

constructs. 529SU is a stable S2 cell line (B$_{HASKAR}$ *et al.* 2002) that expresses FLAG-SUMO-GG,

SAE1, SAE2 and Ubc9 using inducible metallothionein promoters. Expression of Jra variants

was initiated by adding CuSO4, which activates the metallothionein promoter. We have

performed Ni-NTA affinity pulldown under denaturing conditions, followed by western blots

probed with an anti-FLAG antibody and an anti-6XHis antibody (Fig. 1F). In S2 cells, Jra^{WT}

showed two SUMO-conjugated bands, corresponding to 1X and 2X SUMOylated species.

Jra^{K190R} retained one SUMO conjugation site, but interestingly both Jra^{K29R} and Jra$^{K29R+K190R}$ did

not show any SUMO conjugation. Since all further experiments were to be conducted in the

animal, and both these sites were high confidence SUMO conjugation sites, we chose to work

further with the double mutant, Jra$^{K29R+K190R}$, and defined it as *Jra^{SCR}*.

Jra and SUMO play critical roles in host defense in the fly gut

After exploring published roles for Jra, we decided to explore Jra function in the gut, which is

one of the primary immune organs in the fly (Buchon *et al.* 2013; Miguel-Aliaga *et al.* 2018).

Jra and the other components of the JNK pathway are expressed in various cell types of the

gut, with *Jra* upregulated in response to *Pe* infection (Dutta *et al.* 2015)(Fig. S1). *Jra* transcripts

are highest in the enterocytes (ECs, 4.3-fold), followed by the entero-endocrine cells (EEs, 2.7-

fold), the interstitial stem cells (ISCs, 1.6-fold) and the enteroblasts (EBs, 1.2-fold) post *Pe*

infection (Fig. S1). Flies orally fed with *Pe* rapidly succumb despite the induction of both local

and systemic immune responses (Vodovar *et al.* 2005; Liehl *et al.* 2006). Hence, we used the

Pe infection model to study the function of Jra in gut immunity. Since Jra null animals are

embryonic lethal, we tested the ability of two well characterised null alleles of *Jra*, *Jra^{IA109}* and

Jra$^{76-19}$, to resist *Pe* infection in a heterozygous combination with *w^{1118}* (Fig. 2A). Interestingly,

the absence of one copy of *Jra* protected the animal against infection, significantly extending

lifespan (Fig. 2A). In order to validate this result, we used a gut EC driver, *Myo31DF-Gal4^{ts}*

(also called *NP1-Gal4^{ts}*), to reduce Jra function by both RNA interference and by

overexpressing a dominant-negative (*Jra^{DN}*) allele. In both experiments (Fig. 2B), reduction of

Jra activity in the gut led to partial protection against the pathogen, leading to an extension

of lifespan.

In contrast, reduction of Jra activity either in the whole animal (Fig. 2A) or in the gut

(Fig. 2B) in the absence of infection does not appear to affect lifespan, suggesting that Jra is

haplo-sufficient in this context. In flies, the Jra function is activated by a Jun kinase (JNK),

Basket (Bsk) (Riesgo-Escovar *et al.* 1996; Sluss *et al.* 1996). Bsk modulates stem cell

proliferation and impacts gut regeneration in *Drosophila* (Biteau *et al.* 2008; Jiang *et al.* 2009;

Zhou *et al.* 2017). Also, Bsk synergizes with the Imd pathway to regulate epithelial cell

shedding during gut infection (Zhai *et al.* 2018). However, the role of Bsk in the regulation of

the gut immune response is not well understood. To test this, Bsk function was attenuated

by overexpressing a dominant-negative allele (*Bsk^{DN}*) in the ECs, and the flies were infected

with *Pe* (Fig 2C). Interestingly, as in the case of *Jra* knockdown, reduction of Bsk activity also

increased lifespan to a similar extent, suggesting that Bsk functions to regulate Jra activation

in the host response to infection (Fig. 2C).

Figure 2: Jra signalling and components of SUMO conjugation machinery have important host-defence roles in the *Drosophila* gut.

A. Survival curves of unchallenged (UC, dotted) and infected (I, closed) flies: w^{1118} (black), Jra^{IA109}/+ (purple) and Jra^{76-19}/+ (blue). Both Jra^{IA109}/+ and Jra^{76-19}/+ flies show enhanced survival upon infection. Log-rank test for trend was used to compare Jra^{IA109}/+ (I) to w^{1118} (I) and Jra^{76-19}/+ (I) to w^{1118} (I). ****$p<0.0001$.

B. Survival curves of UC (dotted) and I (closed), flies after over-expression of Jra^{RNAi} (purple) and Jra^{DN} (blue) The *Gal4* control is represented in black. Loss of function of Jra showed enhanced survival upon infection and suggested a gut-specific role of Jra as a suppressor of the immune response. Log-rank test for trend was used to compare >Jra^{RNAi} (I) to >w^{1118} and >Jra^{DN} (I) *to* >w^{1118} (I). ****$p<0.0001$.

C. Survival curves of UC (dotted) and I (closed) flies, post-over-expression of Bsk^{DN} (purple) and Kay^{DN} (blue). The *Gal4* control is represented in black. Loss of function of *Bsk* (but not *Kay*) in the gut showed enhanced survival upon infection. Log-rank test for trend was used to compare >Bsk^{DN} (I) to >w^{1118} (I), >Kay^{DN} (I) to >w^{1118} (I) and >Bsk^{DN} (UC) to >w^{1118} (UC). ****$p<0.0001$.

D. Survival curves of unchallenged UC (dotted) and I (closed) flies: >w^{1118} (black) and >$SUMO^{RNAi}$ (purple). Loss of SUMO in the gut enhances lifespan post-infection. Log-rank test for trend was used to compare >$SUMO^{RNAi}$ (I) to >w^{1118} (I). ****$p<0.0001$.

E. Survival curves of UC (dotted) and I (closed) flies after perturbing different components of the SUMO cycle
machinery: >w^{1118} (black), >$Uba2^{RNAi}$ (green), >$Aos1^{RNAi}$ (pink) and >$Ubc9^{DN}$ (orange). Log rank test for trend was
used to compare >$Uba2^{RNAi}$ (I) to >w^{1118} (I), >$Aos1^{RNAi}$ (I) to >w^{1118} (I) and >$Ubc9^{DN}$ to >w^{1118} (I) and >Aos^{RNAi} (UC)
to > w^{1118} (UC). *p=0.03; ***p=0.0008 ****p<0.0001.
F. Scatter dot plot representing bacterial load as colony-forming units (CFUs) post-infection. The student's t-test
was performed comparing w^{1118} and Jra^{IA109}/+ at respective time points. **p=0.0025; *p=0.0194.
Enterocyte specific NP1-Gal4^{ts} was used to express the transgenes. Data related to the number of animals per
experiment and replicates listed in Fig. S2A. Data not significant, not represented.
243

Surprisingly, loss of function of Bsk in the gut enhanced lifespan in non-infected

conditions. This may suggest that Bsk is a kinase for additional proteins in the gut that regulate

the fly's lifespan. Kayak (Kay) can also partner with Jra for transcriptional regulation, with the

heterodimeric Jra/Kay complex orthologous to the Jun/Fos AP-1 complex (RIESGO-ESCOVAR AND

HAFEN 1997; CIAPPONI AND BOHMANN 2002). In the fly gut, however, reducing the function of Kay

did not appreciably change the lifespan of the adult fly (Fig. 2C) post-infection, possibly

indicating a Kay-independent role for Jra in responding to *Pe* infection in the gut.

Since this study aims to understand the roles of Jra SUMOylation, we also tested the

effect of the reduction of global SUMOylation in the gut. Knockdown of *Smt3*/*SUMO* in the

gut using *NP1-Gal4^{ts}* was again protective under infective conditions (Fig. 2D). Further,

knockdown of the enzymes that contribute to SUMO conjugation, namely *SAE1/Aos1*,

SAE2/Uba2, was also protective, extending adult fly lifespan during *Pe* infection (Fig. 2D), as

was the expression of a dominant-negative allele of the conjugating enzyme, *Lwr/Ubc9*

(*Ubc9^{DN}*). Under non-infective conditions, loss of SUMO conjugation appeared to affect

lifespan, with *Aos1* knockdown reducing lifespan significantly compared to *NP1-Gal4^{ts}> w^{1118}*

(Fig. 1E).

The protective effect of *Jra* knockdown suggests that the *Pe* may be resistant to

clearance by the host-defense response in the presence of *Jra*. We measured the colony-

forming units (CFUs) in the gut of adult flies, 2 hours, 8 hours and 24 hours post-infection (hpi,

Fig. 2F). The number of CFUs gradually decreased as the infection progressed in w^{1118} and

Jra^{IA109}/+. However, there were fewer CFUs in the gut, by order of magnitude, in Jra^{IA109}/+

animals, when compared to controls at 8 and 24 hours post-infection, suggesting that absence

of Jra signaling in the gut epithelium led to better clearance of gut microbes. Early clearance

of the pathogen could also lead to decreased damage of the gut epithelium and a concomitant

longer lifespan.

Infection with *Pe* damages the gut epithelium, triggering the ISCs to divide asymmetrically

to replace the differentiated cells (CHAKRABARTI *et al.* 2012). Immunostaining with an anti-

phospho-Histone 3 (pH3) antibody in the gut post-infection allows us to measure the extent

of ISC proliferation. For this, w^{1118} and Jra^{IA109}/+ flies were fed with *Pe* for 8 hours and dividing

cells per midgut were counted (Fig. S2B). When compared to UC flies, there was a strong

induction of mitoses upon infection. The number of dividing cells was similar between w^{1118}

(I) and Jra^{IA109}/+ (I), suggesting that Jra might not play a dominant role in regulating the

intestinal stem cell proliferation upon an immune challenge in the current context.

The reduction of Jra activity during a *Pe* infection appears to be protective to the fly

in the context of the gut. Although *Jra* transcripts increase in the gut epithelium in response

to *Pe* infection, peaking at 12 hours (next section); Their absence reduces the CFUs and also

enhances the survival of flies post-infection. Further, reduction of activity of *Bsk* is also

protective, suggesting that Bsk and Jra function in a common Jun kinase (JNK) regulatory

pathway in the gut. The gut thus appears to merit a detailed study on the roles for SUMO

conjugation of Jra. Our data *prima facie* suggests that Jra acts as an important regulator of

the host defense response in the gut epithelium.

Jra is a major regulator of the transcriptional response to Pe infection

To understand the effect of reduced Jra function in the clearance of *Pe* and extending

lifespan in infective conditions, we measured the changes in the midgut transcriptome using

3'mRNA sequencing (Fig. S3A and described in Materials and Methods). To start with, we

measured the kinetics of activation of *Jra* in the gut during the infection and also the extent

of knockdown at each time point using quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR; Fig. 3A). We find

that *Jra* levels peak at 12 hpi in our experimental setup. In terms of efficiency of knockdown,

the *Jra* levels were reduced by at least 60% during the time course of the infection (Fig. 3A).

Next, transcriptomes of the midguts were measured at 4, 12, and 24 hpi for both wild-

type and after *Jra* knockdown. Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed to estimate

the robustness of the dataset (Fig. S3B). We plotted the first two principal components and

observed that the data sets were distinct as the infection progressed and were seen as

separate clusters (Fig. S3B). We compared the transcriptional changes in *NP-Gal4^{ts} >Jra^{RNAi}*

(*>Jra^{RNAi}* here onwards) to *NP-Gal4^{ts} >w^{1118}* (*>w^{1118}* here onwards), without an immune

challenge (Unchallenged; UC). Upon knockdown, *Jra* is downregulated by 1.2 times on a log

2-fold change (log$_2$FC scale; Table S1). We also report that 292 genes were differentially

expressed with a false discovery rate (FDR) <0.1, amongst which 168 genes were upregulated

and 124 genes were downregulated in >*Jra^{RNAi}* as compared to >*w^{1118}* (Fig. 3B and Table S1).

The genes including components of immune signalling are putative direct (or indirect)

transcriptional targets of Jra. The gut-specific AMPs *Drosomysin-like 2* (*Drsl2*), *Drsl3* and

peptidoglycan recognition proteins *PGRP-SC1a* and *PGRP-SC1b* are upregulated (Fig. 3C),

suggesting a role for Jra in regulating defense genes even in the absence of infection.

Next, we compared the transcriptome of >*w^{1118}* and >*Jra^{RNAi}* in response to infection

(I). We normalised data from each infection time point to UC of that genotype and have

separated the total genes that were differentially expressed in each pairwise comparison. We

then looked at the number of genes differentially expressed at each timepoint in >*w^{1118}* and

>*Jra^{RNAi}*. The genes identified ranged from 1000-2000 at each time point. Of note, at 12 hpi,

the number of significantly different genes in >*Jra^{RNAi}*, were numerically half of that in >*w^{1118}*,

indicating a major perturbation in the immune transcriptome (Fig. 3D). We also compared the

genes that were common to both the genotypes and genes that were unique to either of the

genotypes during infection (FDR<0.1; Fig. S4A). A total of 3505 genes were differentially

expressed in both the genotypes, with all timepoints taken together (Table S1). Gene ontology

(GO) analysis on all the 3505 genes indicates enrichment of several key GO terms like

metabolic process, response to stress, Toll and Imd signalling pathway (Fig. S4B).

Fig. 3E categorizes a representative set of genes. Analysing log$_2$FC values of individual

genes (Table S1; Fig. 3E) at the three kinetic time points allows us to understand quantitative

differences between the immune response for the two genotypes. At the level of the gene

transcripts, the effect appears to be context-specific; most AMPs (Fig. 3E) are upregulated

post-infection. In >*Jra^{RNAi}* genes such as *AttA, AttB, DptA, DptB, CecA1, CecA2, Drsl4* show

higher log$_2$FC values and appear to be activated strongly in the earliest time point, i.e 4 hpi,

further confirmed by qRT-PCR (Fig. S5A and S5B) for *DiptA* and *AttD*. Log$_2$FC values for the

Imd pathway members, *Relish* (*Rel*), seem to be comparable between both the genotypes.

Figure 3: Jra is a major regulator of the *Pe* infected gut transcriptome.

A. Kinetics of activation of Jra transcripts, as measured by qRT-PCR in *>w^1118* and *>Jra^RNAi* without and with gut infection. *p=0.0144, ****p<0.0001 as determined by 2-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post-hoc test for multiple comparisons. Data from three independent experiments. Means and SEMs represented.

B. Bar plot representation of a total number of significantly differentially expressed genes (FDR<0.1) obtained by comparing *>w^1118* and *>Jra^RNAi* under UC conditions post a 3' mRNA sequencing experiment.

C. Volcano plot showing the up or down-regulated genes, comparing *NP-Gal4^ts >w^1118* and *NP-Gal4^ts >Jra^RNAi*. A few genes previously known to function in regulating immunity are highlighted.

D. Bar plot representation of the total number of significantly differentially expressed genes (FDR<0.1) obtained at different hpi after comparing to UC animals of the respective genotype.

E. Tabular representation of log$_2$FC values of transcripts for a few categories of defence genes regulated during the infection. Log$_2$FC values in the range 0.58 to -0.58, indicating no significant changes compared to UC, are marked in white.

F. Jra binds to the promoters of several genes (data plotted from modERN dataset ENCSR471GSA). Heatmap represents the normalised expression counts of genes for transcription factors, enriched in the RNA-seq data set, with Jra binding peaks on the promoters.

G. Schematic of Jra immune regulatory network representing the effect of Jra on a subset of transcription factors. The balance between activation and repression of genes by Jra is necessary to evoke a proper and robust immune response.

The same is true for the NFκB transcription factor *dorsal* (*dl*) and members of the JNK pathway, *Puckered* (*Puc)* and *Kay*. However, *poor Imd response upon knock-in* (*Pirk*), the negative regulator of the Imd pathway (KLEINO *et al.* 2008), had higher log$_2$FC values in >*Jra^{RNAi}* compared to *w^{1118}* at 12hpi. Also, the Jak/STAT pathway components *Upd2* and *Dome* show higher log$_2$FC values in >*Jra^{RNAi}* suggesting that the Jak/STAT pathway might be strongly activated in the guts of >*Jra^{RNAi}* flies. Interestingly, transcriptional regulators like *forkhead* (*fkh*), *Ets at 21C* (*Ets21C*), *chronologically inappropriate morphogenesis* (*chinmo*), *simganj* (*simj*), *Protein interacting with Ttk69 and Sin3A* (*Pits*), *hairy (h)*, *Bicoid interacting protein 1*(*Bin1*), and *anterior open (aop)* show stronger levels of activation in >*Jra^{RNAi}* throughout the infection. This suggests that Jra could be a major player in a larger gut-specific i-GRN that is activated during an immune response.

Jra can influence the transcription of genes by directly binding to their promoters. We hypothesised that Jra could directly influence the transcription of a subset of the 3505 genes obtained in our experiment. To test this, we used the Jra ChIP-seq dataset available from the modERN consortium (KUDRON *et al.* 2018) and mapped the occupancy of Jra on the promoters of 3505 genes (Fig. S6A, Table S1). We identified a total of 778 genes with enriched peaks of Jra binding on the promoters (Fig. S6A) and considered them as direct transcriptional targets of Jra. We plotted the normalized counts of these 778 genes across all timepoint and two genotypes and observed clear differences in the expression of several genes in >*Jra^{RNAi}* as compared to >*w^{1118}* (Fig. S6B). We then performed GO analysis on this subset and confirmed that 'gene-specific transcription' is one of the most represented GO terms (Fig. S6C). Interestingly, there were 37 transcription factors (TFs) in this list, with each transcription factor having the ability to upregulate/downregulate its own set of target genes. Thus the GRN of Jra, along with its target TFs, would define the core Jra-dependent immune gene

regulatory network (Jra i-GRN). Hence, we had a closer look at the expression patterns of

these TFs (Fig. 3F). Of the 37 TFs, a subset of them responds strongly to infection. These

include *h*, *kay*, *Cyclic-AMP response element-binding protein A* (*CrebA*), *Rel*, *Ets21C*, *cabut*

(*cbt*), dorsal (*dl*), daughterless (*da)*, *fkh*, *aop*, *Activating transcription factor 3* (*Atf3*), *Kruppel*

homolog 1 (*Kr-h1*), *chinmo*, *Myocyte enhancer factor 2* (*Mef2*), *NK7.1*, and *Jra*. Reduction in

Jra affected *Rel, Ets21c, Promyelocytic leukaemia zinc finger (Plzf)*, and *brother of odd with*

entrails limited (bowl) consistently in all the time points and can be seen as reduced levels of

transcripts suggesting positive regulation by Jra. Genes like *h*, *fkh*, *aop*, *atf3* and *CG8944* show

increased transcript levels upon knockdown of Jra, suggesting negative regulation by Jra.

Our data from the transcriptome analysis suggests that loss of Jra in the gut both

enhances and suppresses a set of genes (Fig. 3G). The kinetics of upregulation of the AMPs in

>*Jra*^{RNAi} appears to be faster than >*w*^{1118}, and this could lead to early clearance of bacteria and

thus increase the longevity of the infected animal. The Jra i-GRN appears to contain several

key transcriptional factors with known gut-specific roles in maintaining homeostasis. These,

among several others, include Rel, Ets21C, fkh, aop, and atf3, which are also confident targets

of Jra. The influence of Jra on the transcription of these factors could be part of a larger

network that is required to activate and suppress genes to evoke a robust immune response

(Fig. 3G). Physiologically, the integrated result of the reduction of Jra function and subsequent

kinetic modulation of the i-GRN appears to strengthen the host defences, to delay the final

victory of the pathogen.

Generation of Jra^{SCR} by CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing

Having established the functional landscape of Jra function in the gut, we focused on

understanding specific roles for SUMO conjugation of Jra. For this, we generated a Jra SCR

animal using CRISPR/Cas9 technology. This technology has emerged as a powerful tool to edit

the genome and generate point mutations within a gene (Bassett *et al.* 2013; Gratz *et al.*

2013; Grant *et al.* 2019). A major benefit of the methodology is the directed nature of the

process and the absence of modifications distal from the targeted locus, with the expression

of the mutant allele driven by the native promoter. Our strategy involved the use of the

Scarless system (Gratz *et al.* 2014), where a mutant *Jra* genomic template was available after

double-stranded break by Cas9 for homology dependant repair (HDR). The stages for

generating a Jra$^{K29R+K190R}$ were as follows. A guide RNA (gRNA) that targeted the third exon in

the *Jra* locus was designed and cloned into the pBFv-U6.2B vector (Fig. 4A). A transgenic line

was generated by targeting the integration of this vector into the second chromosomal attP40 site by embryonic microinjection (Fig. 4A). The single guide-RNA line (Jra^{sg2}) was balanced and validated. The two SCR mutations that we planned to incorporate into the genomic locus of *Jra* were cloned in the pHD-Scarless-DsRed vector ((GRATZ *et al.* 2014); Fig. 4B). In the Scarless vector, the DsRed cassette is flanked by PBac inverted repeats (IR) that target a TTAA site, and the IRs, in turn, are flanked by the homology regions (HR) specific to the genomic region of interest (Fig. 4B). The DsRed is driven specifically in the eye by the P3 promoter and serves as a proxy for the insertion of the entire cassette into the genomic locus. We incorporated the desired K->R mutations in the 3'HR region and assembled two fragments of *Jra* and two vector fragments using Gibson assembly creating the pHD-Scarless-Jra^{SCR} vector (Fig. 4B), which was validated by DNA sequencing.

pHD-Scarless-Jra^{SCR} was injected into 600 embryos expressing Cas9 and Jra^{sg2} (Fig. 4C, D). The F1 animals that emerged were balanced with a 2nd chromosome balancer. Lines that were successfully balanced were screened for positive insertions of the pHD-Scarless-Jra^{SCR} by the presence of red fluorescence in the eye of the fly. HDR seemed to be efficient, with 82 lines showing integration. A small subset (20) of DsRed positive lines were crossed with a transposase line. The intent was to excise the DsRed cassette. The TTAA site that is duplicated upon insertion of the cassette is restored into a single genomic TTAA site leaving no 'scar'. Six out of the 20 lines showed a loss of DsRed fluorescence, and these flies were rebalanced and sequenced. Only two out of the six lines had K->R mutations at both positions (29th and 190th), and we have extensively characterised these lines in the further sections. Three lines harboured K->R mutation only on the 29th position and not the 190th position. One line did not harbour any K->R mutations, and this line was used as a CRISPR control for all the further experiments and referred to as Jra^{WT} (Fig. 4E). The *Jra* genomic region was sequenced to confirm that no new mutations were generated in the region. All the six lines were homozygous viable, isogenic and lost the balancers in a couple of generations.

Figure 4: CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing is used to generate the *Jra^SCR^* line.

A. The guide RNA transgenic line, *Jra^sg2^*, was created for generating a double-stranded break in the *Jra* locus. A *Jra* locus-specific gRNA fragment (5'CCCCGTTTCCGCTGCTGCG3') was designed and inserted into the pBFV-U6.2B vector.

B. Design and cloning strategy for generating the pHD-scarless-*Jra^SCR^* vector. Homology regions (HR, in dark grey) from the *Jra* locus (bottom panel) were cloned into the 5' and 3' arms of the vector as shown in the Schematic. The majority of Jra coding region was part of the 3' arm. As part of the design, the gRNA (panel A) was targeted to the CDS which was a part of the 3rd exon. Details of cloning of the vector are listed in Materials and Methods. The construction of the pHD-Scarless-*Jra^SCR^* was validated by sequencing.

C. Schematic of injection of pHD-Scarless-*Jra^SCR^* and genetic crosses implemented to mutate the genomic locus of *jra* and generate a *Jra^SCR^* transgenic fly using CRISPR/Cas9 technology. *actin-Cas9* flies were crossed with the

stable Jra gRNA transgenic fly, Jra^{sg2}. The embryos from the cross were injected with pHD-Scarless-Jra^{SCR}. Flies
that emerged were screened for the presence of fluorescent red eyes. DsRed positive flies, with the pHD-
Scarless-Jra^{SCR} cassette integrated into the Jra locus, were balanced against the w-;Cyo balancer. SCR mutations
would presumably have been incorporated as part of the 3' HR arm. Next, excision of the dsRed cassette was
carried out by crossing the flies to a line expressing pBac transposase. Lines in the next generation were screened
for loss of DsRed. The lines were balanced, post excision and *Jra* locus sequenced to confirm the loss of DsRed
and gain of SCR mutations (panel E).
D. Tabular representation of the efficiency of CRISPR/Cas9 mediated genome editing of Jra. 600 embryos of the
Cas9 and gRNA cross were injected with pHD-Scarless-Jra^{SCR}. 530 embryos emerged into adults, of which 490
were females, and 40 were males. Only 82 of 490 females had red fluorescence in their eyes. 20 fly lines out of
the 82 positives were randomly selected and crossed to flies expressing PBac transposase. 6 flies showed loss of
red fluorescence in the eye, and all were sequenced. Only 2 of the 6 lines harboured both the desired lysine to
arginine mutations.
G. Snapshot of the chromatogram of sequences showing K29R and K190R mutations in the genomic locus of Jra.
L1 and L2 represent two independent lines of *Jra^{SCR}*, and a third line that did not harbour either of the mutations,
was used as wildtype control.
460

SUMO conjugation of Jra attenuates the suppression of immune response by Jra

Earlier, we have shown that Jra is a major regulator of the gut i-GRN. Mechanistically,

Jra directly or indirectly regulates key immune effector genes in the gut of *Drosophila* during

infection. A comparison of the gut immune transcriptome between Jra^{WT} and Jra^{SCR} animals

would lead to an understanding of the role of SUMOylation in regulating Jra function (Next

Section). Before that, we looked for phenotypical differences in Jra^{WT} and Jra^{SCR} during an

infection to attribute an allelic definition to Jra^{SCR}. Jra^{SCR} flies fed with *Pe* responded poorly to

infection and succumbed early (Fig. 5A). This was true for both lines (L1, L2) that we

generated. Interestingly, in terms of survival against infection, Jra^{SCR} flies were more sensitive,

unlike the *Jra* hypomorph (compare Fig. 2A and Fig. 5A). To define the nature of the SCR allele,

we crossed the Jra^{WT}, and Jra^{SCR} flies to Jra^{IA109} and performed lifespan experiments on the

heterozygotes. Post feeding with *Pe*, Jra^{IA109}/Jra^{WT} flies lived longer than homozygous Jra^{WT}

flies upon infection, consistent with the idea that loss of *Jra* was protective, enhancing the

ability of the fly to fight the infection. Jra^{IA109}/Jra^{SCR} animals also survived longer when

compared to homozygous Jra^{SCR} flies, but not when compared to Jra^{IA109}/Jra^{WT}.

To further characterize the allele, we generated overexpression (OE) lines for both

Jra^{WT} and Jra^{SCR}. Wild-type and SCR sequences were cloned into the pUASp-attB vector and

UAS- Jra^{WT} and UAS-Jra^{SCR} lines balanced on the third chromosome. Flies with one copy of

Jra^{WT} and Jra^{SCR} survived better than homozygous Jra^{SCR} flies suggesting that a single copy of

WT Jra is sufficient to rescue the lethality and restore homeostasis in the gut (Fig. 5C). Also,

OE of *Jra^WT* in the gut was sufficient to partially rescue the survival seen in *Jra^SCR* homozygous

flies, while overexpression of Jra^SCR in the gut of homozygous *Jra^SCR* flies did not show any

change in lifespan post-infection (Fig. 5C). Since the rescue with OE of *Jra^WT* in the enterocytes

was only partial, we used Jra specific *Gal4* (*Jra-Gal4*) and looked at the rescue of *Jra^SCR* with

OE of *Jra^WT*. Similar to what was previously observed, flies with a single copy of *Jra^WT* and

Jra^SCR survived better than homozygous *Jra^SCR* flies. Interestingly, OE of *Jra^WT* with *Jra-Gal4*

completely rescued the survival of homozygous *Jra^SCR*. OE of *Jra^SCR*, however, did not alter the

survival of the homozygous *Jra^SCR* flies. This suggests that the expression of Jra needs to be

tightly regulated to evoke a robust immune response and maintain homeostasis. Also, the

role of other organs/tissues in contributing to the expression of Jra cannot be ruled out. Our

data rule out *Jra^SCR* as a loss of function allele or a dominant-negative allele. Based on the

behaviour of the allele and the equivalent data from hypomorphic alleles (Fig. 2A, B), *Jra^SCR*

appears to be a hypermorphic allele with increased activity of Jra. This would also suggest

that SUMO conjugation of Jra could reduce Jra activity, an observation previously reported in

the mammalian ortholog, c-Jun (MULLER *et al.* 2000; BOSSIS *et al.* 2005).

Next, we tested if the sensitivity of *Jra^SCR* flies correlates with the ability of the

pathogen to survive in the gut. For this, we performed the bacterial clearance assay on *Jra^WT*

and *Jra^SCR* flies. We observed that *Jra^SCR* flies were weaker in their ability to clear *Pe* as there

were more CFUs as compared to *Jra^WT* at 24 hpi (Fig. 5E). This suggested that the defence

factors produced by the gut were weaker in Jra^SCR animals. We also tested for the ability of

ISCs to proliferate post-infection in *Jra^WT* and *Jra^SCR* flies. In both cases, pH3$^+$ cells increased,

indicating a stem cell response, but the response appears to be equal in both genotypes (Fig.

S7B). SUMOylation of Jra does not appear to have a role in regulating the division of ISCs

during infection.

The function of *Jra^SCR* is thus distinct from *Jra^WT*. Compared to Jra hypomorphs, the

effect is contrary, both in terms of lifespan and bacterial clearance. This further agrees with

our assertion that *Jra^SCR* is a hypermorphic allele. Loss of SUMOylation of Jra increases the

activity of Jra and thus reduces the ability of the fly to fight infection.

Figure 5: Survival curves post-infection suggest that *Jra^SCR* is a hypermorphic allele

A. Survival curves of unchallenged (UC, dashed lines) and orally infected (I, closed lines), CRISPR/Cas9 modified *Jra^SCR* flies, compared to *Jra^WT*. L1 (red) and L2 (blue) indicate two independent *Jra^SCR* lines used in the experiment. Log-rank test for trend was used to individually compare *Jra^SCR L1* (I) and *Jra^SCR L2* (I) to *Jra^WT* (I). ****p<0.0001.

B. Survival curves of UC (dotted) and I (closed), flies: *Jra^WT* (black), *Jra^SCR* (purple), *Jra^IA109*/*Jra^WT* (grey) and *Jra^IA109*/*Jra^SCR* (lavender). Log rank test for trend was used to compare *Jra^IA109*/*Jra^WT* (I) to Jra^WT (I), *Jra^IA109*/*Jra^SCR* (I) to *Jra^SCR* (I) and *Jra^IA109*/*Jra^SCR* (I) to *Jra^IA109*/*Jra^WT* (I). ****p<0.0001.

C. Survival curves of UC (dotted) and I (closed) flies: *Jra^SCR,NP1-Gal4^ts*/*Jra^SCR* (black), *Jra^SCR,NP1-Gal4^ts*/*Jra^WT* (grey), *Jra^SCR,NP1-Gal4^ts*/*Jra^SCR*;*UAS-Jra^WT*/+ (blue) and *Jra^SCR,NP1-Gal4^ts*/*Jra^SCR*;*UAS-Jra^SCR*/+ (purple). Log rank test for trend was used to compare *Jra^SCR,NP1-Gal4^ts*/*Jra^WT* (I), *Jra^SCR,NP1-Gal4^ts*/*Jra^SCR*;*UAS-Jra^WT*/+ (I) and *Jra^SCR,NP1-Gal4^ts*/*Jra^SCR*;*UAS-Jra^SCR*/+ to *Jra^SCR,NP1-Gal4^ts*/*Jra^SCR* (I). ****p<0.0001.

D. Survival curves of UC (dotted) and I (closed) flies: *Jra^SCR*;*Jra-Gal4*/+ (black), *Jra^SCR*/*Jra^WT*;*Jra-Gal4*/+ (grey), *Jra^SCR*;*Jra-Gal4*/*UAS-Jra^WT* (blue) and *Jra^SCR*;*Jra-Gal4*/*UAS-Jra^SCR* (purple). Log rank test for trend was used to compare *Jra^SCR*/*Jra^WT*;*Jra-Gal4*/+ (I), *Jra^SCR*;*Jra-Gal4*/*UAS-Jra^WT* (I) and *Jra^SCR*;*Jra-Gal4*/*UAS-Jra^SCR* to *Jra^SCR*;*Jra-Gal4*/+ (I). ****p<0.0001.

E. Scatter dot plot representing bacterial load as colony-forming units (CFUs) post oral feeding with *Pe* Student's t-test was performed comparing *Jra^WT* and *Jra^SCR* at respective time point post-infection. **p=0.0015.

Data related to the number of animals per experiment and replicates listed in Fig. S7A. Data not significant is not represented.

Jra^{SCR} suppresses the activation of defence genes

To gain further mechanistic insight into the role of *Jra^{SCR}*, we have performed a comparative 3'mRNA sequencing experiment with the guts isolated from *Jra^{SCR}* and *Jra^{WT}* at 4 and 12 hours post *Pe* infection. PCA indicates that both the genotypes form distinct clusters (Fig. S8A), with the progression of infection. *Jra* levels in *Jra^{WT}* and *Jra^{SCR}* flies were comparable during infection, indicating similar levels of activation (Fig. 6A). Comparing *Jra^{WT}* and *Jra^{SCR}* in UC animals, we find that the transcriptional differences were restricted to a very small number (87; FDR<0.1; Table S2) of genes (Fig. 6B). Genes that are known to regulate immune response were found to be both upregulated, (e.g., *Drosomycin-like 2* (*Drsl2*), *Attacin-D (AttD)* and *Charon*) and downregulated, (e.g. *Peptidoglycan recognition protein -SC1a* (*PGRP-SC1a*), *PGRP-SC1b* and *Pirk*), in the *Jra^{SCR}* flies (Fig. 6C). Post *Pe* infection, we identified a total of 3134 (FDR<0.1; Table S2) genes to be differentially expressed at 4 hpi and 12 hpi, as normalised to UC in both the genotypes taken together. These genes are plotted in terms of number upregulated downregulated at each time point of the respective genotype (Fig. 6D). We also observed that the changes in genes that were differentially expressed were maximum at 12 hpi (Fig. 6D, Fig. S8B), an observation we previously made (Fig 3) suggesting that major changes in gene regulation occur at 12 hpi in our experimental setup. Gene ontology analysis reveals several key GO terms like metabolic process, gene expression, response to stress, MAPK signalling pathway etc., to be significantly enriched (Fig. S8C) in the genes that are differentially expressed. In order to relate this data to earlier data on Jra loss of function, we evaluated the same set of genes as in Fig. 3E. The $\log_2$FC values of a majority of AMPs (*AttB*, *AttD*, *Cecropin A2* (*CecA2*), *Diptericin A* (*DptA)*, *Drsl3*, and *Drsl4*) were lower in *Jra^{SCR}* as compared to that of *Jra^{WT}*. The lower levels of AMPs could be one of the reasons for *Jra^{SCR}* flies to succumb early upon infection. Interestingly, the $\log_2$FC values of the transcription factor *Rel* were considerably lower in *Jra^{SCR}* than *Jra^{WT}* in both the infection time points. Also, the $\log_2$FC values of the negative regulator (of the Imd pathway), *Pirk*, appeared to be higher in *Jra^{SCR}* flies than *Jra^{WT}* flies indicating that in *Jra^{SCR}* flies, Imd signalling is dampened. Since Rel is a master immune regulator, we validated this result by performing a quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) on the guts of *Jra^{WT}* and *Jra^{SCR}* post-infection.

Figure 6: The modulation of the immune response by Jra^SCR is distinct from that of Jra^WT.

A. Kinetics of activation of Jra transcripts, as measured by qRT-PCR in *Jra^WT* and *Jra^SCR* without and with gut infection. Data from three independent experiments. Means and SEMs represented.

B. Bar plot representation of a total number of significantly differentially expressed genes (FDR<0.1) obtained by comparing *Jra^WT* and *Jra^SCR* under UC conditions post a 3' mRNA sequencing experiment.

C. Volcano plot showing the up or down-regulated genes, on comparing *Jra^WT* and *Jra^SCR*. A few genes previously known to function in regulating immunity are highlighted.

D. Bar plot representation of the total number of significantly differentially expressed genes (FDR<0.1) obtained at 4 and 12 hpi after comparing to UC animals for the respective genotype.

E. Tabular representation of log_2FC values of transcripts for a few categories of defence genes regulated during the infection, with a color code at the bottom of the table. Log_2FC values in the range 0.58 to -0.58, indicating no significant changes compared to UC, are marked in white.

F. Heatmap representing the normalised expression counts of genes for transcription factors, enriched in the RNA-seq data set, with Jra binding peaks on their promoters.

G. Cartoon representation of the effect of SUMOylation of Jra on *Rel* transcription during infection. In the left panel, Jra^{WT} can be conjugated to SUMO, and this feature helps in the normal activation of *Rel* during the immune response. Whereas, in the case of Jra^{SCR} (right panel), which cannot conjugate to SUMO, *Rel* expression is significantly weaker.

We found that the activation of *Rel* was suppressed in the guts of *Jra^{SCR}* (Fig. S9A), the same was true with the activation of *DptA* (Fig. S9B) and *AttD* (Fig. S9C), which are transcriptionally activated by Rel. In contrast, the log_2FC values of components of the JNK pathways were comparable in *Jra^{WT}* and *Jra^{SCR}*. A number of transcriptional regulators that showed higher log_2FC values in >*Jra^{RNAi}* (Fig. 3E) in comparison to *w^{1118}* showed lower log_2FC values in *Jra^{SCR}* when compared to *Jra^{WT}*. Also, the levels of *Upd3* and *Dome* were lower in the *Jra^{SCR}* flies. Taken together, this suggests that at a molecular level, the genes necessary to negate *Pe* infection are either suppressed or insufficiently activated in *Jra^{SCR}*, leading to the better survival of the pathogen.

As before (Fig. 3), we focused on the genes that could be directly regulated by Jra. For this, we mapped the occupancy of Jra on the 3134 genes differentially expressed, as before. We identified 702 genes with enriched Jra binding peaks on the promoters (Fig. S10A). Plotting the normalised expression of the 702 genes indicated changes between both the genotypes as the infection progressed (Fig. S10B; Table S2) and as previously observed in >*w^{1118}* and >*Jra^{RNAi}* dataset, the 'gene-specific transcription' GO term was one of the most represented categories (Fig. S10C). We evaluated gene function and identified 42 transcription factors in the list. We plotted the normalised expression counts between the two genotypes during infection to look for changes in the expression pattern of these transcription factors (Fig. 6F). Surprisingly, we observed that the mRNA levels in *Jra^{SCR}* animals for this subset of genes were lower as compared to *Jra^{WT}* as the infection progressed. This decrease was considerable in *kay*, *Rel*, *dl*, *aop*, *Kr-h1 cbt* and *Ets21C* at 12 hpi (Fig. 6F) and modest for *h*, *pebbled* (*peb*), *chinmo*, *Jra*, *da*, *fkh* and *Atf3*.

The early lethality seen in *Jra^{SCR}* flies thus strongly correlates with the findings from the transcriptomics data. We observed that in *Jra^{SCR}*, several AMPs and key genes that

605 regulate the immune response were insufficiently activated, allowing the pathogen to thrive

606 at the expense of the host. The Jra i-GRN previously described appears to be weakly activated

607 in the Jra^{SCR} flies shifting the balance in favor of the pathogen. The mRNA levels of *Rel*, in

608 particular, are significantly lowered in Jra^{SCR} (Fig S9), suggesting that SUMOylation of Jra is a

609 necessary event for robust activation of *Rel* in the gut (Fig. 6G).

 DISCUSSION

The Jun-kinase (JNK) pathway is a well-characterized signalling module used in a wide

variety of cellular processes, including, but not limited to proliferation, immunity, apoptosis,

and embryonic development. The module is complex with multiple receptors, signalling

intermediates, and transcriptional effectors (reviewed by (EFERL AND WAGNER 2003; XIA AND

KARIN 2004; DHANASEKARAN AND REDDY 2008; WAGNER AND NEBREDA 2009; ARTHUR AND LEY 2013)).

A central theme of the pathway is a cascade of kinases that lead to the activation of a number

of the effector transcription factor(s), including c-Jun. In *Drosophila,* the components of the

JNK pathway have been well studied (IP AND DAVIS 1998; NOSELLI AND AGNÈS 1999; PEREZ-GARIJO

et al. 2005; BITEAU *et al.* 2011; RAZZELL *et al.* 2011; RIOS-BARRERA AND RIESGO-ESCOVAR 2013;

GALENZA AND FOLEY 2019; BAKER 2020) with Jra also implicated as a transcriptional effector of

the systemic immune response in *Drosophila* (KIM *et al.* 2005; KIM *et al.* 2007)(Fig. S11).

Current models for the role of Jra in immune signalling for gram-negative infections place it

downstream of the PGRP-LC receptor. The pathway bifurcates downstream of Immune

Deficient (Imd), with the MAP kinase kinase kinase Tak1 signalling to both Jra and Rel (Fig.

S11). The pathway, which is well characterized in flies, involves the IKK complex Kenny/Ird5

and leads to phosphorylation and subsequent cleavage of Rel. The N-terminal 68 kD fragment

of Rel translocates to the nucleus where it activates the host-defense response. In the parallel

path, Tak1 signals to the Jun kinase-kinase Hep, which signals to the JNK Bsk, which in turn

activates Jra by phosphorylation (Fig. S11). Jra can function to negatively regulate genes of

the host immune response, with a specific example of the AMP *AttA*, where Jra competes

with Rel, and shuts off *AttA* transcription (KIM *et al.* 2005; KIM *et al.* 2007). Both Jra and Rel

are thus effectors of immune signalling (BOUTROS *et al.* 2002; SILVERMAN *et al.* 2003; KALLIO *et*

al. 2005; DELANEY *et al.* 2006; BOND AND FOLEY 2009; MYLLYMAKI *et al.* 2014) and there may be

considerable overlap between the gene-regulatory networks they activate.

Our interest in the functional consequences of SUMO conjugation in the immune response

led us to Jra, which is a SUMO target. Also, the role of Jra has not been studied in the context

of the gut immune response, making it an exciting candidate to explore. As a first step, we

used loss of function Jra alleles, gut-specific Jra knockdowns, and infection with *Pe* to

elucidate the role of Jra in regulating the gut immune response. Knockdown of either Jra or

Bsk leads to an increase in lifespan post-infection, suggesting that JNK signalling is active in

the gut and that pathogen infectivity is facilitated by increased JNK/Jra signalling. Additionally,
reduction of global SUMO conjugation in gut ECs was also protective, indicating that the
availability of the SUMOylation machinery during infection was helpful to the pathogen. Using
gut-specific transcriptomics, we report that the kinetics of activation of AMPs is faster in the
guts of the flies with reduced function of Jra, leading to the rapid clearance of bacteria. We
have also uncovered a Jra dependent immune gene regulatory network (Jra i-GRN), and this
complex network involves several key transcription factors known to maintain gut
homeostasis. Examples include Rel (Buchon et al. 2009; Buchon et al. 2014), Fkh (Varma et al.
2014; Bolukbasi et al. 2017), Chinmo (Grmai et al. 2018), Ets21C (Toggweiler et al. 2016;
Mundorf et al. 2019), Atf3 (Rynes et al. 2012; Zhou et al. 2017), and Aop (Alic et al. 2014; Slack
et al. 2015). Jra is required to activate or suppress the transcription of these factors to evoke
a robust immune response in the gut against an invading pathogen (Fig. 3G).

The Jra SUMO conjugation resistant flies, generated by the CRISPR/Cas9 mediated
genome editing, are sensitive to infection and succumb early. One contributory factor to this
sensitivity is the persistence of bacteria in the Jra^{SCR} flies, suggesting a weaker host-defense
response to the pathogen. In contrast, the loss of Jra function, validated using different
hypomorphic alleles, led to a longer lifespan and comparatively fewer bacteria under infective
conditions. This would indicate that the Jra-dependent GRN required to evoke a robust
immune response in the gut is altered when Jra cannot be SUMOylated. An analysis of the
differential gut transcriptional response to the pathogen in Jra^{SCR} and Jra^{WT} animals suggests
that the differences lie in the ability of the wild type allele to regulate a subset of defense
genes. We propose that the Jra^{SCR} allele is a hypermorph of Jra with increased Jra activity.
Interestingly, this increase in activity leads to a lowered and delayed transcriptional response,
which gives the pathogen a better foothold and improves its chances for growth and
subsequent colonization in the host.

One interesting finding is that the NFκB factor Rel is insufficiently activated in Jra^{SCR}
flies. In addition to this, we have identified other transcription factors of the Jra i-GRN to be
either suppressed or insufficiently activated in Jra^{SCR} flies (Fig. 7A). It is important to note that
the perturbation of secreted factors such as $upd2$ and $upd3$ could also influence inter-organ
signalling (Rajan and Perrimon 2012; Chakrabarti et al. 2016), indicating long-range, systemic
effects for Jra SUMOylation. We hypothesize that the repression of key transcription factors

would influence the transcription of several other genes and compromise the fly's ability to

fight infection (Fig. 7A). We propose that SUMOylation of Jra is a crucial step to fine-tune the

immune response and maintain homeostasis in the gut of *Drosophila*.

677
678
Figure 7: Regulation of the gut immune response by SUMOylation of Jra
A. The invading pathogen is recognised by the cell surface receptor and the Imd/JNK pathways get activated.
Under wildtype conditions where Jra can be SUMOylated (left panel), Jra is required to activate the transcription
of *Rel, Ets21C* and repress the transcription of *fkh, aop* and *Atf3.* This is required to evoke a robust immune
response and maintain gut immune homeostasis. In a scenario where Jra is resistant to SUMO conjugation, it
suppresses the transcription of *Rel* and *Ets21C* along with *fkh*, *aop* and *Atf3*. This leads to insufficient activation
of the Jra dependent immune GRN and finally leads to a dampened immune response.
B. Dynamics of SUMO conjugation/deconjugation of Jra on the chromatin indicates the fine-tuning of Jra activity
by SUMOylation.
C. SUMOylation of Jra can alter the interactome of Jra and yield context specific regulation of Jra activity.
Images generated using BioRender.

How does SUMOylation reduce the activity of Jra in the context of transcriptional

regulation? Traditionally, Bsk phosphorylates Jra on the N-terminus, leading to the activation

of Jra (SLUSS *et al.* 1996; KOCKEL *et al.* 2001), while the mode of deactivation of Jra has been

elusive to date. We propose SUMOylation of Jra as a mechanism to attenuate the function of

Jra in the context of the gut immune response. We hypothesise that SUMO conjugation/de-
conjugation is a dynamic event that happens near the promoters of Jra target genes, and the
two states are in equilibrium (Fig. 7B). Depending on the context, there is a shift in this
equilibrium, which dictates the outcome of Jra activity. During infection, the transcript levels
of Jra rise, leading to an increase in protein levels of Jra. More Jra protein would lead to more
active Jra, which could be detrimental to the organism and beneficial to the pathogen. Hence,
Jra is SUMOylated to reduce its activity and evoke a potent immune response.

One possibility is that SUMOylation of Jra causes Jra to exit the promoter leading to a
decrease in overall transcription activity. This argument can be further strengthened by data
from the mammalian ortholog, c-Jun, where a SUMO conjugation resistant variant shows
higher transcriptional activity (MULLER *et al.* 2000; BOSSIS *et al.* 2005). Consistent with this, the
c-Jun binding partner, c-Fos, also shows increased transcriptional activity upon abrogating
SUMO conjugation (BOSSIS *et al.* 2005). The SUMOylated form of c-Fos is less abundant on the
promoters of select target genes, where SUMOylation knocks c-Fos off the chromatin to
disrupt its activity (TEMPE *et al.* 2014). As Jun and Fos are binding partners and perform similar
functions, we strongly believe that the same could be happening with SUMOylation of Jra
(Fig. 7B). Also, there is evidence that SUMO conjugation negatively regulates the function of
a set of transcription factors (BHASKAR *et al.* 2002; MILES *et al.* 2008; OUYANG AND GILL 2009;
BOULANGER *et al.* 2021). Another possible mechanism could be a change in interactors,
particularly the transcriptional apparatus, that could alter the outcome of Jra activity upon
SUMOylation (Fig. 7C). However, we do not rule out the possibility of both these mechanisms
acting parallelly in a highly context-specific manner on individual genes.

The levels of SUMOylation of any protein at a given time is very low. To test out either
of the proposed hypotheses in the current context, one needs to capture the SUMOylated
species in abundant amounts in the gut epithelium. With current tools, it becomes challenging
to perform ChIP experiments or mass-spectrometry based assays to enrich the SUMOylated
species and understand the context-specific role of SUMO conjugation of Jra.

In summary, our study establishes Jra's role as a major regulator of the gut immune
transcriptome. The Jra and Rel GRN's have substantial overlap with Jra activity regulating
defense genes activated by Rel. SUMO conjugation of Jra modulates the immune response,
and our study suggests that dampening of the transcriptional regulatory networks is a major
feature.

Fly husbandry. Flies were reared on standard cornmeal agar at 25°C in a 12-hour light-dark cycle. Only 6-8 day old females were used in all the experiments in this study. All *NP1-Gal4^ts* crosses were maintained at 21°C to inactivate the Gal4. 3 days post eclosion, flies were shifted to 29°C for 3 days (to activate the Gal4) until bacterial feeding. The flies were shifted to 29°C from the beginning of the infection till the end of the experiment. Table 1 lists the lines used in our studies.

Cloning of gRNA and *Jra^SCR* for CRISPR/Cas9 mediated genome editing: The gRNA was designed using http://targetfinder.flycrispr.neuro.brown.edu/. The gRNA sequence with no off-targets and optimal for our experimental design was chosen and cloned into the pBFv-U6.2B vector. The 2.5 kb genomic locus of *jra* was amplified from a single *w^1118* fly. This was used to generate 3'HR and 5'HR fragments of *jra*. The SCR mutations were incorporated in the 3'HR region. The pHD-scarless-DsRed vector was amplified as two separate fragments using specific primers. The two fragments of *jra* along with the two fragments of the vector were ligated using Gibson assembly (NEB) and sequenced. The 3'HR region cloned into the vector was resistant to the gRNA due to the modification of a few degenerate nucleotides and the PAM sequence. For screening of *Jra^SCR* after the excision of DsRed cassette, the genomic DNA was extracted by homogenising single flies in 50ul of a buffer containing 10mM TRIS, 1mM EDTA and 20uM Proteinase K. The homogenate was incubated at 37°C for 30 min followed by 85°C for 5 min. 2.5kb of the genomic region of Jra was amplified and sequenced for each line. The *Jra^SCR* and *Jra^WT* fly lines were regularly sequenced to confirm the desired genotype. All the primers used are listed in table S3.

Table 1: Genotypes and source of *Drosophila* lines used for our experiments.

Line/Genotype	Source	Description
Jra^WT	This study	Jra locus modified using CRISPR/Cas9. No mutations incorporated into the genome
Jra^SCR L1	This study	Jra locus modified using CRISPR/Cas9. K29R+K190R mutations are incorporated into the genome. L1 = line 1. Extensively used in this study
Jra^SCR L2	This study	Jra locus modified using CRISPR/Cas9. K29R+K190R mutations are incorporated into the genome. L2 = line 2.
Jra^SCR ; Jra-Gal4	This study	*Jra^SCR* balanced with *Jra-Gal4*
Jra^SCR,NP1-Gal4^ts/CyO	This study	*Jra^SCR* recombined with *NP1-Gal4^ts*
UAS-Jra^WT	This study	pUASp-attB-*Jra^WT* inserted into attp40 site

UAS-Jra^{SCR}	This study	pUASp-attB-*Jra^{SCR}* inserted into attp40 site
Jra^{sg2}	This study	gRNA targeting exon 3 of *jra* genomic locus
Jra^{sg2}	This study	gRNA targeting exon 3 of *jra* genomic locus
Myo81F-Gal4, UAS-GFP,tub-gal80^{ts} (NP1-Gal4^{ts})	Sveta Chakrabarti	Enterocyte specific Gal4 line (*NP1-Gal4^{ts}*)
y v[1]; P{y[+t7.7] v[+t1.8]=TRiP.JF01184}attP2	BDSC:31595	*UAS-Jra^{RNAi}*
y[1] w[1118]; P{w[+mC]=Jbz}10	BDSC:7218	*UAS-Jra^{DN}*
w[1118] P{w[+mC]=UAS-bsk.DN}2	BDSC:6409	*UAS-Bsk^{DN}*
w[1118]; P{w[+mC]=UAS-Fra.Fbz}5	BDSC:7214	*UAS-Kay^{DN}*
cn[1] Jra[IA109] bw[1] speck[1]/CyO	BDSC:3273	Jra null
Adh[fn23] pr[1] cn[1] Jra[76-19]/CyO	BDSC:9880	Jra null
y[1] v[1]; P{y[+t7.7] v[+t1.8]=TRiP.HM05055}attP2 /TM3, Sb[1]	BDSC:28569	*UAS-Uba2^{RNAi}*
y[1] v[1]; P{y[+t7.7] v[+t1.8]=TRiP.HM05183}attP2 /TM3, Sb[1]	BDSC:28972	*UAS-Aos1^{RNAi}*
y[1] sc[*] v[1] sev[21]; P{y[+t7.7] v[+t1.8]=TRiP.HMS01540}attP 2	BDSC:36125	*UAS-SUMO^{RNAi}*
UAS-lwr^{DN}	Shubha Govind (Huang *et al.* 2005)	*UAS-Ubc9^{DN}*
w1118; P{GMR61B05-GAL4}attP2	BDSC:46459	*Jra-Gal4*
y[1] M{Act5C-Cas9.P.RFP-}ZH-2A w[1118] DNAlig4[169]	BDSC:58492	*Actin5c* Cas9
w[1118]	BDSC:3605	*w^{1118}*

Cloning and generation of constructs for overexpression: Jra (FBpp0087498) was amplified

from the *Drosophila* gold collection library

(https://www.fruitfly.org/EST/gold_collection.shtml) using specific primers (Table S3). These

amplicons were independently cloned into the pGEX-4T1 vector for bacterial SUMOylation

assay and pRM-HA3 vector for transfection into S2 cells using a modified Seamless Ligation

Cloning Extract (SLiCE) protocol (Zhang *et al.* 2012). The site-directed mutagenesis approach

with specific primers was used to modify all the lysine residues to arginine residues to

abrogate SUMO conjugation. pUASp-AttB vector was procured from the *Drosophila* Genomics

Resource Centre (DGRC, #1358) and was used for targeted insertions of WT/SCR constructs

into the attP2 site on the 3rd chromosome. All the clones were confirmed by sequencing and

used for downstream experiments.

Bacterial SUMOylation assay: This is a modified in-vitro SUMOylation assay that was previously described (Nɪᴇ *et al.* 2009). The quartet vector comprising of the *Drosophila* SUMO machinery components was co-transformed with GST tagged Jra. The bacterial culture was induced with 1mM of Isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) for 6 hours at 25°C. 10ml of the bacterial culture was harvested in 1ml 50mM *tris* aminomethane (TRIS) buffer containing 150mM NaCl, 1mM Dithiothreitol (DTT), 1ug/ml lysozyme, and 1mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF). The cells were lysed using a VibraCell^{TM} probe sonicator with 2/3sec ON/OFF cycle for 2 min at 60% amplitude.

S2 cell culture and transfections: S2 cells that were stably transfected with Flag-SUMO (referred to as 529SU cells) were a kind gift from Prof. Albert Courey. The cells were grown and maintained in Gibco® Schneider's *Drosophila* Medium (Thermo Fischer Scientific, #21720024) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Thermo Fischer Scientific, #10082147) at 23°C. 1ug of plasmid was transfected per 1ml of cells using TransIT®-Insect Transfection Reagent (Mirus, #6100) as per the manufacturer's protocol. The cells were induced with 0.5M CuSO4 and harvested after 48h of induction.

Pulldown, Immunoprecipitation and Western blotting**:** Glutathione affinity PD for the bacterial SUMOylation assay was performed using Pierce^{TM} Glutathione Agarose beads (Thermo Fischer Scientific, #16101). Post lysis, the bacterial lysate was incubated with the equilibrated beads for 12-14h at 4°C. The beads were then washed 3 times with the lysis buffer with 0.1% Triton-X100, and bound protein was eluted using 1X laemmli buffer. Ni-NTA superflow resin (Qiagen, #30430) was used to pull down His-Jra from 529SU cells as per the manufacturer's protocol. To maintain stringent denaturing conditions, 8M Urea was used throughout the experiment in all the buffers. 20mM N-ethylmaleimide was also used to inactivate the SENPs. Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Fischer Scientific, #23225) was used to estimate the protein concentration before performing the Western blotting. 1-2mg of total protein for PD and IP experiments and 50ug of total protein for inputs. The following antibodies were used as primary antibodies for the WB. Anti-His (SCBT, #sc-8036; used in 1:2000), anti-GST (SCBT, #459; used in 1:5000) and anti-Flag (Sigma-Aldrich, #F7425;used in 1:2000). Peroxidase conjugated anti-mouse (Jackson Immunoresearch, #115-035-003; used in 1:10000) and peroxidase-conjugated anti-rabbit (Jackson Immunoresearch, #111-035-003; used in 1:10000) were used as secondary antibodies. All the blots were developed using Immobilon Western Chemiluminescent HRP Substrate (Sigma-Aldrich, #WBKLS). Anti-GST WB

and anti-6XHis WB in Fig1 were run on duplicate gels with the same samples. Anti-Flag WB and anti-6XHis WB in Fig 1F were run on duplicate gels with the same samples.

<u>Bacterial culture, gut infection, fly survival assays and bacterial clearance assays</u>:

Pseudomonas entomophila (Pe) was used in this study to evoke a robust immune response in the fly gut. The pathogen was always selected for rifampicin (100ug/ml) resistance and hydrolysis of casein on a milk agar plate before the infection experiments. The bacterial pellet obtained from an overnight grown culture was resuspended in a 5% sucrose solution, so the final OD_{600} was ~200. For all the infection experiments, flies were first starved for 2 hours without food and water. Post starvation, the flies were transferred to a fly vial (at 20-30 flies/vial) containing Whatman filter disk that was dipped in the concentrated bacterial solution and were allowed to feed for a certain amount of time specific to the experiment. The flies were transferred to a vial containing standard food post-feeding, and the dead flies were counted every 24 hours. Bacterial feeding was carried out for 24 hours for all the survival experiments except when Jra^{SCR} flies were used, where feeding time was 6 hours. For assessing the bacterial load, flies were fed on *Pe* for 2 hours and transferred to vials containing standard food. Before plating, the flies were rinsed in 70% ethanol and left to dry. Whole flies were crushed in sterile PBS, and the lysate was plated on a bacterial agar plate containing rifampicin. The bacterial plates were imaged, and colonies were counted in Fiji (ImageJ) post an intensity cutoff for each plate.

<u>Gut dissections, immunostaining and microscopy</u>: The guts were precleared by growing the flies on 5% sugar agar overnight for all the immunofluorescence experiments. The next day, flies were fed with *Pe* for 8 hours after 2 hours of starvation. Post feeding, the guts were dissected in ice-cold 1X PBS and fixed in a solution containing 1X PBS, 0.1% TritonX100 and 4% paraformaldehyde for 20 minutes. The guts were then incubated at room temperature for an hour in a blocking solution that contained 1X PBS, 0.5% bovine serum albumin, 0.3% TritonX100 and 3% normal goat serum. This was followed by incubation with 1:200 anti-phosphoHistone3 (pH3) antibody (Cell Signalling Technology, #9701L) diluted in blocking solution at 4°C overnight. Anti-rabbit alexa568 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, #A-11011) was used as a secondary antibody in 1:1000 dilution. DAPI was used to mark the nuclei, and the samples were mounted in Slowfade gold antifade mountant (Thermo Fisher Scientific, #36940). The mounted samples were imaged using a 20X oil immersion objective on a Leica SP8 confocal

microscope. pH3 positive cells per gut were counted using ImageJ after specifying a threshold

and size cutoff (4-20μm^2).

qRT-PCR: 1ug of extracted RNA was used to generate cDNA using a high-capacity cDNA

reverse transcriptase kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, #4374966) using the manufacturer's

protocol. The cDNA was diluted in a 1:5 ratio for all the experiments. qRT-PCR was performed

using gene-specific primers (Table S3) with Kapa SyBr Fast (Sigma-Aldrich, #KK4618) in an

Applied Biosystem ViiA 7 real-time PCR system.

RNA isolation, 3'mRNA library preparation and sequencing: Total RNA was extracted from 50-

60 midguts/experiment using RNeasy Plus Universal Kits (Qiagen, #73404) according to the

manufacturer's protocol. 3' mRNA specific libraries from three independent biological

replicates were amplified using QuantSeq 3' mRNA-Seq Library Prep Kit FWD (Lexogen,

#015.96) using the manufacturer's instructions. The concentrations of the libraries were

estimated using Qubit™ dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, #Q32851). Quality

assessment and library size estimation of the individual libraries was done using an HS DNA

kit (Agilent, #5067-4626) in a Bioanalyzer 2100. The libraries were pooled in equimolar ratio,

and single-end 75bp reads were sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform.

Read mapping, counts generation and differential expression analysis: On average, 4-5 million

reads were uniquely mapped per sample. Sequencing quality was assessed using FastQC

v0.11.5. Post QC, the reads were mapped to the *Drosophila* genome (dm6) using STAR aligner

v.2.5.2a (Dobin *et al.* 2013). Gene expression levels were measured using the counts

generated by HTSeq-count v 0.6.0 (Anders *et al.* 2015). To obtain differential expression of

the genes, the biological conditions were compared pairwise using DESeq2 (Love *et al.* 2014).

The above steps were carried out on the bluebee platform

(https://lexogen.bluebee.com/quantseq).

ChIP-seq data analysis: Jra specific ChIP-seq dataset (ENCSR471GSA) against an input dataset

(ENCSR908EFA) was obtained from the model organism Encyclopedia of Regulatory Networks

(modERN) consortium (https://epic.gs.washington.edu/modERN/) (Kudron *et al.* 2018). Input

normalised Bigwig files were used, and the occupancy of Jra was plotted on the gene body

(+/- 2kb of the mRNA) of all the significantly differentially expressed genes from the 2 RNA

sequencing datasets using deeptools 3.5.0 (Ramirez *et al.* 2016).

Bioinformatic analysis: The FDR cutoff < 0.1 was considered for the entire analysis.

Normalised counts were generated using the CPM function of edgeR (Robinson *et al.* 2010).

The PCA was performed using a custom R script. GO enrichment analysis of the significantly
differentially expressed gene set was performed using gProfiler
(https://biit.cs.ut.ee/gprofiler/gost) (REIMAND *et al.* 2011) and panther database
(http://pantherdb.org/). GO:0003700 'DNA-binding transcription factor activity' term was
used to fetch the transcription factors used in the analysis.

<u>Statistics</u>: All experiments were performed in three biological replicates unless otherwise
specified. Adequate sample size was chosen for each experiment and appropriate statistical
test was performed using GraphPad Prism 8.0.

<u>Data Deposition</u>: The RNA sequencing data will be deposited in the Gene-Expression Omnibus
database on acceptance of the Manuscript.

FUNDING
Genome Engineering Technology (GET) grant Department of Biotechnology – Genome
Engineering technology grant (BT/PR26095/GET/119/199/2017), Department of
Biotechnology (DBT), Govt. of India; Scheme for Transformational and Advanced Research
(STARS), Ministry of Education grant 730/2019. The IISER *Drosophila* media and Stock centre
is supported by National Facility for Gene Function in Health and Disease (NFGFHD) at IISER
Pune, which in turn is supported by an infrastructure grant from the DBT, Govt. of India
(BT/INF/22/SP17358/2016). AS was supported by IISER Pune graduate student fellowship and
Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) – direct SRF fellowship.

CONTRIBUTIONS
AS and GR conceptualized the project and designed the experiments. AS performed all the
experiments. AS and GR analysed the data and wrote the manuscript. GR supervised the
project and acquired funding.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
We thank: Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center (BDSC), Indiana, supported by NIH grant
P40OD018537, for fly stocks; Fly facility at the National Centre for Biological Sciences (NCBS),
Bangalore for embryonic injections. Dr. Deepti Trivedi for her input on design of the CRISPR
Scarless experiments; Dr. Sveta Chakrabarti for providing protocols and reagents related to
the infection experiments. Prof. Sanjeev Galande, Dr. Krishnapal Karmodia and Dr. Saurab
Pradhan for their inputs on the NGS experiments, reagents and machine time for
experiments. Snehal Patil and Yashwant Pawar for fly media and stock maintenance.

REFERENCES

Adorisio, S., A. Fierabracci, I. Muscari, A. M. Liberati, E. Ayroldi *et al.*, 2017 SUMO proteins: Guardians of immune system. J Autoimmun 84**:** 21-28.

Alic, N., M. E. Giannakou, I. Papatheodorou, M. P. Hoddinott, T. D. Andrews *et al.*, 2014 Interplay of dFOXO and two ETS-family transcription factors determines lifespan in Drosophila melanogaster. PLoS Genet 10**:** e1004619.

Anders, S., P. T. Pyl and W. Huber, 2015 HTSeq--a Python framework to work with high-throughput sequencing data. Bioinformatics 31**:** 166-169.

Arthur, J. S., and S. C. Ley, 2013 Mitogen-activated protein kinases in innate immunity. Nat Rev Immunol 13**:** 679-692.

Baker, N. E., 2020 Emerging mechanisms of cell competition. Nat Rev Genet 21**:** 683-697.

Bassett, A. R., C. Tibbit, C. P. Ponting and J. L. Liu, 2013 Highly efficient targeted mutagenesis of Drosophila with the CRISPR/Cas9 system. Cell Rep 4**:** 220-228.

Beauclair, G., A. Bridier-Nahmias, J. F. Zagury, A. Saib and A. Zamborlini, 2015 JASSA: a comprehensive tool for prediction of SUMOylation sites and SIMs. Bioinformatics 31**:** 3483-3491.

Bhaskar, V., M. Smith and A. J. Courey, 2002 Conjugation of Smt3 to dorsal may potentiate the Drosophila immune response. Mol Cell Biol 22**:** 492-504.

Biteau, B., C. E. Hochmuth and H. Jasper, 2008 JNK activity in somatic stem cells causes loss of tissue homeostasis in the aging Drosophila gut. Cell Stem Cell 3**:** 442-455.

Biteau, B., J. Karpac, D. Hwangbo and H. Jasper, 2011 Regulation of Drosophila lifespan by JNK signaling. Exp Gerontol 46**:** 349-354.

Bohmann, D., M. C. Ellis, L. M. Staszewski and M. Mlodzik, 1994 Drosophila Jun Mediates Ras-Dependent Photoreceptor Determination. Cell 78**:** 973-986.

Bolukbasi, E., M. Khericha, J. C. Regan, D. K. Ivanov, J. Adcott *et al.*, 2017 Intestinal Fork Head Regulates Nutrient Absorption and Promotes Longevity. Cell Rep 21**:** 641-653.

Bond, D., and E. Foley, 2009 A quantitative RNAi screen for JNK modifiers identifies Pvr as a novel regulator of Drosophila immune signaling. PLoS Pathog 5**:** e1000655.

Bossis, G., C. E. Malnou, R. Farras, E. Andermarcher, R. Hipskind *et al.*, 2005 Down-regulation of c-Fos/c-Jun AP-1 dimer activity by sumoylation. Mol Cell Biol 25**:** 6964-6979.

Boulanger, M., M. Chakraborty, D. Tempe, M. Piechaczyk and G. Bossis, 2021 SUMO and Transcriptional Regulation: The Lessons of Large-Scale Proteomic, Modifomic and Genomic Studies. Molecules 26.

Boutros, M., H. Agaisse and N. Perrimon, 2002 Sequential activation of signaling pathways during innate immune responses in Drosophila. Developmental Cell 3**:** 711-722.

Buchon, N., N. A. Broderick and B. Lemaitre, 2013 Gut homeostasis in a microbial world: insights from Drosophila melanogaster. Nat Rev Microbiol 11**:** 615-626.

Buchon, N., N. A. Broderick, M. Poidevin, S. Pradervand and B. Lemaitre, 2009 Drosophila intestinal response to bacterial infection: activation of host defense and stem cell proliferation. Cell Host Microbe 5**:** 200-211.

Buchon, N., N. Silverman and S. Cherry, 2014 Immunity in Drosophila melanogaster--from microbial recognition to whole-organism physiology. Nat Rev Immunol 14**:** 796-810.

Cappadocia, L., and C. D. Lima, 2018 Ubiquitin-like Protein Conjugation: Structures, Chemistry, and Mechanism. Chem Rev 118**:** 889-918.

Celen, A. B., and U. Sahin, 2020 Sumoylation on its 25th anniversary: mechanisms, pathology, and emerging concepts. FEBS J 287**:** 3110-3140.

Chakrabarti, S., J. P. Dudzic, X. Li, E. J. Collas, J. P. Boquete *et al.*, 2016 Remote Control of
Intestinal Stem Cell Activity by Haemocytes in Drosophila. PLoS Genet 12**:** e1006089.
Chakrabarti, S., P. Liehl, N. Buchon and B. Lemaitre, 2012 Infection-induced host
translational blockage inhibits immune responses and epithelial renewal in the
Drosophila gut. Cell Host Microbe 12**:** 60-70.
Ciapponi, L., and D. Bohmann, 2002 An essential function of AP-1 heterodimers in
Drosophila development. Mech Dev 115**:** 35-40.
Delaney, J. R., S. Stoven, H. Uvell, K. V. Anderson, Y. Engstrom *et al.*, 2006 Cooperative
control of Drosophila immune responses by the JNK and NF-kappaB signaling
pathways. EMBO J 25**:** 3068-3077.
Dhanasekaran, D. N., and E. P. Reddy, 2008 JNK signaling in apoptosis. Oncogene 27**:** 6245-
6251.
Dobin, A., C. A. Davis, F. Schlesinger, J. Drenkow, C. Zaleski *et al.*, 2013 STAR: ultrafast
universal RNA-seq aligner. Bioinformatics 29**:** 15-21.
Dutta, D., A. J. Dobson, P. L. Houtz, C. Glasser, J. Revah *et al.*, 2015 Regional Cell-Specific
Transcriptome Mapping Reveals Regulatory Complexity in the Adult Drosophila
Midgut. Cell Rep 12**:** 346-358.
Eferl, R., and E. F. Wagner, 2003 AP-1: a double-edged sword in tumorigenesis. Nat Rev
Cancer 3**:** 859-868.
Eifler, K., and A. C. Vertegaal, 2015 Mapping the SUMOylated landscape. FEBS J 282**:** 3669-
3680.
Flotho, A., and F. Melchior, 2013 Sumoylation: a regulatory protein modification in health
and disease. Annu Rev Biochem 82**:** 357-385.
Galenza, A., and E. Foley, 2019 Immunometabolism: Insights from the Drosophila model.
Dev Comp Immunol 94**:** 22-34.
Grant, P. J., A. J. Courey, S. Hanigan, M. S. Kolbe, S. L. Kronick *et al.*, 2019 in *Special Topics in*
Venous Thromboembolism, Ann Arbor (MI).
Gratz, S. J., A. M. Cummings, J. N. Nguyen, D. C. Hamm, L. K. Donohue *et al.*, 2013 Genome
engineering of Drosophila with the CRISPR RNA-guided Cas9 nuclease. Genetics 194**:**
1029-1035.
Gratz, S. J., F. P. Ukken, C. D. Rubinstein, G. Thiede, L. K. Donohue *et al.*, 2014 Highly specific
and efficient CRISPR/Cas9-catalyzed homology-directed repair in Drosophila.
Genetics 196**:** 961-971.
Grmai, L., B. Hudry, I. Miguel-Aliaga and E. A. Bach, 2018 Chinmo prevents transformer
alternative splicing to maintain male sex identity. PLoS Genet 14**:** e1007203.
Handu, M., B. Kaduskar, R. Ravindranathan, A. Soory, R. Giri *et al.*, 2015 SUMO-Enriched
Proteome for Drosophila Innate Immune Response. G3 (Bethesda) 5**:** 2137-2154.
Hannoun, Z., G. Maarifi and M. K. Chelbi-Alix, 2016 The implication of SUMO in intrinsic and
innate immunity. Cytokine Growth Factor Rev 29**:** 3-16.
Hay, R. T., 2005 SUMO: a history of modification. Mol Cell 18**:** 1-12.
Hegde, S., A. Soory, B. Kaduskar and G. S. Ratnaparkhi, 2020 SUMO conjugation regulates
immune signalling. Fly (Austin) 14**:** 62-79.
Hickey, C. M., N. R. Wilson and M. Hochstrasser, 2012 Function and regulation of SUMO
proteases. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 13**:** 755-766.
Huang, L., S. Ohsako and S. Tanda, 2005 The lesswright mutation activates Rel-related
proteins, leading to overproduction of larval hemocytes in Drosophila melanogaster.
Dev Biol 280**:** 407-420.

Ip, Y. T., and R. J. Davis, 1998 Signal transduction by the c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK)--from
inflammation to development. Curr Opin Cell Biol 10**:** 205-219.
Jiang, H., P. H. Patel, A. Kohlmaier, M. O. Grenley, D. G. McEwen *et al.*, 2009
Cytokine/Jak/Stat signaling mediates regeneration and homeostasis in the
Drosophila midgut. Cell 137**:** 1343-1355.
Kallio, J., A. Leinonen, J. Ulvila, S. Valanne, R. A. Ezekowitz *et al.*, 2005 Functional analysis of
immune response genes in Drosophila identifies JNK pathway as a regulator of anti-
microbial peptide gene expression in S2 cells. Microbes Infect 7**:** 811-819.
Kim, L. K., U. Y. Choi, H. S. Cho, J. S. Lee, W.-b. Lee *et al.*, 2007 Down-regulation of NF-κB
target genes by the AP-1 and STAT complex during the innate immune response in
Drosophila. PLoS Biol 5**:** e238.
Kim, T., J. Yoon, H. Cho, W. B. Lee, J. Kim *et al.*, 2005 Downregulation of lipopolysaccharide
response in Drosophila by negative crosstalk between the AP1 and NF-kappaB
signaling modules. Nat Immunol 6**:** 211-218.
Kleino, A., H. Myllymaki, J. Kallio, L. M. Vanha-aho, K. Oksanen *et al.*, 2008 Pirk is a negative
regulator of the Drosophila Imd pathway. J Immunol 180**:** 5413-5422.
Kockel, L., J. G. Homsy and D. Bohmann, 2001 Drosophila AP-1: lessons from an
invertebrate. Oncogene 20**:** 2347-2364.
Kudron, M. M., A. Victorsen, L. Gevirtzman, L. W. Hillier, W. W. Fisher *et al.*, 2018 The
ModERN Resource: Genome-Wide Binding Profiles for Hundreds of Drosophila and
Caenorhabditis elegans Transcription Factors. Genetics 208**:** 937-949.
La Marca, J. E., and H. E. Richardson, 2020 Two-Faced: Roles of JNK Signalling During
Tumourigenesis in the Drosophila Model. Front Cell Dev Biol 8**:** 42.
Liehl, P., M. Blight, N. Vodovar, F. Boccard and B. Lemaitre, 2006 Prevalence of local immune
response against oral infection in a Drosophila/Pseudomonas infection model. PLoS
Pathog 2**:** e56.
Love, M. I., W. Huber and S. Anders, 2014 Moderated estimation of fold change and
dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biol 15**:** 550.
Melchior, F., 2000 SUMO--nonclassical ubiquitin. Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol 16**:** 591-626.
Miguel-Aliaga, I., H. Jasper and B. Lemaitre, 2018 Anatomy and Physiology of the Digestive
Tract of Drosophila melanogaster. Genetics 210**:** 357-396.
Miles, W. O., E. Jaffray, S. G. Campbell, S. Takeda, L. J. Bayston *et al.*, 2008 Medea
SUMOylation restricts the signaling range of the Dpp morphogen in the Drosophila
embryo. Genes Dev 22**:** 2578-2590.
Mitchell, A. L., T. K. Attwood, P. C. Babbitt, M. Blum, P. Bork *et al.*, 2019 InterPro in 2019:
improving coverage, classification and access to protein sequence annotations.
Nucleic Acids Res 47**:** D351-D360.
Muller, S., M. Berger, F. Lehembre, J. S. Seeler, Y. Haupt *et al.*, 2000 c-Jun and p53 activity is
modulated by SUMO-1 modification. J Biol Chem 275**:** 13321-13329.
Muller, S., C. Hoege, G. Pyrowolakis and S. Jentsch, 2001 SUMO, ubiquitin's mysterious
cousin. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 2**:** 202-210.
Mundorf, J., C. D. Donohoe, C. D. McClure, T. D. Southall and M. Uhlirova, 2019 Ets21c
Governs Tissue Renewal, Stress Tolerance, and Aging in the Drosophila Intestine. Cell
Rep 27**:** 3019-3033 e3015.
Myllymaki, H., S. Valanne and M. Ramet, 2014 The Drosophila imd signaling pathway. J
Immunol 192**:** 3455-3462.

Nie, M., Y. Xie, J. A. Loo and A. J. Courey, 2009 Genetic and proteomic evidence for roles of
Drosophila SUMO in cell cycle control, Ras signaling, and early pattern formation.
PLoS One 4**:** e5905.
Noselli, S., 1998 JNK signaling and morphogenesis in Drosophila. Trends in Genetics 14**:** 33-
38.
Noselli, S., and F. Agnès, 1999 Roles of the JNK signaling pathway in Drosophila
morphogenesis. Current Opinion in Genetics & Development 9**:** 466-472.
Ouyang, J., and G. Gill, 2009 SUMO engages multiple corepressors to regulate chromatin
structure and transcription. Epigenetics 4**:** 440-444.
Perez-Garijo, A., F. A. Martin, G. Struhl and G. Morata, 2005 Dpp signaling and the induction
of neoplastic tumors by caspase-inhibited apoptotic cells in Drosophila. Proc Natl
Acad Sci U S A 102**:** 17664-17669.
Perkins, K. K., G. M. Dailey and R. Tjian, 1988 Novel Jun-Related and Fos-Related Proteins in
Drosophila Are Functionally Homologous to Enhancer Factor Ap-1. Embo Journal 7**:**
4265-4273.
Rajan, A., and N. Perrimon, 2012 Drosophila cytokine unpaired 2 regulates physiological
homeostasis by remotely controlling insulin secretion. Cell 151**:** 123-137.
Ramirez, F., D. P. Ryan, B. Gruning, V. Bhardwaj, F. Kilpert *et al.*, 2016 deepTools2: a next
generation web server for deep-sequencing data analysis. Nucleic Acids Res 44**:**
W160-165.
Razzell, W., W. Wood and P. Martin, 2011 Swatting flies: modelling wound healing and
inflammation in Drosophila. Dis Model Mech 4**:** 569-574.
Reimand, J., T. Arak and J. Vilo, 2011 g:Profiler--a web server for functional interpretation of
gene lists (2011 update). Nucleic Acids Res 39**:** W307-315.
Riesgo-Escovar, J. R., and E. Hafen, 1997 Common and distinct roles of DFos and DJun during
Drosophila development. Science 278**:** 669-672.
Riesgo-Escovar, J. R., M. Jenni, A. Fritz and E. Hafen, 1996 The Drosophila Jun-N-terminal
kinase is required for cell morphogenesis but not for DJun-dependent cell fate
specification in the eye. Genes Dev 10**:** 2759-2768.
RiesgoEscovar, J. R., and E. Hafen, 1997 Drosophila Jun kinase regulates expression of
decapentaplegic via the ETS-domain protein Aop and AP-1 transcription factor DJun
during dorsal closure. Genes & Development 11**:** 1717-1727.
Rios-Barrera, L. D., and J. R. Riesgo-Escovar, 2013 Regulating cell morphogenesis: the
Drosophila Jun N-terminal kinase pathway. Genesis 51**:** 147-162.
Robinson, M. D., D. J. McCarthy and G. K. Smyth, 2010 edgeR: a Bioconductor package for
differential expression analysis of digital gene expression data. Bioinformatics 26**:**
139-140.
Rynes, J., C. D. Donohoe, P. Frommolt, S. Brodesser, M. Jindra *et al.*, 2012 Activating
transcription factor 3 regulates immune and metabolic homeostasis. Mol Cell Biol
32**:** 3949-3962.
Silverman, N., R. Zhou, R. L. Erlich, M. Hunter, E. Bernstein *et al.*, 2003 Immune activation of
NF-kappaB and JNK requires Drosophila TAK1. J Biol Chem 278**:** 48928-48934.
Slack, C., N. Alic, A. Foley, M. Cabecinha, M. P. Hoddinott *et al.*, 2015 The Ras-Erk-ETS-
Signaling Pathway Is a Drug Target for Longevity. Cell 162**:** 72-83.
Sluss, H. K., Z. Han, T. Barrett, D. C. Goberdhan, C. Wilson *et al.*, 1996 A JNK signal
transduction pathway that mediates morphogenesis and an immune response in
Drosophila. Genes Dev 10**:** 2745-2758.

Tempe, D., E. Vives, F. Brockly, H. Brooks, S. De Rossi *et al.*, 2014 SUMOylation of the
inducible (c-Fos:c-Jun)/AP-1 transcription complex occurs on target promoters to
limit transcriptional activation. Oncogene 33**:** 921-927.
Toggweiler, J., M. Willecke and K. Basler, 2016 The transcription factor Ets21C drives tumor
growth by cooperating with AP-1. Sci Rep 6**:** 34725.
Urena, E., L. Pirone, S. Chafino, C. Perez, J. D. Sutherland *et al.*, 2016 Evolution of SUMO
Function and Chain Formation in Insects. Mol Biol Evol 33**:** 568-584.
van der Veen, A. G., and H. L. Ploegh, 2012 Ubiquitin-like proteins. Annu Rev Biochem 81**:**
323-357.
Varma, D., M. H. Bulow, Y. Y. Pesch, G. Loch and M. Hoch, 2014 Forkhead, a new cross
regulator of metabolism and innate immunity downstream of TOR in Drosophila. J
Insect Physiol 69**:** 80-88.
Vierstra, R. D., 2012 The expanding universe of ubiquitin and ubiquitin-like modifiers. Plant
Physiol 160**:** 2-14.
Vodovar, N., M. Vinals, P. Liehl, A. Basset, J. Degrouard *et al.*, 2005 Drosophila host defense
after oral infection by an entomopathogenic Pseudomonas species. Proc Natl Acad
Sci U S A 102**:** 11414-11419.
Wagner, E. F., and A. R. Nebreda, 2009 Signal integration by JNK and p38 MAPK pathways in
cancer development. Nat Rev Cancer 9**:** 537-549.
Xia, Y., and M. Karin, 2004 The control of cell motility and epithelial morphogenesis by Jun
kinases. Trends Cell Biol 14**:** 94-101.
Zhai, Z., J. P. Boquete and B. Lemaitre, 2018 Cell-Specific Imd-NF-kappaB Responses Enable
Simultaneous Antibacterial Immunity and Intestinal Epithelial Cell Shedding upon
Bacterial Infection. Immunity 48**:** 897-910 e897.
Zhang, Y., U. Werling and W. Edelmann, 2012 SLiCE: a novel bacterial cell extract-based DNA
cloning method. Nucleic Acids Res 40**:** e55.
Zhou, J., B. A. Edgar and M. Boutros, 2017 ATF3 acts as a rheostat to control JNK signalling
during intestinal regeneration. Nat Commun 8**:** 14289.
1104
1105