Dual contributions of Xrp1 to genome integrity through the DNA damage response and cell competition

Chaitali Khan[1,3], Nasser M Rusan[2] and Nicholas E Baker[1,4,5]

1. Department of Genetics, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, 1300 Morris Park Avenue, Bronx, NY 10461, USA.
2. Cell and Developmental Biology Center, National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA.
3. Present address: Cell and Developmental Biology Center, National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA.
4. Present address: Department of Microbiology and Molecular Genetics, and Department of Developmental and Cell Biology, University of California, Irvine, CA 92697, USA.
5. Author for correspondence: nebaker@uci.edu

ABSTRACT

Model organisms may help understand how p53 suppresses tumorigenesis in mammals.

In *Drosophila*, the primary transcriptional target of p53 is the gene encoding the bZip AT-

hook protein Xrp1, which is another transcription factor. We report that Xrp1 mediated

multiple functions of p53 in the DNA damage response (DDR), contributing to p53-

dependent gene transcription and DNA damage-induced apoptosis. In addition to this role

as a p53 effector, a p53-independent role for Xrp1 in cell competition has been described.

Cell competition can remove cells whose genome has been altered by DNA damage and

repair. During cell competition, Xrp1 is induced by RpS12, which acts as a sensor of

defective ribosome biogenesis. RpS12-dependent cell competition began as the DDR

wound down, and was even more prominent if p53 function was reduced. Such p53

inhibition resulted in persistence of DNA damage revealed by γH2Av accumulation. Thus,

Xrp1 limited the accumulation of abnormal cells resulting from genotoxicity through both

the acute, p53-dependent DDR, and also from subsequent cell competition that removes

cells where DNA repair did not restore the normal genome. Both these processes might

contribute to the tumor suppressor function of p53 in mammals.

INTRODUCTION

Maintaining genome integrity is essential not only to preserve genetic information in the germline but also for somatic cells. Defects in DNA repair are associated with elevated cancer incidences, and defects in mitotic fidelity occur in aging (Tiwari & Wilson, 2019; Vijg, 2021; Hopkins et al., 2022; Nemeth & Szuts, 2024). Most cancer cells are aneuploid, and both mouse models and human genetic diseases that predispose to aneuploidy are cancer prone (Hanks et al., 2004; Baker et al., 2009; Baker & van Deursen, 2010). The most important human tumor suppressor, p53, is well known as a master regulator of the DNA damage response (DDR) that also maintains the integrity of somatic tissues by the apoptotic elimination of cells with damaged DNA (Levine et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2011). P53 also has other functions, and it has been questioned whether the DNA damage response is, in fact, responsible for its tumor suppressor function (Kaiser & Attardi, 2018; Boutelle & Attardi, 2021). In addition to apoptosis as a cell-autonomous response to DNA damage, a process of cell competition has also been described in which damaged cells can be removed only when they are less fit than their neighbors (Baker, 2020; Baker & Montagna, 2022; Kiparaki & Baker, 2023; Khandekar & Ellis, 2024; Nagata & Igaki, 2024). Cell competition is able to remove cells with damage that would be tolerated by cell-autonomous mechanisms. In *Drosophila*, cell competition occurs independently of p53 (Kale et al., 2015), but in mammals, p53 activities too low to cause apoptosis by cell-autonomous mechanisms can trigger competitive cell removal when compared with less affected surrounding cells (Bondar & Medzhitov, 2010a; Wagstaff et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2017; Fernandez-Antoran et al., 2019).

In *Drosophila*, the *Xrp1* gene is a common link between the DNA damage response and cell competition. Xrp1 was first described as a transcriptional target of p53, encodes a *Drosophila* bZip domain protein, and is transcriptionally induced by p53 when *Drosophila* embryos are irradiated (Brodsky et al., 2004; Akdemir et al., 2007). Flies lacking wild-type Xrp1 exhibit increased sensitivity to irradiation. Specifically, they show increased loss of heterozygosity in an assay that quantifies patches of cells expressing the recessive *mwh* phenotype in otherwise *mwh*$^{+/-}$ individuals, indicative of somatic loss of the *mwh*$^+$ allele (Akdemir et al., 2007). This loss of heterozygosity following irradiation is consistent with a role for Xrp1 in the DDR, regulated by p53.

Xrp1 was later identified as a central regulator of the cell competition of 'Minute'

(Ribosome protein gene heterozygous mutant) cells in imaginal discs (Lee et al., 2016;

Baillon et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2018b; Brown et al., 2021). Cell competition was first

described as a phenomenon affecting cells heterozygous for mutations in genes encoding

Ribosomal proteins (Rp) (Morata & Ripoll, 1975). Most Rp genes are essential, so *Rp*

mutations are generally homozygously lethal, whereas $Rp^{+/-}$ heterozygotes survive with a

developmental delay, thin bristles, and some other traits (Bridges & Morgan, 1923;

Marygold et al., 2007). In contrast to whole $Rp^{+/-}$ animals, individual $Rp^{+/-}$ cells or clones

are eliminated from many tissues when wild-type cells are also present, suffering an

enhanced rate of apoptosis (Morata & Ripoll, 1975; Simpson, 1979; Moreno et al., 2002;

Li & Baker, 2007). The Xrp1 protein is expressed at only low levels in wild-type imaginal

discs, but Xrp1 protein is robustly induced in $Rp^{+/-}$ cells, where it is required for

transcriptional changes in $Rp^{+/-}$ wing discs and for many aspects of the $Rp^{+/-}$ phenotype,

including both developmental delay and cell competition (Baillon et al., 2018; Lee et al.,

2018b; Boulan et al., 2019). Xrp1 binds to DNA as a heterodimer with another protein,

Irbp18. Unlike Xrp1, Irbp18 is abundantly expressed in wild-type imaginal disc cells

(Reinke et al., 2013; Francis et al., 2016; Blanco et al., 2020). The Xrp1/Irbp18

heterodimer activates transcription by binding to a sequence motif identified from both in

vitro studies and ChIP-Seq *in vivo* (Zhu et al., 2011; Baillon et al., 2018; Kiparaki et al.,

2022). Like Xrp1, Irbp18 is also required for cell competition, suggesting that

transcriptional targets of the Xrp1/Irbp18 heterodimer are involved (Blanco et al., 2020).

Unlike Xrp1 expression following irradiation, Xrp1 induction in $Rp^{+/-}$ cells does not

require p53, and p53 is also not needed for the competitive elimination of $Rp^{+/-}$ cells from

mosaics (Kale et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2018b). In $Rp^{+/-}$ cells, Xrp1 expression is induced

by a particular Rp, RpS12, which is necessary for cell competition (Kale et al., 2018; Lee

et al., 2018b; Ji et al., 2019). Mutations in other *Rp* genes, and other ribosome biogenesis

defects such as diminished rRNA synthesis, behave as though they increase RpS12

function (Baker & Kale, 2016; Ji et al., 2019; Kiparaki et al., 2022). RpS12 activates Xrp1

expression through alternative splicing of the Xrp1 mRNA (Kakemura et al., 2025; Potiri

et al., 2025). Other cellular stresses can also activate Xrp1 expression, at least some

independently of both p53 and RpS12 (Baumgartner et al., 2021; Brown et al., 2021; Ochi

et al., 2021; Recasens-Alvarez et al., 2021; Kiparaki et al., 2022; Kumar & Baker, 2022;

Kiparaki & Baker, 2023; Shekhar et al., 2025).

In *Drosophila*, cell competition is part of the response to aneuploidy(Titen & Golic,

2008; McNamee & Brodsky, 2009; Ji et al., 2021a; Baker & Montagna, 2022). Because

the genes encoding 80 Rp are distributed around the chromosomes, loss of chromosome

segments constituting more than 1.2% of the genome (on average) typically leads to

haploinsufficiency for one *Rp* gene or another by removing one copy of that locus. This

leads to the elimination of cells bearing many segmental monosomies by the same cell

competition pathway that affects $Rp^{+/-}$ point mutant cells (Ji et al., 2021b). Accordingly,

Drosophila lacking cell competition can accumulate cells with certain kinds of genetic

damage, not because they experience any defect in DNA repair, but because some

abnormal genotypes that would ordinarily be eliminated by cell competition survive when

cell competition is inhibited. Adult flies with a mutation in RpS12 that prevents cell

competition exhibit an increased frequency of sporadic cells exhibiting the typical $Rp^{+/-}$

mutant thin bristle phenotype, whether occurring spontaneously or after irradiation. Many

of these cells likely harbor chromosome deletions that affect multiple genes in addition to

one of the *Rp* loci (Ji et al., 2021b).

Because Xrp1 has been implicated in two processes that impact genome integrity,

we sought here to define the respective roles more precisely. Loss of heterozygosity after

irradiation of Xrp1 mutants could either arise through defects in p53-dependent DNA

repair or apoptosis, or due to failure to outcompete cells bearing irradiation-induced

segmental aneuploidies. We now report that Xrp1 is indeed important for the DDR as well

as for cell competition, mediating the expression of most of the p53-target genes and

contributing to p53-induced apoptosis and the repair or removal of DNA damage. If cells

with unrepaired DNA and damaged genomes accumulate after DNA repair, many of these

are subsequently removed by p53-independent, Xrp1-dependent cell competition. Thus,

Xrp1 plays at least two temporally distinct roles in genome integrity.

These findings may provide insight into mammalian cancer development. P53 is

one of the most important human tumor suppressors, mutated in more than 50% of human

cancers (Muller & Vousden, 2014). Although p53 ensures genomic integrity as the key

effector of the DDR (Levine et al., 2006; Kastenhuber & Lowe, 2017), it has been

questioned whether this is the basis for tumor suppression. Point mutations that block p53 function in the acute DDR have little effect in blocking tumor growth, and conditional knock-out studies point to a critical window for tumor suppressor function that is subsequent to the resolution of DNA damage (Christophorou et al., 2005; Christophorou et al., 2006; Li et al., 2012; Kaiser & Attardi, 2018). In mammals, which seem to lack a clear Xrp1 ortholog, p53 is required for cell competition, potentially substituting functionally for the role of Xrp1 in *Drosophila* (Baker et al., 2019; Baker, 2020; Lacroix et al., 2020; Boutelle & Attardi, 2021; Pilley et al., 2021). Cell competition could provide a second role for mammalian p53 in genome integrity, contributing to tumor suppression, for example, if it were found to eliminate aneuploid cells, analogous to the way that Xrp1 contributes to both DDR and cell competition in *Drosophila*.

RESULTS

DNA damage-induced expression of Xrp1

Studies on irradiated *Drosophila* embryos and larval tissues indicate that DNA Damage-induced apoptosis proceeds in two distinct phases (Wells et al., 2006; Wichmann et al., 2006; McNamee & Brodsky, 2009; Ji et al., 2021a). An initial acute, p53-dependent DDR peaks in the first 4 hours (Figure 1A). This is followed by a later, p53-independent phase that is associated with cell competition (Figure 1A). Xrp1 mRNA is upregulated by p53 within 30 minutes of irradiation of *Drosophila* embryos (Brodsky et al., 2004; Akdemir et al., 2007), perhaps by direct binding of p53 within the Xrp1 locus (Kurtz et al., 2019). We explored Xrp1 mRNA and protein expression to confirm that Xrp1 is a p53 target in third-instar larval wing discs. We used a fly line in which the Xrp1 protein was expressed from the endogenous locus, containing a C-terminal HA tag (Blanco et al., 2020). Wild-type wing discs exhibited only a few Xrp1-HA-positive cells, possibly reflecting spontaneous DNA damage or other cellular stress (Figure 1B). Exposure to ionizing radiation (IR: 1500 Rads of γ-rays) induced strongly Xrp1-HA positive cells by 2 hours after IR, which further increased by 4 hours after IR (Figure 1C-D). The DNA damage-induced Xrp1-HA expression was non-uniform, with some cells showing higher expression levels than others. This heterogeneity was different from the more uniform Xrp1-HA expression seen in $Rp^{+/-}$ mutant wing discs (Figure 1E). A similar salt-and-pepper pattern of Xrp1 was

observed with the Xrp1 antibody (Figure 1F, G). The specificity of Xrp1-HA expression
was further confirmed by its reduction after RNAi for Xrp1 (Figure 1H).

We tested the requirement of p53 using a dominant-negative form encoded by the
UAS-p53^{H159N} transgene. We drove expression in posterior wing compartments so that
Xrp1-HA expression levels could be compared to the anterior compartments of the same
wing discs as a control. Dominant-negative p53 significantly reduced IR-induced Xrp1-
HA (Figure 1I). Xrp1 in imaginal disc was also p53-dependent at the transcript level, with
a ~3x reduction in mRNA level seen after qRT-PCR from irradiated *p53$^{-/-}$* wing discs
(Figure 1- figure supplement 1A).

Interestingly, IR-induced Xrp1-HA protein expression was only slightly affected by
Irbp18 knockdown (Figure 1J). This was different from Xrp1 expression in *Rp$^{+/-}$* mutants,
where Xrp1 autoregulation is important to regulate the level of Xrp1 expression (Baillon
et al., 2018; Blanco et al., 2020). Consistent with autoregulation not contributing to IR-
induced *Xrp1* transcription, 50% of the normal *Xrp1* mRNA level remained in the *Xrp1^{m2-}*
^{73}/Df mutant background (Figure 1- figure supplement 1A). Thus, the *Xrp1^{m2-73}* point
mutant allele could still be transcribed in response to irradiation, even without a functional
Xrp1 product.

An Xrp1-LacZ enhancer trap has also been used as a reporter previously. It is
upregulated in *Rp$^{+/-}$* mutant wing discs (Baillon et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2018a). Like Xrp1
protein and mRNA, Xrp1-LacZ was moderately elevated after irradiation (Figure 1K,L).
Different from Xrp1-HA, Xrp1-LacZ expression depended on Xrp1 and Irbp18 function,
both after irradiation and in the unirradiated control (Figure 1- figure supplement 1B-E).
Unexpectedly, reducing p53 function slightly elevated the expression of Xrp1-LacZ after
irradiation (Figure 1M). These differences might be explained if there is an autoregulatory
component to Xrp1 transcription, particularly affecting Xrp1-LacZ, that does not contribute
much to IR-induced Xrp1 mRNA or protein levels.

Regulation of p53-dependent DDR target genes by Xrp1

In mammals, p53 regulates a complex transcriptional program of hundreds or even
thousands of genes (Levine et al., 2006). Depending on the study, however, only 122-
346 p53-dependent genes have a p53 consensus motif in the promoter or upstream

region (Wei et al., 2006; Fischer, 2017). It is thought that p53 directly controls core

transcription programs that, in turn, regulate further secondary, indirect targets (Andrysik

et al., 2017). Xrp1 is a candidate for bringing secondary target genes under the indirect

control of *Drosophila* p53. Consistent with this, when we compared 42 rapidly induced

p53-target genes (RIPD) identified in the DDR (Brodsky et al., 2004; Akdemir et al., 2007),

with Xrp1-dependent genes expressed in $Rp^{+/-}$ wing imaginal discs or discs

overexpressing Xrp1 (Baillon et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2018b), we found 21 of 42

overlapped (Figure 2A). These genes were associated with Gene Ontology (GO) terms

transcription factors, cell death, DNA repair, and redox response (Figure 2B).

To test if Xrp1 was needed to express p53-dependent genes in response to IR, we

employed available reporter lines and also confirmed gene expression by qRT-PCR.

GstD-lacZ is a redox response reporter that is induced in response to oxidative stress

(Sykiotis & Bohmann, 2008; Brown et al., 2021) and is elevated by Xrp1 in $Rp^{+/-}$ wing

discs (Kucinski et al., 2017; Ji et al., 2019; Kiparaki et al., 2022). *GstD-lacZ* was

expressed in response to IR, dependent on p53 (Figure 2C-D). We found that Xrp1 and

Irbp18 were needed (Figure 2F-G). This was in accordance with Xrp1/Irbp18 binding sites

being present in the *GstD*-lacZ reporter (Brown et al., 2021). To confirm that antioxidant

genes themselves were affected like the *GstD-lacZ* reporter was, we measured *GstD1*

mRNA levels in wing discs. Induction of *GstD1* mRNA by IR indeed depended on both

p53 and Xrp1 (Figure 2M).

Another stress pathway activated in DDR is the Jun N-terminal Kinase (JNK)

pathway (Picco & Pages, 2013). JNK activity is also Xrp1-dependent in $Rp^{+/-}$ wing discs

(Lee et al., 2018b; Ji et al., 2019). We found the JNK reporter *TRE-dsRed* was induced

by IR in a p53-dependent manner (Figure 2H-J), and this was Xrp1/Irbp18 dependent

(Figure 2K & L). The TNF-alpha ligand *eiger (egr)* has been proposed to activate JNK

signaling in the DDR (Sanchez et al., 2019). Surprisingly, however, *egr* transcription was

p53-dependent but independent of Xrp1, which questions whether it is solely responsible

for JNK signaling in the DDR (Fig. 2N).

All except one of the p53-dependent DNA repair genes induced in DDR were also

potential Xrp1 targets (Figure 2B). We measured wing disc mRNA levels of representative

genes from the major DNA repair pathways. These were the homologous recombination

pathway gene *rad50*, the translesion polymerase DNA polymerase zeta subunit 1,
mus205, and the Non-Homologous End Joining (NHEJ) pathway genes DNA ligase 4
(*lig4*) and *Ku80*. We found that IR-dependent expression of all these genes depended on
Xrp1 at least as strongly as upon p53 (Figure 2O-R).

A well-known aspect of DDR is the apoptotic death of severely damaged cells,
dependent in *Drosophila* on p53-dependent induction of the pro-apoptotic genes *rpr* and
hid (Brodsky et al., 2004; Dekanty et al., 2015). To explore the potential role of Xrp1, we
examined reporter lines for *rpr* and *hid*, which are expressed in response to IR and are
widely used as p53 reporters (Brodsky et al., 2004; Tanaka-Matakatsu et al., 2009; Fan
et al., 2010). Two reporter lines for *hid* are the *hid5'F-wt-EGFP* reporter, which contains
~2 kb spanning the *hid* promoter from +16 to −2210bp relative to the transcription start
site, and the *hid$^{20-10}$-lacZ* reporter, which includes a distinct 10 kb sequence from the *hid*
upstream region (Tanaka-Matakatsu et al., 2009; Fan et al., 2010) (Figure 3A). As
expected, *hid5'F-wt-EGFP* was highly induced after IR in a p53-dependent manner
(Figure 3B-D). Both *Xrp1* RNAi and *Irbp18* RNAi reduced the *hid5'F-wt-EGFP* expression
to the same extent as p53 dominant-negative did (Figure 3E-F). The *hid$^{20-10}$-lacZ* reporter
was also induced by IR and was dependent upon p53 (Figure 3G-I). Both *Xrp1* and *Irbp18*
RNAi reduced IR-dependent *hid$^{20-10}$-lacZ* expression, although not so much as p53
dominant-negative (Figure 3J-K). We assessed *rpr* expression using the *rpr^{150}-lacZ*
reporter, containing a 150bp sequence including a putative p53 binding site ~4.8kb
upstream of the *rpr* gene (Brodsky et al., 2000). In controls, *rpr^{150}-lacZ* reporter exhibits
uniform expression in most of the wing disc, on which is superimposed a region of
elevated expression bordering the posterior wing pouch and notum region (Alpar et al.,
2018; Li et al., 2020) (Figure 3L). It is now appreciated that many DDR genes have non-
uniform expression patterns in the wing disc (Cruz et al., 2025). Because IR enhanced all
aspects of *rpr^{150}-lacZ* expression (Figure 3L, M, and Figure 3- figure supplement 1A), we
measured the average *rpr^{150}-lacZ* expression level in anterior and posterior
compartments and computed the ratio of posterior-to-anterior expression level as a
readout of genetic perturbations applied to the posterior compartments (Figure 3- figure
supplement 1B). The increase in *rpr^{150}-lacZ* following IR was p53-dependent, as

expected, but unaffected by RNAi for either Xrp1 or Irbp18 (Figure 3N-P- figure
supplement 1B).

To confirm that these studies of *hid* and *rpr* reporters were indeed reflective of the
expression of the genes themselves, mRNA levels were measured in wing discs after IR.
Consistent with the reporter studies, induction of *hid* mRNA by irradiation was completely
dependent on p53 and partially dependent on Xrp1 (Figure 3Q). Induction of *rpr* mRNA
expression was completely dependent on p53 but was unaffected by the loss of Xrp1
(Figure 3R).

Taken together, these results show that genes identified as p53 targets in the
Drosophila DDR include genes that are, in fact, directly induced by Xrp1. Only two out of
nine p53 target genes examined, *egr* and *rpr*, were induced independently of Xrp1,
although *hid* induction has both Xrp1-dependent and -independent components. Analysis
of p53 and Xrp1 binding motifs supported this conclusion. Sequences matching the p53
binding consensus have been located within both the *rpr^150-lacZ* reporter and the *hid5'F-*
wt-EGFP reporter (Brodsky et al., 2000; Wichmann et al., 2010). Consensus binding sites
for the Xrp1/Irbp18 heterodimer have been determined by bacterial one-hybrid studies
(Fly Factor Survey) (Zhu et al., 2011) and from ChIP-seq after Xrp1 overexpression in
wing disc (Baillon et al., 2018). Such sequences are footprinted by Xrp1/Irbp18 in the P
element terminal repeat (Francis et al., 2016) and are sufficient to confer Xrp1/Irbp18-
dependent transcription on luciferase reporters (Kiparaki et al., 2022). Using an *in-silico*
motif finder (INSECT) (Rohr et al., 2013), we found two Xrp1/Irbp18 binding motifs in the
hid5'F-wt-EGFP reporter sequence and two in the *hid^20-10-lacZ* reporter sequence (Figure
3T), but we found none in the *rpr^150-lacZ* reporter that was expressed independently of
Xrp1 and Irbp18 (Figure 3T). We conclude that, while *rpr* could be a direct target of p53
in the DDR, *hid* expression is partially dependent on Xrp1 induction downstream of p53,
and the *hid5'F-wt-EGFP* reporter entirely so.

Xrp1 is sufficient for the expression of p53-dependent DDR target genes

It was possible that the only Xrp1 requirement in the DDR might be to activate p53
to create a positive feedback loop. We used the *rpr^150-lacZ* reporter, which is activated by
p53 but not Xrp1, to test how p53 activity was affected by Xrp1 overexpression. Xrp1

overexpression in the wing pouch resulted in a huge amount of cell death, as expected

(Figure 4- figure supplement 1A-B), but no discernible increase in rpr^{150}-lacZ levels

(Figure 4- figure supplement 1C-D). Similar results were obtained by expressing Xrp1 in

the eye discs (Fig. 4A-B). Thus, Xrp1 did not cause p53 activation and is likely to act

downstream of p53.

Next, we tested if Xrp1 was sufficient for the expression of target genes. Xrp1

overexpression in the eye disc led to a robust upregulation of hid^{20-10}-lacZ (Figure 4C and

D) and hid5'F-wt-EGFP (Figure 4E and F). Xrp1 also regulated JNK and GstD after DNA

damage, and Xrp1 overexpression was sufficient to activate the reporters for these

pathways, TRE-dsRED and GstD-lacZ (Figure 4- figure supplement 1E and F & G and

H). These results show that Xrp1 functions downstream of p53 and is sufficient for

expressing a subset of p53-dependent DDR genes.

Xrp1 contributes to DNA damage-induced cell death

To see whether the regulation of cell death genes by Xrp1 was functionally

significant, the p53-dependent apoptosis that occurs in response to irradiation was

examined. Cell death begins within 30 minutes after IR treatment and is entirely

dependent on p53 for at least 4-5 hours (Wichmann et al., 2006; McNamee & Brodsky,

2009). Accordingly, p53 dominant-negative expression in posterior compartments

substantially reduced the IR-induced cell death, leaving only a few cells positive for the

activated Dcp-1 caspase (Figure 5A, B, D). Xrp1 RNAi (two independent lines) and Irbp18

RNAi both reduced cell death in the posterior compartment (Figure 5C, D) to a lesser

extent than p53 dominant-negative did.

We also examined the cell autonomy of p53 and Xrp1 function using clones of

mutant cells. Control clones did not affect IR-induced cell death (Figure 5E, H). Wild-type

and $p53^{+/-}$ heterozygous cells exhibited similar cell death levels after irradiation, but cell

death was absent from $p53^{-/-}$ null clones (Figure 5F, H). There was little cell death

observed in $Xrp1^{+/-}$ (heterozygous) and $Xrp1^{-/-}$ (null) tissue as opposed to the high amount

of cell death observed in $Xrp1^{+/+}$ (wild type twin spot) (Figure 5G, H) (effects of Xrp1

mutation on Rp mutant cells are also dominant through haploinsufficiency) (Lee et al.,

2018b). Taken together, these results show that Xrp1 contributes to p53-mediated cell

death in response to irradiation, although this is partial because p53 also regulates cell
death genes directly, such as *rpr* (Figure 3R).

We also tested the contribution of Xrp1 to the effects of p53 overexpression. Over-
expression of p53 in the developing eye causes a rough eye phenotype in adults (Figure
5- figure supplement 1A) (Jin et al., 2000; Ollmann et al., 2000). Xrp1 knockdown very
slightly reduced the rough eye phenotype, unlike dominant-negative p53, which rescued
completely (Figure 5- figure supplement 1B, C). p53 overexpression in wing discs resulted
in massive cell death that was reduced only weakly by Xrp1 knockdown or mutant
genotypes (Figure 5- figure supplement 1D-H). In accordance with this partial
dependence on Xrp1, p53 overexpression led to rather little Xrp1 protein expression
(Figure 5- figure supplement 1I). These differences suggest that the effects of p53
overexpression differ from endogenous p53 activity in the physiological DDR, which
depends on Xrp1 to a considerable degree.

Xrp1-dependent competitive cell death limits genomic instability
The DDR is followed by a phase of p53-independent cell death, peaking around
24h after irradiation, reflecting the loss of aneuploid cells (Wichmann et al., 2006;
McNamee & Brodsky, 2009). We previously showed that the majority of this p53-
independent cell death depends on RpS12 and is associated with the expression of Xrp1,
consistent with cell competition on the basis of altered *Rp* gene dose (Ji et al., 2021b).
Here, we confirmed that most of the p53-independent cell death depends on Xrp1 (Figure
6A-F). At 24 hours after irradiation, Xrp1-HA expression was still observed and was totally
suppressed upon Xrp1 knockdown (Figure 6- figure supplement 1A-C). Irbp18
knockdown reduced Xrp1-HA expression to some extent in accordance with the
autoregulatory role of Irbp18/Xrp1 in cell competition (Figure 6- figure supplement 1D, G).
It was already known that Xrp1 expression at this stage did not require p53 (Ji et al.,
2021a); surprisingly, Xrp1-HA expression was actually increased when p53 was inhibited
(Figure 6- figure supplement 1E, G). This increase was reduced in the *rpS12* mutant
(Figure 6- figure supplement 1F, G). Importantly, in addition to not affecting cell death at
2 hours after IR (Figure 6- figure supplement 1H, I) (Ji et al., 2021a), RpS12 also does
not affect Xrp1-HA expression at 2 hours after IR (Figure 6- figure supplement 1J-L).

Thus, Xrp1 expression and function in the acute DDR depended on p53, not RpS12. In
contrast, the Xrp1 expression that occured 24 hours after irradiation depended at least in
part on RpS12, as did the enhanced expression that occured in the absence of p53.

To explore the impacts of p53 on genome integrity and Xrp1 activity further, we
looked at IR-induced DNA damage using antibodies against γH2Av, which marks the
double-strand breaks (Lake et al., 2013; Khan et al., 2017). Consistent with previous
reports, most of the acute DNA damage visible 4h after irradiation was repaired by 24
hours (Figure 6A-C) (Wells et al., 2006; McNamee & Brodsky, 2009). Like Xrp1-HA
expression, γH2Av levels 24 hours after irradiation were increased in the absence of p53,
indicating persistent unrepaired DNA damage (Figure 6D). Dual Xrp1 knockdown and p53
inhibition led to an even further increase (Figure 6E). These data indicated that p53 was
required for the repair (or removal) of irradiation-damaged DNA, and that some cells
where this damage persists were then removed by p53-independent Xrp1 activity, i.e.,
cell competition. Consistent with this conclusion, double labeling showed that some of the
γH2Av-positive cells that persisted when p53 was inhibited also expressed Xrp1-HA
(Figure 6G-H). In support of the p53-independent function of Xrp1 at 24 hours post-IR,
the expression of *hid5'F-wt-EGFP* was totally dependent on Xrp1 at this stage, but not all
this expression depended on p53 (Figure 6J, I). However, we noticed that a fraction of
hid5'F-wt-EGFP expression at 24 hours post-IR was still p53-depedent but to a much
lesser extent that at 4 hours (Figure 3).

To get a better idea of when cell competition begins, wing discs were examined 16
hours post-IR. We found that Xrp1-HA expression was largely independent of p53 by 16
hours (Figure 6- figure supplement 2A-C) and, in fact, similar to 24 hours, Xrp1 was
elevated in the absence of p53. However, similar to 4 hours after IR, Xrp1 knockdown
completed suppressed Xrp1-HA expression at 16 hours post-IR but Irpb18 did not (Figure
6- figure supplement 2D, E). Cell death occurring 16 hours after irradiation was
substantially p53-dependent, but p53-independent cell death was also detected (Figure
6- figure supplement 2F, G & I), in contrast to the acute DDR phase, where cell death is
almost completely p53 dependent (Figure 5). Cell death 16 hours following irradiation was
reduced by Xrp1 and Irbp18 depletion, but not eliminated (Figure 6- figure supplement
2F, H & I). These results suggest that p53-independent Xrp1 expression and function in

cell competition are emerging by 16 hours and peaking by 24 hours after irradiation,

perhaps indicating the timeline of the appearance of aneuploid cells.

DISCUSSION

Xrp1 is known to contribute to genome integrity because flies lacking Xrp1 exhibit

increased loss-of-heterozygosity following irradiation (Akdemir et al., 2007; Ji et al.,

2021b). Here, we affirm that Xrp1 contributes to genome maintenance at two levels

(Figure 7). One is as a component of the acute DDR, mediating part of the p53

transcriptional response and p53-dependent apoptosis; the other role occurs later,

through cell competition to eliminate aneuploid and segmentally aneuploid cells that have

acquired altered Rp gene dose as a result of DNA damage and its subsequent repair

(Figure 7A). Xrp1 expression is induced by p53 in the DDR and by RpS12 during cell

competition. Defects in the DDR, eg, when p53 is inhibited, increase the aneuploid cell

burden and the resulting need for cell competition (Figure 7B,C). These two processes

are distinguished in *Drosophila* by the distinct roles of p53 and of RpS12 in Xrp1 induction

in each case. In mammals, however, both the DDR and cell competition depend on p53

and are both potential contributors to p53-mediated tumor suppression.

Xrp1 is an effector of p53 functions in the DDR

In imaginal discs, Xrp1 is induced by p53 activity in the acute phase of DDR at

both RNA and protein levels (Figure 1). Unlike Xrp1 induction in $Rp^{+/-}$ cells, Xrp1

expression in the DDR occurs independently of autoregulatory transcription, which may

be why the Xrp1-LacZ enhancer trap shows less upregulation than the endogenous Xrp1

transcript and protein. Multiple p53-dependent DDR genes, in fact, the majority in our

study, were Xrp1-dependent, including the pro-apoptotic gene *hid*. Even though *hid*-

reporters have been used as readouts of p53 activity (Fan et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2014;

Chakravarti et al., 2022; Ruiz-Losada et al., 2022), they may be more accurately

described as targets of Xrp1. Other Xrp1 targets in the DDR include DNA repair genes,

GstD1, and JNK signaling. Accordingly, Xrp1 is functionally required in the DDR. DNA

damage-induced cell death is reduced in the absence of Xrp1, although not eliminated,

perhaps because the pro-apoptotic gene *rpr* seems to be a direct target of p53, whose

transcriptional induction does not require Xrp1. The absence of Xrp1 also leads to an increase in persistent DNA damage, as evidenced by persistent γH2Av staining. This is even more pronounced when p53 is absent as well (Figure 6). Persistent γH2Av staining may reflect ineffective DNA repair, insufficient apoptosis that permits badly damaged cells to survive, or both.

We show that in *Drosophila*, Xrp1 acts downstream to p53 as an intermediate transcription factor and probably controls the majority of DDR targets. So far, integrating data from gene expression studies, binding motif and ChIP-Seq searches, and global run-on sequencing of nascent mRNA has not yielded a consensus on the core set of direct p53 target genes in mammals (Riley et al., 2008; Allen et al., 2014; Fischer, 2017). It is possible that, as in *Drosophila*, mammalian p53 acts as a master transcription factor that regulates a network of gene expression responses both directly and through intermediate transcription factors.

Xrp1 acts independently of p53 in cell competition

Although Xrp1 protein expression was almost completely p53-dependent during the acute DDR response, later Xrp1 expression was mostly p53-independent (Figure 6-figure supplement 1). Most DNA damage is normally resolved by the time of p53-independent Xrp1 expression (Wells et al., 2006). Without p53, however, DNA damage persisted longer than usual, so γH2Av labeling was still evident 24h after irradiation (Figure 6).

Previous work shows that p53-independent cell death can reflect cell competition of cells whose genomes have been altered by irradiation. Because 80 Rp are encoded by genes spread throughout the genome, a loss of 1-2% of the genome will often create haploinsufficiency for one or more Rp genes and trigger elimination by cell competition (Ji et al., 2021b). Consistent with this mechanism, the delayed, p53-independent Xrp1 expression largely depended on RpS12, a signal of defective ribosome biogenesis that is required to induce Xrp1 expression in $Rp^{+/-}$ cells and cells with defective rRNA synthesis (Lee et al., 2018b; Kiparaki et al., 2022). Accordingly, the p53-independent apoptosis occurring 24 hours after IR, and which is known to depend on RpS12, also depended on Xrp1. Xrp1 thus contributes to genome integrity at two levels, as a component of the p53-

dependent DDR and as an executor of RpS12-dependent cell competition that functions,

in part, to remove cells where DDR has failed or has altered cell genotypes (Figure 7B,C).

Notably, Xrp1 expression levels were several-fold higher during the cell

competition phase if p53 had been inhibited (Figure 6- figure supplement 1). Because this

expression is p53-independent and likely to represent cell competition of aneuploid cells,

it suggests that more aneuploid cells arise without p53 to coordinate the DDR. The

persistence of H2Av labeling also suggested that double-strand breaks persist without

p53. We think that without p53, DNA repair pathways, including DSB repair, single-strand

break repair, and Nucleotide excision repair, are delayed or less effective, and coupled

with faulty cell cycle arrest, result in a higher frequency of genome rearrangements and

aneuploidy (Williams & Schumacher, 2016).

Dual processes maintaining genome integrity following DNA damage

We have focused on two Xrp1-dependent processes contributing to genome

integrity after DNA damage. The DDR depends on p53 in both *Drosophila* and mammals.

Cell competition removes aneuploid cells in a p53-independent manner in *Drosophila*

(Figure 7).

In mammals, the DDR was initially thought to represent the tumor suppressor

function of p53. Later studies showed that tumor suppression is separable from the DDR

and occurs afterwards (Christophorou et al., 2005; Christophorou et al., 2006; Li et al.,

2012; Kaiser & Attardi, 2018). In mammals, where no clear Xrp1 homolog exists, Rp

gene haploinsufficiency instead induces p53 through the nucleolar stress pathway

(Bursac et al., 2014). Interestingly, differences in p53 activity levels between cells underlie

multiple examples of cell competition in mammals (Bondar & Medzhitov, 2010b; Marusyk

et al., 2010; Wagstaff et al., 2016; Fernandez-Antoran et al., 2019). Accordingly, we have

suggested that in mammals, p53 takes on cell competition aspects of the Xrp1 function

in *Drosophila* (Baker et al., 2019). Consistent with this, p53 mediates the removal of

aneuploid cells in mammals, which Xrp1 does in *Drosophila* (Singla et al., 2020; Ji et al.,

2021a). If p53 eliminates aneuploid cells in mammals by Rp gene dose-dependent cell

competition, as Xrp1 does in *Drosophila*, then dual roles for mammalian p53 could both

contribute to tumor suppression, as dual roles for Xrp1 maintain genome integrity in

Drosophila. Consistent with this, analyses of early cancer development in a mouse
pancreatic cancer model indicate that losses of single chromosomes or parts of
chromosomes are very early steps in the progression toward transformation (Baslan et
al., 2022). Mammalian cells with such small-scale monosomies only seem to survive in
the absence of p53 (Chunduri et al., 2021). Although further studies will be required to
confirm the suggestion, the observations are all consistent with the possibility that by
contributing to genome integrity at the tissue level after the initial repair of DNA damage,
cell competition could represent a significant tumor-suppressive process in mammals
(Baker & Montagna, 2022).

485
486

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
We thank Drs. J. Secombe, M. Kiparaki, S. Nair, A. Kumar, and S. Muliyil for
comments on an earlier version of the manuscript. Fly stocks were obtained from the
Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center (supported by NIH P40OD018537) and the Vienna
Drosophila Resource Center. Confocal microscopy was performed in the Analytical
Imaging Facility of the Albert Einstein College of Medicine (supported by the NCI
P30CA013330) using the Leica SP8 microscope acquired through NIH SIG 1S10
OD023591. The monoclonal antibody mAb40-1a developed by J. R. Sanes was obtained
from the Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, created by the NICHD and maintained
at the University of Iowa, Department of Biology, Iowa City, IA 52242. This project was
supported by a grant from the National Institutes of Health (R01-CA284362 to NEB). Part
of this work is supported by the Division of Intramural Research at the National Heart,
Lung, and Blood Institute within the National Institutes of Health (1ZIAHL006126 to NMR).

Disclaimer
Part of this research was supported by the Intramural Research Program of the National
Institutes of Health (NIH). The contributions of the NIH authors were made as part of their
official duties as NIH federal employees, are in compliance with agency policy
requirements, and are considered Works of the United States Government. However, the
findings and conclusions presented in this paper are those of the authors and do not

necessarily reflect the views of the NIH or the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

1. Fly husbandry: Flies were raised at 25°C on standard cornmeal and molasses medium, containing the following ingredients per 1L: 18g yeast; 22g molasses; 80g malt extract; 9g agar; 65g cornmeal; 2.3g methyl para-benzoic acid; 6.35ml propionic acid. Larvae were not distinguished for their sex before dissection.

2. DNA damage γ-radiation treatment: Flies were grown in the standard cornmeal medium at 25°C. After egg laying was done for 24 hours, the flies were transferred to a fresh vial. Following this, the larvae were allowed to grow until the wandering late III instar stage, and DNA damage was induced by treating them with γ-radiation from cesium-137 using a Shepherd irradiator. For most experiments, 1500 Rads were administered, and dissection was performed at a specified time point after the irradiation.

3. Cell death quantification: Cell death was quantified by counting the number of Dcp-1 positive cells with the help of the ImageJ cell counter plugin. For UAS-Gal4 experiments, Dcp-1 positive cells in Gal4 to the control compartment were counted and compared as the ratio across different genetic perturbations. In the case of mutant wing discs, the number of Dcp-1 positive cells was counted in the entire disc, and the absolute number was compared.

4. Immunohistochemistry: Imaginal discs were fixed using 4% formaldehyde in 1× PBS, followed by 2 h blocking with 0.5% bovine serum albumin (BSA) dissolved in 0.1% PBST (1×PBS with 0.1% Triton X-100). Primary antibody incubations were performed at 4°C overnight, followed by 2 hours of secondary incubation at room temperature. All washes following antibody incubation were performed in 0.1% PBST. Primary antibodies were against rabbit anti-cleaved Dcp-1 (Cell Signaling 9578, 1:200), mouse anti-γH2Av (DSHB UNC93-5.2.1, 1:50), mouse anti-βGalactosidase (DSHB 40a-1, 1:50), mouse anti-p53 (DSHB 25F4, 1:50), and mouse anti-GFP (DSHB 12A6, 1:50), mouse anti-HA (CST 2367,

1:100), and anti-Xrp1 (1:250; gift from Rio lab). Alexa-Fluor (Thermo Fisher-Invitrogen)

and Cyanine dye (Jackson labs) conjugated secondary antibodies were used at 1:200

dilution. Image acquisition was performed on the Leica-Sp8 microscope, intensity

adjustments were made using Photoshop CC 2018, and Image J was used for image

processing.

Previous experiments have supported that significant results could be obtained

from 5 replicates; in most cases, more than 5 samples were analyzed. Experiments were

repeated at least 2 times or more for most of the results. No exclusion of the data points

was made while performing statistical significance. For the quantitative data, N values are

indicated in the figure legends. Statistical significance was performed using a Student's

t-test for independent or dependent means, as shown in the figure legends. For specific

data sets, one-way ANOVA with Post Hoc Turkey HSD was performed, as mentioned in

the figure legends. Exact p-values are indicated in the figures.

5. q-RT PCR:

Total RNA was extracted from wing imaginal discs of late-third instar larvae treated

with 2000 Rads of IR; untreated larvae were taken as a control for normalization. Wing

discs were collected in TRIzol reagents (Ambion), and RNA was isolated according to the

manufacturer's instructions. RNA samples were DNase-treated according to the

manufacturer's instructions (Thermo Fisher; AM1907) and reverse transcribed using the

Verso cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Fisher; AB1453). The cDNA was used to perform the

q-RT PCR reactions following the manufacturer's instructions for the TaqMan^{TM} Fast

Advanced Master Mix (Thermo Fisher; 4444557). Custom design FAM-MGB TaqMan

probes were utilized for q-RT-PCR. The gene expression values were normalized to the

housekeeping gene RpL32 and confirmed with actin as a second control (data not

included). The following calculations were used for estimating fold change in gene

expression Δ: Ct = Ct (gene of interest) – Ct (housekeeping gene), $\Delta\Delta$Ct = ΔCt (3-4 hr IR)

– ΔCt (untreated average), and Fold gene expression = 2^ -($\Delta\Delta$Ct). 3 biological replicates

were analysed for each condition and genotype. The gene expression analysis was

performed using technical triplicates for each sample. It has been previously established

that significant results can obtained 3 biological and 3 technical triplicates.

The following TaqMan probes were used in this study:

1. p53 Dm02154335_g1
2. Xrp1 Dm02142088_g1
3. rpr Dm01823054_s1
4. hid Dm01823031_m1
5. GstD1 Dm02362792_s1
6. eiger Dm01794373_m1
7. rad50 Dm01817359_g1
8. PolZ1 Dm01843262_g1
9. DNAlig4 Dm01838632_g1
10. Ku80 Dm01791676_g1
11. *Drosophila* RpL32 Dm02151827_g1
12. *Drosophila* actin Dm02361909_s1

 FIGURES AND FIGURE LEGENDS:

Figure 1: DNA damage induced Xrp1 expression

(A). Schematic of the approximate timeline of p53-dependent and p53-independent apoptotic responses following irradiation, based on previous work (Brodsky et al., 2004; Wells et al., 2006; McNamee & Brodsky, 2009; Ji et al., 2021b). (B). Xrp1 protein levels in the wild type III instar wing discs stained for HA, in 0 Rads (control) (C), 2 hours after 1500 Rads (D), 4 hours after 1500 Rads (E), and in $Rp18^{+/-}$ mutant (F). Larval wing discs stained with Xrp1 antibody, 0 Rads (control) (G), and 4 hours after 1500 Rads (H) (note: Xrp1 antibody shows higher background than Xrp1-HA). Xrp1-HA expression at 4 hours post-1500 Rads in the posterior compartment, compared relative to the anterior compartment, taken as an internal control, *en-Gal4* driving *UAS-Xrp1* RNAi (I), p53 dominant negative (*UAS-p53^{H159N}*) (J), and *UAS-Irbp18* RNAi (K). III instar wing discs assayed for *Xrp1^{02515}*-lacZ enhancer trap expression detected by anti-βgal antibody in 0 Rads (L), 4 hours after 1500 Rads (M), and in the wing disc expressing *UAS-p53^{H159N}* under control of *en-Gal4,* 4 hours after 1500 Rads (N). N=7-8 discs were analyzed for every genotype, and each experiment was repeated at least 2-3 times.

Genotypes: (B-D) *Xrp1-HA*, (E) *p{hs:FLP}; FRT42 RpS18 p{ubi:GFP},* (F-G) *w^{1118}* (H) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-Xrp1 RNAi* (VDRC 107860)*; Xrp1-HA,* (I) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-p53DN^{H159N}* (Bl. 8420)*; Xrp1-HA,* (J) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-Irbp18 RNAi; Xrp1-HA,* (K-L) *P{PZ}Xrp1^{02515}*, (M) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP,UAS-p53DN^{H159N}* (Bl. 8420); *P{PZ}Xrp1^{02515}*

Figure 1- Supplement 1: Xrp1 RNA expression in response to DNA damage

qRT-PCR analysis for Xrp1 mRNA expression levels from III instar wing discs from the genotypes w^{1118}, $p53^{[5A-1-4]}$, and $Xrp1^{m2-73}$/Df1 collected 3-4 hours after irradiation (1500 RADs) and normalized to an untreated (0 RADs) sample (A). III instar wing discs assayed for $Xrp1^{02515}$-lacZ enhancer trap expression by anti-βgal antibody in 0 Rads for *en>Xrp1 RNAi* (B), *en>Irbp18 RNAi* (C), and 4 hours after 1500 Rads treatment in genotypes *en>Xrp1 RNAi* (D), *en>Irbp18 RNAi* (E). Number of wing discs analyzed for genotypes was N=3 for B, N=2 for C, N=3 for D, and N=5 for E Data is plotted as mean± SEM, and a two-tailed student t-test for independent means was performed for statistical significance.

Genotype: (A) w^{1118}, *yw; $p53^{[5A-1-4]}$,* and *$Xrp1^{m2-73}$/ Df 1*, (B & C) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-Xrp1 RNAi* (VDRC 107860); *P{PZ}Xrp1^{02515}* (C & E) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-Irbp18 RNAi; P{PZ}Xrp1^{02515}*

Figure 2: Xrp1 serves as the effector of p53 in DNA damage response

Vein diagram showing the overlap of p53 (Brodsky et al., 2004; Akdemir et al., 2007) and

Xrp1 (Baillon et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2018b) target genes (A). The table shows the genes

organized according to GO categories from radiation-induced p53-dependent (RIPD) and

genes common between Xrp1- and p53-dependent transcription programs (highlighted in

bold) (B). Expression of *GstD*-lacZ in III instar wing discs measured by staining for anti-

βgal antibody, in the wild type (no IR) (C), 4 hours after 2000 Rads in wild type disc (D),

UAS-p53^{H159N} (E), *UAS-Xrp1 RNAi* (F), and *UAS-Irbp18* RNAi (G). Expression of *TRE-*

dsRed in III instar wing discs measured by staining for anti-RFP antibody, in the wild type

(no IR) (H), 4 hours after 1500 Rads in wild type disc (I), *UAS-p53^{H159N}* (J). *UAS-Xrp1*

RNAi (K) and *UAS-Irbp18 RNAi* (L). qRT-PCR analysis for mRNA expression levels from

III instar wing discs of *w^{1118}*, *p53$^{[5A-1-4]}$* and *Xrp1^{m2-73}/Df1* collected 3-4 hours after

irradiation (1500 RADs) and normalized to untreated (0 Rads) sample, for the following

genes *GstD1* (M), *egr* (N), *rad50* (O), *mus205* (P), *lig4* (Q) and *Ku80* (R). N=7-8 discs

were analyzed for every genotype, and each experiment was repeated at least 2-3 times.

Data is plotted as mean± SEM, a two-tailed student t-test for independent means, was

performed for statistical significance.

Genotype: (C & D) *GstD-LacZ,* (E) *GstD-LacZ, UAS-p53^{H159N}* (Bl. 8420)*; hh-Gal4::UAS-*

GFP, (F) *GstD-LacZ, UAS-Xrp1 RNAi* (VDRC 107860)*; hh-Gal4::UAS-GFP,* (G) *GstD-*

LacZ, UAS-Irbp18 RNAi; hh-Gal4::UAS-GFP, (H and I) *TRE-dsRed,* (J) *TRE-dsRed::en-*

Gal4, UAS-p53^{H159N} (Bl. 8420), (K) *TRE-dsRed::en-Gal4, UAS-Xrp1 RNAi* (VDRC

107860), (L) *TRE-dsRed::en-Gal4, UAS-Irbp18 RNAi*, (M-R) *w^{1118}*, *yw; p53$^{[5A-1-4]}$,* and

Xrp1^{m2-73}/Df1

Figure 3: Xrp1 controls the expression of the regulatory sequences of the pro-apoptotic gene *hid*

Schematic of H99 locus with approximate positions of the *rpr, hid,* and *grm* and the reporter lines used for the analysis (A). Expression of *hid5'F-wt-EGFP* measured by

staining for anti-GFP antibody, in the wild type (no IR) (B) and 4 hours after 2000 Rads in the wild type wing disc (C), *UAS-p53*^{H159N} (D), *UAS-Xrp1 RNAi* (E), and *UAS-Irbp18* RNAi (F). *hid*$^{20-10}$*-lacZ* expression measured by anti-βgal staining in the wild type (no IR) (G) and 4 hours after 2000 Rads in wild type wing disc (H), *UAS-p53*^{H159N} (I), *UAS-Xrp1* (J), and *UAS-Irbp18* RNAi (K). *rpr*^{150}*-lacZ* expression measured by anti-βgal staining, in the wild type (no IR) (L) and 4 hours after 2000 Rads in the wild type wing disc (M). *UAS-p53*^{H159N} (N), *UAS-Xrp1* (O), and *UAS-Irbp18* RNAi (P). qRT-PCR analysis for mRNA expression levels from III instar wing discs of *w*^{1118}, *p53*$^{[5A-1-4]}$, and *Xrp1*$^{m2-73}$*/Df1* collected 3-4 hours after irradiation (1500 RADs) and normalized to untreated (0 Rads) sample, for the following genes, *rpr* (Q), and *hid* (R). Putative DNA binding motif of Xrp1/Irbp18 heterodimer, adapted from Fly Factor Survey (S). Position of Xrp1/Irbp18 DNA motif in the upstream regulatory region of *hid* relative to the TSS (T). N=5-8 discs were analyzed for every genotype; data was plotted as mean± SEM, and a two-tailed student t-test for independent means was performed for statistical significance.

Genotype: (B & C) *hid5'F-wt-EGFP*, (D) *hid5'F-wt-EGFP; en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-p53*^{H159N} (Bl. 8420), (E) *hid5'F-wt-EGFP; en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-Xrp1 RNAi* (VDRC 107860), (F) *hid5'F-wt-EGFP; en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-Irbp18 RNAi*, (G & H) *yw*; *hid*$^{20-10}$*-lacZ*, (I) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-p53*^{H159N} (Bl. 8420)*; hid*$^{20-10}$*-lacZ*, (J) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-Xrp1 RNAi* (VDRC 107860)*; hid*$^{20-10}$*-lacZ*, (K) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-Irbp18 RNAi; hid*$^{20-10}$*-lacZ*, (L & M) *rpr*^{150}*-lacZ*, (N) *rpr*^{150}*-lacZ, UAS-p53*^{H159N} (Bl. 8420)*; hh-Gal4::UAS-GFP*, (O) *rpr*^{150}*-lacZ, UAS-Xrp1 RNAi* (VDRC 107860)*; hh-Gal4::UAS-GFP,* (P) *rpr*^{150}*-lacZ, UAS-Irbp18 RNAi; hh-Gal4::UAS-GFP*, (Q-R) *w*^{1118}, *yw; p53*$^{[5A-1-4]}$, and *Xrp1*$^{m2-73}$*/Df1*

Figure 3- Supplement: *rpr^{150}lacZ* intensity quantification

(A) Average intensity quantification for *rpr^{150}lacZ* from the wing, the anterior compartment of the wing pouch, with and without IR for the genotypes shown in Figure 3 L-P. *rpr^{150}lacZ* average intensity in the anterior compartments is elevated by IR, regardless of gene expression or depletion in the P compartments. (B) The mean posterior (P) to mean anterior (A) LacZ expression ratio for each was only reduced by p53-DN, which decreased the relative *rpr-LacZ* expression level. Statistics: Data is plotted as mean$\pm$ SEM; n=5 for *irbp18* RNAi, n=7 for other genotypes; significance assessed by one-way ANOVA with Post Hoc Turkey HSD. For panel B, genotypes were compared only to the unirradiated control.

Genotype: (A & B) *rpr^{150}-lacZ*, *rpr^{150}-lacZ, UAS-p53^{H159N}* (Bl. 8420)*; hh-Gal4::UAS-GFP*, *rpr^{150}-lacZ, UAS-Xrp1 RNAi* (VDRC 107860)*; hh-Gal4::UAS-GFP, rpr^{150}-lacZ, UAS-Irbp18 RNAi; hh-Gal4::UAS-GFP*

Figure 4: Xrp1 is sufficient for the expression of p53- dependent DDR target genes

rpr¹⁵⁰-lacZ reporter expression measured by anti-βgal (red) and cell death by anti-Dcp-1 (green) in III instar eye imaginal disc expressing UAS-RFP (A) and UAS-Xrp1 long isoform (B), under the control of *GMR-Gal4* (blue). *hid²⁰⁻¹⁰-lacZ* reporter expression measured by anti-βgal (red) and cell death by anti-Dcp-1 (green) in III instar eye imaginal disc expressing UAS-RFP (C) and UAS-Xrp1 long isoform (D) under the control of *GMR-Gal4* (blue). *hid5'F-wt-EGFP* reporter expression measured by anti-GFP (red) and cell death by anti-Dcp-1 (green) in III instar eye imaginal disc expressing UAS-RFP (E) and UAS-Xrp1 long isoform (F) under the control of *GMR-Gal4* (blue). N=7-8 discs were analyzed for every genotype; each experiment was repeated at least 2 times. All the control and experimental genotypes shown in this figure were kept at 18°C to lessen the effect of Xrp1 overexpression.

Genotype: (A-A') *GMR-Gal4::UAS-RFP, rpr¹⁵⁰-lacZ,* (B-B') *GMR-Gal4::UAS-RFP::UAS-Xrp1, rpr¹⁵⁰-lacZ,* (C-C') *GMR-Gal4::UAS-RFP; hid²⁰⁻¹⁰-lacZ,* (D-D') *GMR-Gal4::UAS-*

733 *RFP::UAS-Xrp1; hid²⁰⁻¹⁰-lacZ, (E-E') hid5'F-wt-EGFP; GMR-Gal4::UAS-RFP, (F-F')*

734 *hid5'F-wt-EGFP; GMR-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-Xrp1*

Figure 4- Supplement 1: Xrp1 is sufficient for the expression of p53- dependent DDR target genes

Xrp1-HA protein measured by anti-HA (red) and cell death by Dcp-1 (green) in the III instar wing disc expressing UAS-RFP control (A) and UAS-Xrp1 long isoform (B) under the control of *nub-Gal4* (blue). *rpr¹⁵⁰-lacZ* reporter expression measured by anti-βgal (green) and cell death by anti-Dcp-1 (red) in III instar wing imaginal disc expressing UAS-RFP (C) and UAS-Xrp1 (D) under the control of *nub-Gal4*. *TRE-EGFP* reporter expression measured by anti-GFP (green) and cell death by anti-Dcp-1 (red) in III instar wing imaginal disc expressing UAS-RFP control (E) and UAS-Xrp1 (F) under the control

of *nub-Gal4* (blue). *GstD-lacZ* reporter expression measured by anti-GFP (green) and cell death by anti-Dcp-1 (red) in III instar wing imaginal disc expressing UAS-RFP (G) and UAS-Xrp1 (H) under the control of *nub-Gal4* (blue). N=7-8 discs were analyzed for every genotype, and each experiment was repeated at least 2 times. All the control and experimental genotypes shown in this figure were kept at 18°C to lessen the effect of Xrp1 overexpression.

Genotype: (A) *nub-Gal4::UAS-RFP,* (B) *nub-Gal4::UAS-RFP::UAS-Xrp1-HA,* (C) *nub-Gal4::UAS-RFP, rpr[150]-lacZ,* (D) *nub-Gal4::UAS-RFP::UAS-Xrp1-HA, rpr[150]-lacZ,* (E) *nub-Gal4::UAS-RFP, TRE-GFP,* (F) *nub-Gal4::UAS-RFP::UAS-Xrp1-HA, TRE-GFP,* (G) *nub-Gal4::UAS-RFP, GstD-lacZ,* (H) *nub-Gal4::UAS-RFP::UAS-Xrp1-HA, GstD-lacZ*

Figure 5: Xrp1 is partly required for DNA damage-induced cell death

Drosophila III instar wing imaginal discs dissected at 2 hours after 1500 Rads, cell death is measured by Dcp-1 (green and grayscale) in different genetic perturbations using en-Gal4 (posterior compartment (red)), UAS-RFP (A), *UAS-p53^{H159N}* (B), and *UAS-Xrp1* RNAi (C). Dcp-1 positive cells were quantified and plotted as the ratio of Dcp-1 positive cells in posterior (P) to anterior (A) compartments (D). Wing discs were dissected 4 hours after 1500 RADs and stained for Dcp-1 positive cells in *FRT82* (E), *FRT82p53$^{[5A-1-4]}$* (F), and *FRT82Xrp1^{m2-73}* (G). (H) Dcp-1 positive cells were quantified in the clone (RFP-/-) and in the sister clone (RFP+/+). A 4-hour timepoint was taken to have a uniform distribution of Dcp-1 positive cells. Statistics: (A-D) N=15 for each genotype. (E-H) N=8 for each genotype. Data is plotted as mean$\pm$ SEM, a two-tailed student t-test for independent means for (A-D) and dependent means for (E-H), was performed for statistical significance.

Genotype: (A) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP,* (B) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-p53DN^{H159N}* (Bl. 8420), (C) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-Xrp1 RNAi* (Bl. 4521), (E) *p{hs:FLP}; FRT82-RFP/FRT82* (30 min hs, 48 hr A.E.L), (F) *p{hs:FLP}; FRT82-RFP/FRT82-p53$^{[5A-1-4]}$* (30 min hs, 48 hr A.E.L), (G) *p{hs:FLP}; FRT82-RFP/FRT82-Xrp1^{m2-73}* (30 min hs, 48 hr A.E.L)

Figure 5- Supplement: Xrp1 do not rescue p53 O/E phenotype

(A) Bright field photograph of *Drosophila* eye, rough eye phenotype due to constitutive

expression of p53 under the control of GMR-promoter (*GMR-p53*). (B) Overexpression of

dominant-negative p53 (*UAS-p53^H159N^*) rescues the rough eye phenotype. (C) Xrp1

knockdown by RNAi has a slight effect on the rough eye phenotype. (D) Control *nub-Gal4*

exhibits few Dcp-1 positive cells, and no p53 protein was detected by anti-p53 antibody.

(E) *nub-Gal4* driving p53 overexpression (*GUS-p53*) in the wing pouch exhibits elevated

cell death measured by Dcp-1 and p53 protein, measured by anti-p53 antibody. (F) Co-

expressing *UAS-Xrp1* RNAi and *GUS-p53* under *nub-Gal4* led to a decrease in cell death

by approximately 50%. (G) Removing one copy by $Xrp1^{m2-73}$/+ ^{did not affect} cell death. (H)

Removing both copies of Xrp1 ($Xrp1^{m2-73}$/$Xrp1^{attp\ flox}$) results in a decrease in cell death of

approximately 50%. Xrp1-HA expression was assayed by an anti-HA antibody in the wing

disc, expressing p53 under the control of *nub-Gal4* (I & I'). (J) Dcp1 intensity was

quantified using ImageJ; N = 6 for each genotype. Data is plotted as mean$\pm$ SEM, two-

tailed student t-test for independent means. All the control and experimental genotypes

shown in this figure were kept at 18°C to lessen the effect of p53 overexpression.

Genotype: (A) *GMR-p53,* (B) *GUS-p53, GMR-Gal4; UAS-p53^{H159N}* (Bl. 4021)*,* (C) *GUS-*

p53, GMR-Gal4; UAS-Xrp1 RNAi (Bl. 4521)*,* (D) *nub-Gal4; w^{1118},* (E) *nub-Gal4, GUS-*

p53, (F) *nub-Gal4, GUS-p53; UAS-Xrp1 RNAi* (Bl. 4521)*,* (G) *nub-Gal4, GUS-p53;*

Xrp1^{m2-73}/+, (H) *nub-Gal4, GUS-p53; Xrp1^{m2-73}/Xrp1$^{attp\ flox}$,* (I) *nub-Gal4, GUS-p53; Xrp1-*

HA

Figure 6: Xrp1 limits genomic instabilities by removing aneuploid cells in a p53-independent manner

(A-B) III instar wing disc from larvae stained for cell death (Dcp-1, green), DNA damage signaling (γH2Av, red), control (*en-Gal4, UAS-GFP*) (A), and 4 hours after 1500 Rads of γ-rays treatment (B). (C-E) III instar wing disc from larvae 24 hours after 1500 Rads of γ-rays treatment, stained for cell death (Dcp-1, green), DNA damage signaling (γH2Av, red)

in control (*en-Gal4, UAS-GFP*) (C), $p53^{-/-}$ mutant (D), and Xrp1 k/d in $p53^{-/-}$ mutant

background (E). (F) Quantification of Dcp-1 positive cells anterior versus posterior

compartments in $p53^{-/-}$ mutant and Xrp1 k/d in $p53^{-/-}$ mutant background. (G) γH2Av and

(H) Xrp1-HA levels 24 hours after irradiation in the posterior compartment of the wing disc

expressing $p53^{H159N}$ under the control of engrailed Gal4. *hid5'F-wt-EGFP* expression in

UAS-p53^{H159N} (I) and Xrp1 RNAi K/D (J) 24 hours after irradiation. N=15 for (A-C), and

N=8, for (E & F). Data is plotted as mean± SEM, student t-test, two-tailed for the

independent sample, was performed for statistical significance.

Genotype: (A-B) *en-Gal4::UAS-GFP*, (C) *en-Gal4::UAS-GFP; FRT82-RFP/FRT82-p53$^{[5A-}$*

$^{1-4]}$, (D) *en-Gal4::UAS-GFP; FRT82-RFP/FRT82-p53$^{[5A-1-4]}$*, (E) *en-Gal4::UAS-GFP, UAS-*

Xrp1 RNAi (VDRC 107860)*; FRT82-RFP/FRT82-p53$^{[5A-1-4]}$*, (G) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP;*

UAS-p53DN^{H159N} (Bl. 8420)*; Xrp1-HA*, (H) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP; UAS-p53DN^{H159N}* (Bl.

8420)*; Xrp1-HA*, (I) *hid5'F-wt-EGFP; en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-p53^{H159N}* (Bl. 8420)**,** and

(J) *hid5'F-wt-EGFP; en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-Xrp1 RNAi* (VDRC 107860)

Figure 6- Supplement 1: Xrp1 induction independent of p53

(A-F) Xrp1-HA expression in control disc (A), 24 hours after 1500 rads (B), *UAS-Xrp1* RNAi (C), *UAS-Irbp1* RNAi (D), *UAS-p53^{H159N}* (E), and *UAS-p53^{H159N}* in *rpS12$^{G97D/G97D}$* mutant background (F). (G) The ratio of Xrp1-positive cells in anterior (A) to posterior (P) compartments in *UAS-p53^{H159N}* and *UAS-p53^{H159N}* in *rpS12$^{G97D/G97D}$* mutant background. (H-J) Cell death measured by anti-Dcp-1 (green and grayscale) in wing imaginal discs dissected at 2 hours after 1500 Rads, measured in en-Gal4 (posterior compartment (red)) versus anterior compartment *UAS-RFP; rpS12^{G97D}* (H), and *UAS-Xrp1 RNAi; rpS12^{G97D}* (I). Dcp-1 positive cells were quantified in anterior (A) and posterior (P) compartments and plotted as the P/A ratio (J). N=7 discs for (A, B, C, E, and F), N=3 discs for (D), N=6

discs for (J-L), data is plotted as mean± SEM, and a student t-test, two-tailed for the

independent sample, was performed for statistical significance.

Genotype: (A & B) *Xrp1-HA*, (C) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP; UAS-Xrp1 RNAi* (VDRC 107860)*;*

Xrp1-HA, (D) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP; UAS-Irbp18 RNAi; Xrp1-HA*, (E) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP;*

UAS-p53DN^{H159N} (Bl. 8420)*; Xrp1-HA*, (F) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP; UAS-p53DN^{H159N}* (Bl.

8420)*; Xrp1-HA-rpS12^{G97D/G97D}* (H) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP; rpS12^{G97D/G97D}*, (I) *en-Gal4::UAS-*

RFP, UAS-Xrp1 RNAi (VDRC 107860)*; rpS12^{G97D/G97D}*

Khan et al, Figure. 6- supplement 2

Figure 6- Supplement 2: Induction of p53-independent DDR occurs around 16

hours post-irradiation

(A-E) Xrp1-HA expression in control disc (A), 16 hours after 1500 rads (B), *UAS-p53^{H159N}*

(C), *UAS-Xrp1* RNAi (D), and *UAS-Irbp1* RNAi (E). *Drosophila* III instar wing imaginal

discs dissected at 16 hours after 1500 Rads, cell death is measured by Dcp-1 (green and

grayscale) in different genetic perturbations using en-Gal4 (posterior compartment (red)),

UAS-RFP (F), *UAS-p53^{H159N}* (G), and *UAS-Xrp1* RNAi (H). Dcp-1 positive cells were

quantified and plotted as the ratio of Dcp-1 positive cells in posterior (P) to anterior (A)

compartments (I). Dcp-1 positive cells were quantified in anterior (A) and posterior (P)

compartments and plotted as the P/A ratio (I). N=10 for (F-I), data is plotted as mean$\pm$

SEM, and a student t-test, two-tailed for the independent sample, was performed for

statistical significance.

Genotype: (A & B) *Xrp1-HA*, (C) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP; UAS-p53DN^{H159N}* (Bl. 8420)*; Xrp1-*

HA, (D) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP; UAS-Irbp18 RNAi; Xrp1-HA*, and (E) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP;*

UAS-Xrp1 RNAi (VDRC 107860)*; Xrp1-HA*, (F) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP,* (G) *en-Gal4::UAS-*

RFP, UAS-p53DN^{H159N} (Bl. 8420), (H) *en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-Xrp1 RNAi* (Bl. 4521), (I)

en-Gal4::UAS-RFP, UAS-Irbp18 RNAi

Figure 7: Model

(A) Our work reinforces the conclusion that an acute, p53-dependent apoptotic response

to irradiation represents the DDR, while the later, p53-independent phase is associated

with elimination of aneuploid cells by cell competition. The p53-independent phase

depends more completely on Xrp1, whose expression at this stage is RpS12-dependent.

The cell competition response is enhanced when p53 is absent, resulting in prolonged

DNA damage and presumably an increase in aneuploidy. (B) The acute, p53-dependent

DDR acts in part through Xrp1 as a downstream transcription factor. The DDR results in

the repair of DNA damage or the removal of damaged cells by cell death. DNA repair can

introduce errors (colored) including chromosome aberrations resulting in loss of genetic

material (dashes) (C) When repair of DNA damage results in segmental aneuploidy, Xrp1

activation is triggered via an RpS12-dependent, p53-independent pathway that removes

aneuploid cells via cell competition with unaffected cells.

 Supplementary Table 1: Key Resources Table

Key Resources Table				
Reagent type (species) or resource	**Designation**	**Source or reference**	**Identifiers**	**Additional information**
gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	Xrp1		FLYBASE: FBgn0261113	
gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	irbp18		FLYBASE: FBgn0036126	
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	p53		FLYBASE: FBgn0039044	
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	rpS12		FLYBASE: FBgn0286213	
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	*Xrp1^{m2-73}*	(Lee et al., 2016)	FLYBASE: FBal0346068	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center #81270
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	*Xrp1^{02515}*	(Spradling et al., 1999)	FLYBASE: FBal0009448	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center #11569
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	*Xrp1^{attP flox}*	(Blanco et al., 2020)		Strain maintained in Dr. Nicholas Baker's lab

genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	Xrp1[HA]	(Blanco et al., 2020)		Strain maintained in Dr. Nicholas Baker's lab
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	UAS-Xrp1 (long isoform)	(Tsurui-Nishimura et al., 2013)	FLYBASE: FBal0284387	
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	*irbp18[05006]*	(Francis et al., 2016)	FLYBASE: FBal0185260	Exelisis Drosophila Collection #f05006
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	*rpS12[G97D]*		FLYBASE: FBgn0286213	Strain maintained in Dr. Nicholas Baker's lab
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	*p53[5A-1-4]*		FLYBASE: FBgn0039044	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center #6815
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	UAS-p53.H159N.Ex-2 (Chr. II)		FLYBASE: FBti0040583	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center #8420
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	UAS-p53.H159N.Ex -3 (Chr. III)		FLYBASE: FBti0040584	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center #8421
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	UAS-dsRNA[Xrp1]	(Ni et al., 2011)	FLYBASE: FBti0144696	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center #34521

genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	UAS-dsRNA^{Xr}p1		FLYBASE: FBst0479673	Vienna Drosophila Resource Center #107860
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	UAS-dsRNA^{irb}p18	(Ni et al., 2011)	FLYBASE: FBti0140125	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center #33652
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	UAS-dsRNA^{w}	(Ni et al., 2011)	FLYBASE: FBtp0064645	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center #33623
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	arm-LacZ	(Vincent et al., 1994)	FLYBASE: FBal0040819	
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	Ubi-GFP	(Davis et al., 1995)	FLYBASE: FBal0047085	
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	M(2)56F (mutating RpS18)	Laboratory of Y. Hiromi	FLYBASE: FBal0011916	
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	hs-FLP	(Struhl & Basler, 1993)	FLYBASE: FBtp0001101	
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	ey-FLP	(Newsome et al., 2000)	FLYBASE: FBal0098303	
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	GMR-gal4	(Freeman, 1996)	FLYBASE: FBtp0001315	
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	P{neoFRT}42D	(Xu & Rubin, 1993)	FLYBASE: FBti0141188	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center #1802

genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	P{neoFRT}80B	(Xu & Rubin, 1993)	FLYBASE: FBti0002073	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center #1988
genetic reagent (*D. melanogaster*)	P{neoFRT}82B	(Xu & Rubin, 1993)	FLYBASE: FBti0002074	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center #2050, 2051
Antibody	Polyclonal Rabbit anti-XRP1 (short isoform)	(Francis et al., 2016)		1:200 dilution
Antibody	Mouse anti-HA Tag monoclonal	Cell Signalling Technology	Cat #2367 RRID:AB_10691311	1:100 dilution
Antibody	Mouse anti-beta galactosidase (mAb40-1a) monoclonal	DSHB	RRID: AB_2314509	1:100 dilution
Antibody	Rabbit anti-active-Dcp1 polyclonal	Cell Signalling Technology	Cat #9578 RRID:AB_2721060	1:50 dilution
Antibody	Mouse anti-p53 (25F4) monoclonal	DSHB	RRID: AB_579787	1:20 dilution

875
876
877

REFERENCES

Akdemir, F., Christich, A., Sogame, N., Chapo, J., & Abrams, J. M. (2007). p53 directs focused genomic responses in Drosophila. *Oncogene*, *26*(36), 5184-5193. https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.onc.1210328

Allen, M. A., Andrysik, Z., Dengler, V. L., Mellert, H. S., Guarnieri, A., Freeman, J. A., Sullivan, K. D., Galbraith, M. D., Luo, X., Kraus, W. L., Dowell, R. D., & Espinosa, J. M. (2014). Global analysis of p53-regulated transcription identifies its direct targets and unexpected regulatory mechanisms. *Elife*, *3*, e02200. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.02200

Alpar, L., Bergantinos, C., & Johnston, L. A. (2018). Spatially Restricted Regulation of Spatzle/Toll Signaling during Cell Competition. *Dev Cell*, *46*(6), 706-719 e705. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.devcel.2018.08.001

Andrysik, Z., Galbraith, M. D., Guarnieri, A. L., Zaccara, S., Sullivan, K. D., Pandey, A., MacBeth, M., Inga, A., & Espinosa, J. M. (2017). Identification of a core TP53 transcriptional program with highly distributed tumor suppressive activity. *Genome Res*, *27*(10), 1645-1657. https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.220533.117

Baillon, L., Germani, F., Rockel, C., Hilchenbach, J., & Basler, K. (2018). Xrp1 is a transcription factor required for cell competition-driven elimination of loser cells. *Sci Rep*, *8*(1), 17712. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-36277-4

Baker, D. J., Jin, F., Jeganathan, K. B., & van Deursen, J. M. (2009). Whole chromosome instability caused by Bub1 insufficiency drives tumorigenesis through tumor suppressor gene loss of heterozygosity. *Cancer Cell*, *16*(6), 475-486. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ccr.2009.10.023

S1535-6108(09)00387-0 [pii]

Baker, D. J., & van Deursen, J. M. (2010). Chromosome missegregation causes colon cancer by APC loss of heterozygosity. *Cell Cycle*, *9*(9), 1711-1716. https://doi.org/10.4161/cc.9.9.11314

Baker, N. E. (2020). Emerging mechanisms of cell competition. *Nat Rev Genet*, *21*(11), 683-697. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41576-020-0262-8

Baker, N. E., & Kale, A. (2016). Mutations in ribosomal proteins: Apoptosis, cell competition, and cancer. *Mol Cell Oncol*, *3*(1), e1029065. https://doi.org/10.1080/23723556.2015.1029065

Baker, N. E., Kiparaki, M., & Khan, C. (2019). A potential link between p53, cell competition and ribosomopathy in mammals and in Drosophila. *Dev Biol*, *446*(1), 17-19. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ydbio.2018.11.018

Baker, N. E., & Montagna, C. (2022). Reducing the aneuploid cell burden - cell competition and the ribosome connection. *Dis Model Mech*, *15*(11). https://doi.org/10.1242/dmm.049673

Baslan, T., Morris, J. P. t., Zhao, Z., Reyes, J., Ho, Y. J., Tsanov, K. M., Bermeo, J., Tian, S., Zhang, S., Askan, G., Yavas, A., Lecomte, N., Erakky, A., Varghese, A. M., Zhang, A., Kendall, J., Ghiban, E., Chorbadjiev, L., Wu, J.,...Lowe, S. W. (2022). Ordered and deterministic cancer genome evolution after p53 loss. *Nature*, *608*(7924), 795-802. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-022-05082-5

Baumgartner, M. E., Dinan, M. P., Langton, P. F., Kucinski, I., & Piddini, E. (2021). Proteotoxic
stress is a driver of the loser status and cell competition. *Nat Cell Biol*, *23*(2), 136-146.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41556-020-00627-0
Blanco, J., Cooper, J. C., & Baker, N. E. (2020). Roles of C/EBP class bZip proteins in the growth
and cell competition of Rp ('Minute') mutants in Drosophila. *Elife*, *9*.
https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.50535
Bondar, T., & Medzhitov, R. (2010a). p53-mediated hematopoietic stem and progenitor cell
competition. *Cell Stem Cell*, *6*(4), 309-322. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stem.2010.03.002
Bondar, T., & Medzhitov, R. (2010b). p53-mediated hematopoietic stem and progenitor cell
competition. *Cell Stem Cell*, *6*(4), 309-322. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stem.2010.03.002
S1934-5909(10)00099-8 [pii]
Boulan, L., Andersen, D., Colombani, J., Boone, E., & Leopold, P. (2019). Inter-Organ Growth
Coordination Is Mediated by the Xrp1-Dilp8 Axis in Drosophila. *Dev Cell*, *49*(5), 811-818
e814. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.devcel.2019.03.016
Boutelle, A. M., & Attardi, L. D. (2021). p53 and Tumor Suppression: It Takes a Network. *Trends
Cell Biol*, *31*(4), 298-310. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tcb.2020.12.011
Bridges, C. B., & Morgan, T. H. (1923). The third-chromosome group of mutant characters of
Drosophila melanogaster. *Carnegie Institute Publication*, *327*, 1-251.
Brodsky, M. H., Nordstrom, W., Tsang, G., Kwan, E., Rubin, G. M., & Abrams, J. M. (2000).
Drosophila p53 binds a damage response element at the reaper locus. *Cell*, *101*(1), 103-
113. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0092-8674(00)80627-3
Brodsky, M. H., Weinert, B. T., Tsang, G., Rong, Y. S., McGinnis, N. M., Golic, K. G., Rio, D. C., &
Rubin, G. M. (2004). Drosophila melanogaster MNK/Chk2 and p53 regulate multiple
DNA repair and apoptotic pathways following DNA damage. *Mol Cell Biol*, *24*(3), 1219-
1231. http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14729967
Brown, B., Mitra, S., Roach, F. D., Vasudevan, D., & Ryoo, H. D. (2021). The transcription factor
Xrp1 is required for PERK-mediated antioxidant gene induction in Drosophila. *Elife*, *10*.
https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.74047
Bursac, S., Brdovcak, M. C., Donati, G., & Volarevic, S. (2014). Activation of the tumor
suppressor p53 upon impairment of ribosome biogenesis. *Biochim Biophys Acta*,
1842(6), 817-830. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbadis.2013.08.014
Chakravarti, A., Thirimanne, H. N., Brown, S., & Calvi, B. R. (2022). Drosophila p53 isoforms have
overlapping and distinct functions in germline genome integrity and oocyte quality
control. *Elife*, *11*. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.61389
Christophorou, M. A., Martin-Zanca, D., Soucek, L., Lawlor, E. R., Brown-Swigart, L., Verschuren,
E. W., & Evan, G. I. (2005). Temporal dissection of p53 function in vitro and in vivo. *Nat
Genet*, *37*(7), 718-726. https://doi.org/10.1038/ng1572
Christophorou, M. A., Ringshausen, I., Finch, A. J., Swigart, L. B., & Evan, G. I. (2006). The
pathological response to DNA damage does not contribute to p53-mediated tumour
suppression. *Nature*, *443*(7108), 214-217. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature05077
Chunduri, N. K., Menges, P., Zhang, X., Wieland, A., Gotsmann, V. L., Mardin, B. R., Buccitelli, C.,
Korbel, J. O., Willmund, F., Kschischo, M., Raeschle, M., & Storchova, Z. (2021). Systems
approaches identify the consequences of monosomy in somatic human cells. *Nat
Commun*, *12*(1), 5576. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-25288-x

Cruz, J., Sun, W. Y., Verbeke, A., & Hariharan, I. K. (2025). Single-cell transcriptomics of X-ray
965   irradiated Drosophila wing discs reveals heterogeneity related to cell-cycle status and
966   cell location. *bioRxiv*. https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.12.10.627868
967 Davis, I., Girdham, C. H., & O'Farrell, P. H. (1995). A nuclear GFP that marks nuclei in living
968   Drosophila embryos; maternal supply overcomes a delay in the appearance of zygotic
969   fluorescence. *Dev Biol*, *170*(2), 726-729. https://doi.org/10.1006/dbio.1995.1251
970 Dekanty, A., Barrio, L., & Milan, M. (2015). Contributions of DNA repair, cell cycle checkpoints
971   and cell death to suppressing the DNA damage-induced tumorigenic behavior of
972   Drosophila epithelial cells. *Oncogene*, *34*(8), 978-985.
973   https://doi.org/10.1038/onc.2014.42
974 Fan, Y., Lee, T. V., Xu, D., Chen, Z., Lamblin, A. F., Steller, H., & Bergmann, A. (2010). Dual roles
975   of Drosophila p53 in cell death and cell differentiation. *Cell Death Differ*, *17*(6), 912-921.
976   https://doi.org/10.1038/cdd.2009.182
977 cdd2009182 [pii]
978 Fernandez-Antoran, D., Piedrafita, G., Murai, K., Ong, S. H., Herms, A., Frezza, C., & Jones, P. H.
979   (2019). Outcompeting p53-Mutant Cells in the Normal Esophagus by Redox
980   Manipulation. *Cell Stem Cell*, *25*(3), 329-341 e326.
981   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stem.2019.06.011
982 Fischer, M. (2017). Census and evaluation of p53 target genes. *Oncogene*, *36*(28), 3943-3956.
983   https://doi.org/10.1038/onc.2016.502
984 Francis, M. J., Roche, S., Cho, M. J., Beall, E., Min, B., Panganiban, R. P., & Rio, D. C. (2016).
985   Drosophila IRBP bZIP heterodimer binds P-element DNA and affects hybrid dysgenesis.
986   *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, *113*(46), 13003-13008.
987   https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1613508113
988 Freeman, M. (1996). Reiterative use of the EGF receptor triggers differentiation of all cell types
989   in the Drosophila eye. *Cell*, *87*(4), 651-660. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0092-
990   8674(00)81385-9
991 Hanks, S., Coleman, K., Reid, S., Plaja, A., Firth, H., Fitzpatrick, D., Kidd, A., Mehes, K., Nash, R.,
992   Robin, N., Shannon, N., Tolmie, J., Swansbury, J., Irrthum, A., Douglas, J., & Rahman, N.
993   (2004). Constitutional aneuploidy and cancer predisposition caused by biallelic
994   mutations in BUB1B. *Nat Genet*, *36*(11), 1159-1161. https://doi.org/ng1449 [pii]
995 10.1038/ng1449
996 Hopkins, J. L., Lan, L., & Zou, L. (2022). DNA repair defects in cancer and therapeutic
997   opportunities. *Genes Dev*, *36*(5-6), 278-293. https://doi.org/10.1101/gad.349431.122
998 Ji, Z., Chuen, J., Kiparaki, M., & Baker, N. (2021a). Cell competition removes segmental
999   aneuploid cells from Drosophila imaginal disc-derived tissues based on ribosomal
1000   protein gene dose. *Elife*, *10*, e61172. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.61172
1001 Ji, Z., Chuen, J., Kiparaki, M., & Baker, N. (2021b). Cell competition removes segmental
1002   aneuploid cells from Drosophila imaginal disc-derived tissues based on ribosomal
1003   protein gene dose. *Elife*, *10*. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.61172
1004 Ji, Z., Kiparaki, M., Folgado, V., Kumar, A., Blanco, J., Rimesso, G., Chuen, J., Liu, Y., Zheng, D., &
1005   Baker, N. E. (2019). Drosophila RpS12 controls translation, growth, and cell competition
1006   through Xrp1. *PLoS Genet*, *15*(12), e1008513.
1007   https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1008513

Jin, S., Martinek, S., Joo, W. S., Wortman, J. R., Mirkovic, N., Sali, A., Yandell, M. D., Pavletich, N.
P., Young, M. W., & Levine, A. J. (2000). Identification and characterization of a p53
homologue in Drosophila melanogaster. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, *97*(13), 7301-7306.
https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.97.13.7301

Kaiser, A. M., & Attardi, L. D. (2018). Deconstructing networks of p53-mediated tumor
suppression in vivo. *Cell Death Differ*, *25*(1), 93-103.
https://doi.org/10.1038/cdd.2017.171

Kakemura, B., Kanda, H., Matsumoto, R., Ueda, S., Yasuhara, S., Nagata, R., Taniguchi, K.,
Kondo, S., Miyoshi, K., Kobayashi, T., Takeuchi, K., Saito, K., Matsuyama, M., Murakawa,
Y., & Igaki, T. (2025). Cellular fitness is determined by ribosomal protein S12-1
mediated release of a truncated Xrp1. *bioRxiv*, *preprint*.
https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1101/2025.10.29.685279

Kale, A., Ji, Z., Kiparaki, M., Blanco, J., Rimesso, G., Flibotte, S., & Baker, N. E. (2018). Ribosomal
Protein S12e Has a Distinct Function in Cell Competition. *Dev Cell*, *44*(1), 42-55 e44.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.devcel.2017.12.007

Kale, A., Li, W., Lee, C. H., & Baker, N. E. (2015). Apoptotic mechanisms during competition of
ribosomal protein mutant cells: roles of the initiator caspases Dronc and Dream/Strica.
Cell Death Differ, *22*(8), 1300-1312. https://doi.org/10.1038/cdd.2014.218

Kastenhuber, E. R., & Lowe, S. W. (2017). Putting p53 in Context. *Cell*, *170*(6), 1062-1078.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2017.08.028

Khan, C., Muliyil, S., Ayyub, C., & Rao, B. J. (2017). The initiator caspase Dronc plays a non-
apoptotic role in promoting DNA damage signalling in D. melanogaster. *J Cell Sci*,
130(18), 2984-2995. https://doi.org/10.1242/jcs.200782

Khandekar, A., & Ellis, S. J. (2024). An expanded view of cell competition. *Development*, *151*(22).
https://doi.org/10.1242/dev.204212

Kiparaki, M., & Baker, N. E. (2023). Ribosomal protein mutations and cell competition:
autonomous and nonautonomous effects on a stress response. *Genetics*, *224*(3).
https://doi.org/10.1093/genetics/iyad080

Kiparaki, M., Khan, C., Folgado-Marco, V., Chuen, J., Moulos, P., & Baker, N. E. (2022). The
transcription factor Xrp1 orchestrates both reduced translation and cell competition
upon defective ribosome assembly or function. *Elife*, *11*, e71705.
https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.71705

Kucinski, I., Dinan, M., Kolahgar, G., & Piddini, E. (2017). Chronic activation of JNK JAK/STAT and
oxidative stress signalling causes the loser cell status. *Nat Commun*, *8*(1), 136.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-017-00145-y

Kumar, A., & Baker, N. E. (2022). The CRL4 E3 ligase Mahjong/DCAF1 controls cell competition
through the transcription factor Xrp1, independently of polarity genes. *Development*,
149(22). https://doi.org/10.1242/dev.200795

Kurtz, P., Jones, A. E., Tiwari, B., Link, N., Wylie, A., Tracy, C., Kramer, H., & Abrams, J. M. (2019).
Drosophila p53 directs nonapoptotic programs in postmitotic tissue. *Mol Biol Cell*,
30(11), 1339-1351. https://doi.org/10.1091/mbc.E18-12-0791

Lacroix, M., Riscal, R., Arena, G., Linares, L. K., & Le Cam, L. (2020). Metabolic functions of the
tumor suppressor p53: Implications in normal physiology, metabolic disorders, and
cancer. *Mol Metab*, *33*, 2-22. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molmet.2019.10.002

Lake, C. M., Holsclaw, J. K., Bellendir, S. P., Sekelsky, J., & Hawley, R. S. (2013). The development of a monoclonal antibody recognizing the Drosophila melanogaster phosphorylated histone H2A variant (gamma-H2AV). *G3 (Bethesda)*, *3*(9), 1539-1543. https://doi.org/10.1534/g3.113.006833

Lee, C. H., Kiparaki, M., Blanco, J., Folgado, V., Ji, Z., Kumar, A., Rimesso, G., & Baker, N. E. (2018a). A Regulatory Response to Ribosomal Protein Mutations Controls Translation, Growth, and Cell Competition. *Dev Cell*, *46*(4), 456-469 e454. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.devcel.2018.07.003

Lee, C. H., Kiparaki, M., Blanco, J., Folgado, V., Ji, Z., Kumar, A., Rimesso, G., & Baker, N. E. (2018b). A Regulatory Response to Ribosomal Protein Mutations Controls Translation, Growth, and Cell Competition. *Dev Cell*, *46*(6), 807. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.devcel.2018.09.009

Lee, C. H., Rimesso, G., Reynolds, D. M., Cai, J., & Baker, N. E. (2016). Whole-Genome Sequencing and iPLEX MassARRAY Genotyping Map an EMS-Induced Mutation Affecting Cell Competition in Drosophila melanogaster. *G3 (Bethesda)*, *6*(10), 3207-3217. https://doi.org/10.1534/g3.116.029421

Levine, A. J., Hu, W., & Feng, Z. (2006). The P53 pathway: what questions remain to be explored? *Cell Death Differ*, *13*(6), 1027-1036. https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.cdd.4401910

Li, T., Kon, N., Jiang, L., Tan, M., Ludwig, T., Zhao, Y., Baer, R., & Gu, W. (2012). Tumor suppression in the absence of p53-mediated cell-cycle arrest, apoptosis, and senescence. *Cell*, *149*(6), 1269-1283. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2012.04.026

Li, W., & Baker, N. E. (2007). Engulfment is required for cell competition. *Cell*, *129*(6), 1215-1225. https://doi.org/S0092-8674(07)00535-1 [pii]
10.1016/j.cell.2007.03.054

Li, Z., Wu, C., Ding, X., Li, W., & Xue, L. (2020). Toll signaling promotes JNK-dependent apoptosis in Drosophila. *Cell Div*, *15*, 7. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13008-020-00062-5

Marusyk, A., Porter, C. C., Zaberezhnyy, V., & DeGregori, J. (2010). Irradiation selects for p53-deficient hematopoietic progenitors. *PLoS Biol*, *8*(3), e1000324. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000324

Marygold, S. J., Roote, J., Reuter, G., Lambertsson, A., Ashburner, M., Millburn, G. H., Harrison, P. M., Yu, Z., Kenmochi, N., Kaufman, T. C., Leevers, S. J., & Cook, K. R. (2007). The ribosomal protein genes and Minute loci of Drosophila melanogaster [Comparative Study
Research Support, N.I.H., Extramural
Research Support, Non-U.S. Gov't]. *Genome Biol*, *8*(10), R216. https://doi.org/10.1186/gb-2007-8-10-r216

McNamee, L. M., & Brodsky, M. H. (2009). p53-independent apoptosis limits DNA damage-induced aneuploidy. *Genetics*, *182*(2), 423-435. https://doi.org/10.1534/genetics.109.102327
genetics.109.102327 [pii]

Morata, G., & Ripoll, P. (1975). Minutes: mutants of *Drosophila* autonomously affecting cell division rate. *Developmental Biology*, *42*, 211-221.

Moreno, E., Basler, K., & Morata, G. (2002). Cells compete for decapentaplegic survival factor to prevent apoptosis in *Drosophila* wing development. *Nature*, *416*, 755-759.

Muller, P. A., & Vousden, K. H. (2014). Mutant p53 in cancer: new functions and therapeutic opportunities. *Cancer Cell*, *25*(3), 304-317. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ccr.2014.01.021

Nagata, R., & Igaki, T. (2024). Cell competition: emerging signaling and unsolved questions. *FEBS Lett*, *598*(4), 379-389. https://doi.org/10.1002/1873-3468.14822

Nemeth, E., & Szuts, D. (2024). The mutagenic consequences of defective DNA repair. *DNA Repair (Amst)*, *139*, 103694. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dnarep.2024.103694

Newsome, T. P., Asling, B., & Dickson, B. J. (2000). Analysis of Drosophila photoreceptor axon guidance in eye-specific mosaics. *Development*, *127*(4), 851-860. https://doi.org/10.1242/dev.127.4.851

Ni, J. Q., Zhou, R., Czech, B., Liu, L. P., Holderbaum, L., Yang-Zhou, D., Shim, H. S., Tao, R., Handler, D., Karpowicz, P., Binari, R., Booker, M., Brennecke, J., Perkins, L. A., Hannon, G. J., & Perrimon, N. (2011). A genome-scale shRNA resource for transgenic RNAi in Drosophila. *Nat Methods*, *8*(5), 405-407. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.1592

Ochi, N., Nakamura, M., Nagata, R., Wakasa, N., Nakano, R., & Igaki, T. (2021). Cell competition is driven by Xrp1-mediated phosphorylation of eukaryotic initiation factor 2alpha. *PLoS Genet*, *17*(12), e1009958. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1009958

Ollmann, M., Young, L. M., Di Como, C. J., Karim, F., Belvin, M., Robertson, S., Whittaker, K., Demsky, M., Fisher, W. W., Buchman, A., Duyk, G., Friedman, L., Prives, C., & Kopczynski, C. (2000). Drosophila p53 is a structural and functional homolog of the tumor suppressor p53 [Research Support, Non-U.S. Gov't

Research Support, U.S. Gov't, P.H.S.]. *Cell*, *101*(1), 91-101. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0092-8674(00)80626-1

Picco, V., & Pages, G. (2013). Linking JNK Activity to the DNA Damage Response. *Genes Cancer*, *4*(9-10), 360-368. https://doi.org/10.1177/1947601913486347

Pilley, S., Rodriguez, T. A., & Vousden, K. H. (2021). Mutant p53 in cell-cell interactions. *Genes Dev*, *35*(7-8), 433-448. https://doi.org/10.1101/gad.347542.120

Potiri, M., Tsakiri, E., Kontogiannidi, K., Loizou, M., Skoulakis, E. M. C., Samiotaki, M., Kafasla, P., & Kiparaki, M. (2025). RPS12-mediated induction of the Xrp1-short isoform links ribosomal protein mutations to cell competition. *bioRxiv*, *https://doi.org/10.1101/2025.06.15.659587*. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1101/2025.06.15.659587

Recasens-Alvarez, C., Alexandre, C., Kirkpatrick, J., Nojima, H., Huels, D. J., Snijders, A. P., & Vincent, J. P. (2021). Ribosomopathy-associated mutations cause proteotoxic stress that is alleviated by TOR inhibition. *Nat Cell Biol*, *23*(2), 127-135. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41556-020-00626-1

Reinke, A. W., Baek, J., Ashenberg, O., & Keating, A. E. (2013). Networks of bZIP protein-protein interactions diversified over a billion years of evolution. *Science*, *340*(6133), 730-734. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1233465

Riley, T., Sontag, E., Chen, P., & Levine, A. (2008). Transcriptional control of human p53-regulated genes. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol*, *9*(5), 402-412. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrm2395

Rohr, C. O., Parra, R. G., Yankilevich, P., & Perez-Castro, C. (2013). INSECT: IN-silico SEarch for Co-occurring Transcription factors. *Bioinformatics*, *29*(22), 2852-2858. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btt506

Ruiz-Losada, M., Gonzalez, R., Peropadre, A., Gil-Galvez, A., Tena, J. J., Baonza, A., & Estella, C. (2022). Coordination between cell proliferation and apoptosis after DNA damage in Drosophila. *Cell Death Differ*, *29*(4), 832-845. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41418-021-00898-6

Sanchez, J. A., Mesquita, D., Ingaramo, M. C., Ariel, F., Milan, M., & Dekanty, A. (2019). Eiger/TNFalpha-mediated Dilp8 and ROS production coordinate intra-organ growth in Drosophila. *PLoS Genet*, *15*(8), e1008133. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1008133

Shekhar, S., Tracy, C., Lidsky, P. V., Andino, R., Wert, K. J., & Kramer, H. (2025). Sensory quiescence induces a cell-non-autonomous integrated stress response curbed by condensate formation of the ATF4 and XRP1 effectors. *Nat Commun*, *16*(1), 252. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-024-55576-1

Simpson, P. (1979). Parameters of cell competition in the compartments of the wing disc of *Drosophila*. *Developmental Biology*, *69*, 182-193.

Singla, S., Iwamoto-Stohl, L. K., Zhu, M., & Zernicka-Goetz, M. (2020). Autophagy-mediated apoptosis eliminates aneuploid cells in a mouse model of chromosome mosaicism. *Nat Commun*, *11*(1), 2958. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-16796-3

Spradling, A. C., Stern, D., Beaton, A., Rhem, E. J., Laverty, T., Mozden, N., Misra, S., & Rubin, G. M. (1999). The Berkeley Drosophila Genome Project gene disruption project: Single P-element insertions mutating 25% of vital Drosophila genes. *Genetics*, *153*(1), 135-177. https://doi.org/10.1093/genetics/153.1.135

Struhl, G., & Basler, K. (1993). Organizing activity of wingless protein in Drosophila. *Cell*, *72*(4), 527-540. https://doi.org/10.1016/0092-8674(93)90072-x

Sykiotis, G. P., & Bohmann, D. (2008). Keap1/Nrf2 signaling regulates oxidative stress tolerance and lifespan in Drosophila. *Dev Cell*, *14*(1), 76-85. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.devcel.2007.12.002

Tanaka-Matakatsu, M., Xu, J., Cheng, L., & Du, W. (2009). Regulation of apoptosis of rbf mutant cells during Drosophila development. *Dev Biol*, *326*(2), 347-356. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ydbio.2008.11.035

Titen, S. W., & Golic, K. G. (2008). Telomere loss provokes multiple pathways to apoptosis and produces genomic instability in Drosophila melanogaster. *Genetics*, *180*(4), 1821-1832. https://doi.org/10.1534/genetics.108.093625

genetics.108.093625 [pii]

Tiwari, V., & Wilson, D. M., 3rd. (2019). DNA Damage and Associated DNA Repair Defects in Disease and Premature Aging. *Am J Hum Genet*, *105*(2), 237-257. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2019.06.005

Tsurui-Nishimura, N., Nguyen, T. Q., Katsuyama, T., Minami, T., Furuhashi, H., Oshima, Y., & Kurata, S. (2013). Ectopic antenna induction by overexpression of CG17836/Xrp1 encoding an AT-hook DNA binding motif protein in Drosophila [Research Support, Non-U.S. Gov't]. *Biosci Biotechnol Biochem*, *77*(2), 339-344. https://doi.org/10.1271/bbb.120756

Vijg, J. (2021). From DNA damage to mutations: All roads lead to aging. *Ageing Res Rev*, *68*, 101316. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.arr.2021.101316

Vincent, J. P., Girdham, C. H., & O'Farrell, P. H. (1994). A cell-autonomous, ubiquitous marker
for the analysis of Drosophila genetic mosaics. *Dev Biol*, *164*(1), 328-331.
https://doi.org/10.1006/dbio.1994.1203
Wagstaff, L., Goschorska, M., Kozyrska, K., Duclos, G., Kucinski, I., Chessel, A., Hampton-O'Neil,
L., Bradshaw, C. R., Allen, G. E., Rawlins, E. L., Silberzan, P., Carazo Salas, R. E., & Piddini,
E. (2016). Mechanical cell competition kills cells via induction of lethal p53 levels. *Nat*
Commun, *7*, 11373. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms11373
Wei, C. L., Wu, Q., Vega, V. B., Chiu, K. P., Ng, P., Zhang, T., Shahab, A., Yong, H. C., Fu, Y., Weng,
Z., Liu, J., Zhao, X. D., Chew, J. L., Lee, Y. L., Kuznetsov, V. A., Sung, W. K., Miller, L. D.,
Lim, B., Liu, E. T.,…Ruan, Y. (2006). A global map of p53 transcription-factor binding sites
in the human genome. *Cell*, *124*(1), 207-219. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2005.10.043
Wells, B. S., Yoshida, E., & Johnston, L. A. (2006). Compensatory proliferation in Drosophila
imaginal discs requires Dronc-dependent p53 activity. *Curr Biol*, *16*(16), 1606-1615.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2006.07.046
Wichmann, A., Jaklevic, B., & Su, T. T. (2006). Ionizing radiation induces caspase-dependent but
Chk2- and p53-independent cell death in Drosophila melanogaster. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U*
S A, *103*(26), 9952-9957. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0510528103
Wichmann, A., Uyetake, L., & Su, T. T. (2010). E2F1 and E2F2 have opposite effects on radiation-
induced p53-independent apoptosis in Drosophila. *Dev Biol*, *346*(1), 80-89.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ydbio.2010.07.023
Williams, A. B., & Schumacher, B. (2016). p53 in the DNA-Damage-Repair Process. *Cold Spring*
Harb Perspect Med, *6*(5). https://doi.org/10.1101/cshperspect.a026070
Xu, T., & Rubin, G. M. (1993). Analysis of genetic mosaics in developing and adult Drosophila
tissues. *Development*, *117*(4), 1223-1237. https://doi.org/10.1242/dev.117.4.1223
Zhang, B., Mehrotra, S., Ng, W. L., & Calvi, B. R. (2014). Low levels of p53 protein and chromatin
silencing of p53 target genes repress apoptosis in Drosophila endocycling cells. *PLoS*
Genet, *10*(9), e1004581. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1004581
Zhang, G., Xie, Y., Zhou, Y., Xiang, C., Chen, L., Zhang, C., Hou, X., Chen, J., Zong, H., & Liu, G.
(2017). p53 pathway is involved in cell competition during mouse embryogenesis. *Proc*
Natl Acad Sci U S A, *114*(3), 498-503. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1617414114
Zhang, X. P., Liu, F., & Wang, W. (2011). Two-phase dynamics of p53 in the DNA damage
response. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, *108*(22), 8990-8995.
https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1100600108
Zhu, L. J., Christensen, R. G., Kazemian, M., Hull, C. J., Enuameh, M. S., Basciotta, M. D.,
Brasefield, J. A., Zhu, C., Asriyan, Y., Lapointe, D. S., Sinha, S., Wolfe, S. A., & Brodsky, M.
H. (2011). FlyFactorSurvey: a database of Drosophila transcription factor binding
specificities determined using the bacterial one-hybrid system. *Nucleic Acids Res*,
39(Database issue), D111-117. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkq858
1220