DNA damage signaling in *Drosophila* macrophages modulates systemic cytokine levels in response
to oxidative stress

Authors: Fabian Hersperger[1,2], Tim Meyring[1], Pia Weber[1], Chintan Chhatbar[1], Gianni Monaco[1,3], Marc
S. Dionne[4,5], Katrin Paeschke[6,7], Marco Prinz[1,8,9], Olaf Groß[1,8,9], Anne-Kathrin Classen[10,11] & Katrin
Kierdorf[1,8,11#]

[1] Institute of Neuropathology, Faculty of Medicine, Medical Center, University of Freiburg, Freiburg,
Germany

[2] Faculty of Biology, University of Freiburg, Freiburg, Germany

[3] Institute for Transfusion Medicine and Gene Therapy, Medical Center-University of Freiburg,
Freiburg, Germany

[4] MRC Centre for Molecular Bacteriology and Infection, Imperial College London, London, United
Kingdom

[5] Department of Life Sciences, Imperial College London, London, United Kingdom

[6] Department of Oncology, Haematology and Rheumatology, University Hospital Bonn, Venusberg-
Campus 1, Bonn, Germany

[7] Institute of Clinical Chemistry and Clinical Pharmacology, University Hospital Bonn, Bonn, Germany

[8] Center for Basics in NeuroModulation (NeuroModulBasics), Faculty of Medicine, University of
Freiburg, Freiburg, Germany

[9] Signalling Research Centres BIOSS and CIBSS, University of Freiburg, Freiburg, Germany

[10] Hilde-Mangold-Haus, Faculty of Biology, University of Freiburg, Freiburg, Germany

[11] CIBSS-Centre for Integrative Biological Signalling Studies, University of Freiburg, Freiburg, Germany

#corresponding author: katrin.kierdorf@uniklinik-freiburg.de

Summary

Environmental factors, infection, or injury can cause oxidative stress in diverse tissues and loss of tissue
homeostasis. Effective stress response cascades, conserved from invertebrates to mammals, ensure
reestablishment of homeostasis and tissue repair. Hemocytes, the *Drosophila* blood-like cells, rapidly
respond to oxidative stress by immune activation. However, the precise signals how they sense
oxidative stress and integrate these signals to modulate and balance the response to oxidative stress
in the adult fly are ill-defined. Furthermore, hemocyte diversification was not explored yet on oxidative
stress. Here, we employed high throughput single nuclei RNA-sequencing to explore hemocytes and
other cell types, such as fat body, during oxidative stress in the adult fly. We identified distinct cellular
responder states in plasmatocytes, the *Drosophila* macrophages, associated with immune response
and metabolic activation upon oxidative stress. We further define oxidative stress-induced DNA

damage signaling as a key sensor and a rate-limiting step in immune-activated plasmatocytes
controlling JNK-mediated release of the pro-inflammatory cytokine *unpaired-3*. We subsequently
tested the role of this specific immune activated cell stage during oxidative stress and found that
inhibition of DNA damage signaling in plasmatocytes, as well as JNK or upd3 overactivation, result in a
higher susceptibility to oxidative stress. Our findings uncover that a balanced composition and
response of hemocyte subclusters is essential for the survival of adult *Drosophila* on oxidative stress
by regulating systemic cytokine levels and cross-talk to other organs, such as the fat body, to control
energy mobilization.

Keywords: hemocytes; plasmatocytes; *Drosophila* macrophages; oxidative stress; macrophage-
derived cytokines; DNA damage; unpaired-3

Introduction

Metazoan organisms must constantly adapt to the surrounding environment. Environmental factors,
including radiation, pathogens or toxins, permanently lead to the generation of reactive oxygen species
(ROS)[1]. In vertebrates and invertebrates, low levels of ROS support cellular pathways like immune cell
differentiation and even immune function including antimicrobial defense[2,3]. At high concentrations,
ROS lead to oxidative stress, a deleterious process that negatively impacts protein synthesis and
stability, lipid metabolism as well as overall genome stability. ROS mediated cellular damage can
further result in degenerative diseases or cancer[4]. Therefore, metazoan organisms employ efficient
repair and defense mechanisms to circumvent high levels of oxidative stress and subsequent organ
damage. Hence, keeping the balance between the production and the antioxidant-dependent
clearance of ROS is essential for the survival and well-being of the affected organism[5]. Oxidative stress
induced tissue damage is most often followed by a strong local immune response. These molecular
processes are conserved across vertebrates and invertebrates such as the fruit fly *Drosophila*
melanogaster[6].

Hemocytes, the *Drosophila* blood cells, are essential cellular components of the immune and stress
response machinery. They consist of three different subtypes: crystal cells, lamellocytes and
plasmatocytes[7]. Plasmatocytes are considered to be macrophage equivalents in *Drosophila* and
comprise up to 95 % of all hemocytes in the adult fly[8]. They share many functions as well as the
multilayered ontogeny with vertebrate tissue macrophages[9,10]. Adult plasmatocytes are actively
involved in many immune functions such as pathogen recognition, defense and phagocytosis but also
chronic immune activation upon metabolic stress by dietary lipids[11,12]. Recent studies highlighted the
essential role of adult plasmatocytes as key players in regulation of tissue homeostasis, including the
gut by regulating the intestinal stem cell niche or in muscles by controlling glucose homeostasis[13,14].

Similar to higher eukaryotes, levels of ROS are used as a central antimicrobial defense mechanism of hemocytes against invading pathogens[15]. Moreover, larval hemocytes respond differentially to ROS, with two cell subsets mounting a biphasic immune reaction to invading bacteria by controlling hemocyte spreading and adhesion as well as crystal cell rupture[15]. Larval hemocytes have been also attributed to respond to increased oxidative stress of other tissues, as seen in response to oxidative stress in the eye-antenna imaginal disc[16]. Similarly, by regulating the intestinal stem cell (ISC) proliferation in the damaged midgut during infection-induced or chemical-induced oxidative stress[14], adult hemocytes were described to release the bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) homologue *decapentaplegic* (*dpp*) to facilitate tissue repair[14]. Other studies pointed to an essential role of hemocyte-derived *unpaired-3* (*upd3*), which is the *Drosophila* orthologue of Interleukin-6, in the regulation of ISC proliferation during septic injury[17], as well as wound healing during sterile injury[18]. In line with these findings, hemocytes have been implicated in organ-to-organ immune signaling for example upon infection-induced injury in the gut and antimicrobial peptide (AMP) production in the fat body[19]. Hemocyte activation is thus a hallmark of oxidative stress in defined tissues, though their role in modulating and controlling oxidative stress response to facilitate tissue repair and survival of the organism remains undefined.

Here, we demonstrate an essential role of hemocytes to control susceptibility to oxidative stress, where hemocytes orchestrate systemic oxidative stress response by defined cellular states identified by unbiased transcriptomic profiling. Plasmatocytes segregate in oxidative stress responder subclusters, characterized by immune activation and cellular stress response, and potential bystander subsets associated with metabolic gene regulations. Mechanistically, we unravel that the direct immune response to oxidative stress by plasmatocytes is driven by c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK) and Jak/STAT pathway activation with subsequent induction of the pro-inflammatory cytokine *upd3*. This inflammatory cascade is to a certain amount regulated by DNA damage signaling in plasmatocytes and essentially defines the susceptibility of the fly to oxidative stress. Deficiencies in the DNA damage signaling machinery in plasmatocytes lead to elevated JNK activation, cytokine release and subsequently a higher susceptibility of the adult fly to oxidative stress. Hence, our data point to a key role of plasmatocytes in balancing systemic cytokine levels and stress response upon oxidative stress. Collectively we provide new insights on the role of macrophages in orchestrating systemic stress responses in other tissues and to balance tissue wasting and energy mobilization.

Results

Hemocytes control susceptibility to oxidative stress

In vertebrates and invertebrates, prolonged oxidative stress can cause severe tissue damage, hence

controlled activation of stress signaling cascades are essential for the survival of the organism and the

resolution of oxidative stress with subsequent tissue repair. Yet the precise role of macrophages in the

initiation and control of oxidative stress signaling needs to be determined.

To analyze the role of macrophages in signaling cascades to oxidative stress, we took advantage of the

well-established Paraquat (PQ)-feeding model in adult *Drosophila melanogaster* to induce systemic

oxidative stress[20]. Feeding of 7-days old *w;Hml-Gal4,UAS-2xeGFP/+* (*Hml/+*) flies with PQ-

supplemented sucrose solution led to an increased lethality of adult *Drosophila* after 18 hours in a

dose dependent manner (0mM: 1.25 ± 1.25 %, 2mM: 2.5 ± 1.6 4%, 15mM: 27.78 ± 5.47 %, and 30mM:

38.75 ± 6.67 %) (Figure S1A). In agreement with previous studies[20], 15mM PQ was chosen for further

experiments (Figure 1A). First, we determined which systemic changes are associated with

susceptibility to oxidative stress. Infection induced damage in enterocytes can result in gut leakage and

subsequent death[17]. We tested if the death of flies after 18 hours on 15mM PQ food was associated

with PQ-induced damage of gut enterocytes and resulting gut leakage, but we found no indication of

gut leakage on 15mM PQ food (Figure S1B). Only very few flies on control food and PQ indicated gut

leakage of the food color to thorax and abdomen which was unrelated to the treatment and not altered

between the groups (control: 3.75%, 2mM PQ: 2.53 %, 15mM PQ: 1.11 % and 30mM PQ: 3.75 %)

(Figure S1B). We investigated if aberrant systemic induction of immune signaling cascades are seen

upon PQ-mediated oxidative stress. For this, gene expression levels of different known immune

activated genes were analyzed by qPCR such as *unpaired* (*upd*) cytokines (*upd1*, *upd2*, *upd3*), *Jak/STAT*

down-stream targets (*Turandot-A* (*TotA*), *suppressor of cytokine signaling at 36E* (*Socs36E*)), stress

induced JNK activation (*puckered* (*puc*)) (Figure 1B), as well as expression of *nuclear factor 'kappa-light-

chain-enhancer' of activated B-cells* (*Nfkb*)-induced antimicrobial peptides (AMP) and further cytokines

such as *eiger*, *dpp* and *dawdle* (*daw*) (Figure S1C-D). These analyses did not reveal significant

differences for these gene groups on a systemic level. In contrast, genes associated with carbohydrate

metabolism such as *insulin receptor* (*InR*), *phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase* (*Pepck*), and *Thor* were

significantly upregulated upon PQ-feeding (Figure 1C). These findings point to an activation of *forkhead

box, sub-group O* (*foxo)*-target genes and a potentially reduced insulin signaling, despite the lack of

significant alterations in the expression of the Insulin-like peptides (*Ilps*) *Ilp2*, *Ilp3* and *Ilp5* (Figure 1C).

To test the consequences for energy mobilization and nutrient storage, we measured free glucose

content, as well as glycogen and triglyceride levels in whole flies after 18 hrs on control or 15mM PQ.

Although no changes in free glucose levels (control: 1.49±0.02μg and PQ: 1.50±0.07μg, ns p=0.954)

(Figure 1D) were found, we observed a clear decrease in stored glycogen (control: 1.02±0.07μg and

PQ: 0.33±0.08μg, **p=0.003*) (Figure 1E) and stored triglycerides (Figure 1F) in PQ-treated flies

compared to control. Next, we examined histological sections of flies to define which tissues might be

affected. Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and Oil Red O (ORO) stainings showed a shrinkage in fat body

cell size and stored lipid-filled vesicles in the abdominal fat body compared to flies kept under control

conditions (Figure S1E-F). Fat body development, energy mobilization and storage have been recently

connected to the presence, cell number and subsequent cross-talk of hemocytes with fat body[21],

therefore we quantified GFP+ hemocytes in *Hml/+* flies after 18 hrs on PQ or control food (Figure 1G-

H). Our analysis did not reveal alterations in hemocyte numbers and especially no oxidative stress

induced loss of hemocytes (control: 243.4±24.33 hemocytes per fly and PQ: 219.6±24.22 hemocytes

per fly, ns *p=0.508*) (Figure 1G-H). To evaluate if hemocytes are essential contributors to the stress-

mediated metabolic changes and susceptibility to oxidative stress, we used "hemocyte-deficient" *crq-*

Gal80ts>reaper (*w;tub-Gal80ts/UAS-CD8-mCherry;crq-Gal4/UAS-reaper*) flies and tested their survival

rate compared to control flies on PQ food (Figure 1I). Hemocyte-deficient flies displayed a significantly

higher mortality rate on 15mM PQ (43.33±6.30%) compared to control flies (13.08±2.63%) (Figure 1I).

Next, we analyzed triglycerides, as well as free glucose and glycogen levels in whole flies after 18 hrs

on control or 15mM PQ. Interestingly, we found that hemocyte-deficient flies compared to the control

genotype mobilized less triglycerides from the fat body during oxidative stress (Figure 1J). When we

looked into free glucose levels, we found that these flies show a decrease in free glucose upon PQ

feeding, whereas the control genotype showed similar free glucose levels as on normal food (Figure

1K). In contrast we did not detect any difference in glycogen levels between the two genotypes on

control food and on PQ food (Figure 1L). Our findings show detrimental changes in energy mobilization

upon oxidative stress in the absence of profound systemic overactivation of immune signaling

cascades, however the presence or absence of hemocytes seem to be a key determinant of the

susceptibility to oxidative stress and results in altered energy mobilization in adult *Drosophila*. This

strongly points to an essential role for hemocytes in controlling stress response and organismal survival

upon oxidative stress.

Paraquat exposure generates diverse transcriptional states of adult hemocytes with a specific cell

state associated with oxidative stress response

To gain further insights into the alterations induced in the adult fly upon oxidative stress and especially

to the hemocyte compartment, we decided to take advantage of unbiased single nucleus RNA-

sequencing (snRNA-seq). We isolated nuclei from control food and PQ-treated *Hml-DsRed.nuc* flies

with a modified Frankenstein protocol[22] and performed fluorescence activated nuclear sorting of

DAPI+Draq7+ nuclei (Figure S2A). From two independent sorts we obtained a total of 29000 nuclei

which were utilized for subsequent droplet-based barcoding of single nuclei, and generation of single

nucleus cDNA libraries. We could successfully obtain gene expression data from 11839 nuclei (Figure

S2B-D). Quality control analysis followed by unsupervised hierarchical clustering of all analyzed nuclei

using Seurat package[23] revealed 20 distinct nuclei clusters (C) with differential gene expression (Figure

2A). Cell identity was annotated according to the cell type-specific signatures determined by the Fly

Cell Atlas consortium (Figure 2A)[24]. All annotated cell types were detected in PQ-treated and control

flies (Figure 2B).

Using cell type-specific signatures, three of the clusters were annotated as hemocytes (clusters: 2, 11

and 14) (Figure 2A-B). Re-scaling and clustering of all 1354 identified hemocyte nuclei revealed 8

distinct clusters (Figure 2C). We verified hemocyte-specific signature genes across these clusters

including genes such as the transcription factor *Serpent* (*Srp*) and one or more of the following

hemocyte signature genes: *Hemolectin* (*Hml*), *croquemort* (*crq*), *Nimrod C1* (*NimC1*), *eater,* and

Peroxidasin (*Pxn*) (Figure S3A-L)[25,26]. Cluster 8 expressed various crystal cell-specific markers including

lozenge (*lz*), *pebbled* (*peb*), *prophenoloxidase 1* (*PPO1*), and *prophenoloxidase 2* (*PPO2*), whereas all

other clusters seemed to be plasmatocytes (Figure S3A-L). In line with previous reports, the embryonic

and larval hemocyte markers *Hemese* (*He*) (data not shown) and *singed (sn)* were not expressed across

any of the identified clusters (Figure S3H). Interestingly, when we defined which hemocyte clusters

were enriched in control flies or PQ-treated flies, the two plasmatocyte clusters C1 and C7 were

primarily derived from control flies, whereas C2, C3, C4 and C6 are predominantly found in PQ-treated

flies (Figure 2D and Figure S3M). The plasmatocyte cluster C5 as well as the crystal cell cluster C8

presented in both conditions to similar proportions (Figure 2D and Figure S3M).

Next, we analyzed the TOP20 differentially expressed (DE) genes across all hemocyte clusters. We

found clear differences between the 7 distinct plasmatocyte clusters and the crystal cell cluster (Figure

2E and Table S1). The crystal cell cluster C8 showed a high expression of crystal cell specific genes

including *lz*, *peb*, *PPO1* and *PPO2* (Figure 2E). Plasmatocyte cluster C1, which was mostly present in

control conditions, had a remarkable expression of hemocyte specific marker genes such as *Hml* and

Pxn, as well as migration-associated genes including the semaphorins *Sema2a and Sema5c* (Figure 2E).

Yet this cluster also showed higher expression of genes contributing to metabolic regulations such as

the L-gulonate 3-dehydrogenase *Had2* and the gluconolactonase *regucalcin* (Figure 2E). The cluster C7

and C1, mostly found in control flies, substantially shared gene expression profiles. In contrast, cluster

C2 and C3 were nearly exclusively found in PQ-treated flies and showed expression of genes involved

in metabolic adaptations. Due to this finding we verified that these cell clusters are *bona fide*

hemocytes and not fat body cells. We analyzed the expression of characteristic fat body signature

genes, such as *Trehalose-6-phosphate synthase 1* (*Tps1*), *CG16758*, *CG2233*, *CG4716*, *Ultrabithorax*

(*Ubx*), *Calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase I* (*CaMKI*), *Desaturase 1* (*Desat1*), *Phosphoribosyl*

pyrophosphate synthetase (*Prps*), *CG34166* and *Apolipoprotein lipid transfer particle* (*Apoltp*) across all

identified hemocyte clusters (Figure S4A). Metabolic adaptation within these clusters included high

expression of the *glucose transporter 4 enhancer factor* (*Glut4EF*) or the *phosphatidate phosphatase*

Lipin (*Lpin*) in C2 or the induced expression of the lipase *brummer* (*bmm*), the autophagy-associated

gene *Atg17* or the *lipophorin receptor LpR1*, involved in uptake of neutral lipids from the hemolymph,

in C3 (Figure 2E). Overall gene expression profiles in clusters C2 and C3 showed an induction of insulin

signaling, increased autophagy and lipolysis pointing to adaptation of energy mobilization in these

clusters upon PQ treatment (Figure 2E). Cluster C4 was characterized by a remarkable upregulation of

genes involved in translation including many ribosomal proteins such as *RpL8*, *RpL31* or *RpS13* (Figure

2E). Furthermore, C4 included genes associated with unsaturated fatty acid metabolism such as

Desaturase 1 (Desat1). Similarly, cluster C5 also showed induction of genes involved in fatty acid

metabolism such as *ELOVL fatty acid elongase 7* (*ELOVL*) (Figure 2E). Of note, we also found *Tie-like*

receptor tyrosine kinase (*Tie*) specifically expressed in this cluster, which is described to bind PDGF-

and VEGF-related factor (Pvf) ligands and contribute to cell survival and migration, as well as actin-

associated binding proteins including *polychaetoid* (*pyd*) and *formin 3* (*form3*). All these gene

expression changes are pointing to a plasmatocyte cluster with a gene expression profile associated

with mobility and migration. Among all plasmatocyte clusters, we found cluster C6 which presented a

strong immune activation phenotype with induction of *Jak/STAT* target genes including *Fasciclin 3*

(*Fas3*) and *Turandot-M* (*TotM*) among its TOP20 DE genes, but also activation of oxidative stress

response genes such as the heat shock proteins *Hsp23*, *Hsp26* and *Hsp27* or cytoskeletal genes

including *myosin Myo31DF* or *spire* (*spir*) (Figure 2E).

Due to the partially shared expression profile of genes across hemocyte clusters, we wondered if there

were genes exclusively expressed in individual clusters. However, cluster C1 showed that *Sema2a*

seems to be exceptionally high expressed in these homeostatic plasmatocytes and genes associated

with metabolic regulation (e.g. *InR*, *Lpin* or *bmm*) or Jak/STAT activation (e.g. *Fas3*), as seen in PQ-

associated clusters, are downregulated (Figure 2F). Cluster C5 showed enrichment for genes such as

the transcription factor *grainy head* (*grh*) but also cytoskeletal-associated genes such as *jitterbug* (*jbug*)

and *form3*, suggesting a migratory potential of plasmatocytes from this cluster within their host tissues

(Figure 2F). Interestingly, plasmatocyte cluster C6 presented with the most profound gene expression

changes compared to all other clusters. Similar to our previous observations, we identified that genes

specifically expressed in this cluster were associated with Jak/STAT pathway activation (e.g. *Fas3*,

TotM), cytoskeletal rearrangements and migration (e.g. *Myo31DF*, *spir* or *cheerio* (*cher*)) and response

to oxidative stress (e.g. *Nicotinamide amidase* (*Naam*) or *Hsp23*) (Figure 2F). We also included the

crystal cell cluster C8 in this analysis and verified unique expression of crystal cell markers compared

to the seven plasmatocyte clusters (Figure 2F). Our snRNA-seq analysis revealed that adult hemocytes

respond differentially to oxidative stress with a specific cluster of plasmatocytes associated with

immune activation and stress response. Despite our findings that on systemic level we did not detect

a strong induction of immune activation upon oxidative stress, we now provide evidence that
plasmatocyte cluster C6 showed a substantial immune response towards oxidative stress.

Direct response to oxidative stress *in vitro* mimics the transcriptional changes seen in cluster C6
plasmatocytes *in vivo*.

Plasmatocytes responded to PQ-mediated oxidative stress in different cellular states. We defined
cluster C6 as a cell state which is associated with oxidative stress response and immune activation.
Since cluster C6 showed gene expression associated with oxidative stress and immune activation we
focused our further analysis on this cluster. To further substantiate our findings and address the
signaling pathways that could lead to diverse transcriptional states, we inferred the transcription factor
(TF) network based on gene expression data (Figure 3A). This analysis revealed that genes with binding
sites for *Xbp1* were enriched. *Xbp1* is a transcription factor associated with stress response. In addition
to this, the Nf-κB-related transcription factor *Relish* (*Rel*) and *kayak* (*kay*), a component of the *activator*
protein-1 (*AP-1*) transcription factor complex induced by JNK signaling, were also enriched in this
cluster (Figure 3A). To determine if the gene expression signature of cluster C6 plasmatocytes reflects
a functional state of plasmatocytes directly induced by oxidative stress, we treated S2 cells, a
Drosophila plasmatocyte cell line, with different concentrations of PQ (15mM and 30mM) *in vitro*
(Figure S5). First, we performed flow cytometric analysis of ROS levels via CellROX staining after 6 and
24 hours PQ treatment compared to controls (Figure S5A-B). We observed a dose-dependent increase
in intracellular ROS at all time points analyzed with higher ROS levels at 6 hrs (0mM: 1903±64 median
fluorescence intensity (MFI), 15mM: 6735±1096 MFI, and 30mM: 7435±237 MFI) compared to 24 hrs
(0mM: 1236±135 MFI, 15mM: 4456±228 MFI, and 30mM: 5557±303 MFI) (Figure S5C). Increase in ROS
and oxidative stress can lead to cellular damage such as damage in nuclear and mitochondrial DNA.

We next tested if plasmatocytes directly exposed to oxidative stress might also experience this type of
stress response by performing comet assays of treated and untreated S2 cells. Upon PQ treatment, S2
cells showed a remarkable and dose-dependent increase in DNA damage compared to untreated cells
(0mM: 101.0±2.1, 5mM: 117.6±3.3, 10mM: 136.6±3.8, and 15mM: 147.8±5.5, data shown as olive tail
moment) (Figure S5D). We were then wondering if PQ-treated S2 cells would resemble cluster C6
plasmatocytes *in vivo* and performed gene expression analysis of S2 cells treated with 15mM PQ after
6 and 24 hrs. Comparable to our results for cluster C6 *in vivo*, we found a profound induction of the
Jak/STAT target genes by qRT-PCR. In S2 cells, we also detected a significant increase of the Jak/STAT
cytokines *upd1*, *upd2* and *upd3* (Figure S5E), which we did not see before *in vivo*. Furthermore, we
detected an increased expression of the JNK-target gene *puckered* (*puc*), but barely any induction of
metabolic genes (Figure S5E). All these results further support our hypothesis that direct exposure of

S2 cells with PQ *in vitro* mimics gene expression changes seen in a particular activated cell stage of
plasmatocytes upon oxidative stress *in vivo*.

Because we found enrichment of genes associated with the Nf-κB-related transcription factor *Rel* in
the immune-activated plasmatocyte cluster C6, we further verified if any other cytokines or AMPs are
induced in PQ-treated S2 cells. We identified a slight but significant induction of the cytokine *daw*, but
no other alterations in *dpp* or the AMPs *Drs*, *Dro* or *Mtk* (Figure S5F). The profound induction of
Jak/STAT target genes together with the activation of JNK target genes and oxidative stress induced
DNA damage in S2 cells *in vitro* highly support our hypothesis that cluster C6 plasmatocytes reflect a
cellular state associated with the direct response to oxidative stress *in vivo*. Along this line, we went
back to our snRNA-seq data and specifically searched for Jak/STAT target genes (*upd3*, *Socs36E*, *TotA*,
TotM and *Fas3*) across all clusters (Figure 3B). Here we identified an enriched expression of these genes
in cluster C6, and a unique expression of the pro-inflammatory cytokine *upd3* in cluster C6 which was
not detected in any other hemocyte cluster (Figure 3B). Of note, we did not detect elevated *upd3* levels
in gene expression profiling of whole flies (Figure 1B), but now unraveled elevated *upd3* induction in
the particular hemocyte cell cluster C6 upon PQ treatment. Interestingly, we also identified that
Growth arrest and DNA damage-inducible 45 (*Gadd45*), a gene linking DNA damage signaling and stress
induced JNK signaling, was enriched in plasmatocyte cluster C6 (Figure 3B). This could indicate that
plasmatocytes within cluster C6 undergo oxidative stress mediated DNA damage, which results in
activation of the DNA damage repair machinery but also JNK activation, similar to what we have seen
in S2 cells *in vitro*. However within our snRNA-seq analysis, the JNK target gene *puc* was expressed
across all hemocyte clusters analyzed *in vivo* without a specific induction in cluster C6 (Figure 3B). We
looked again into the expression of metabolic genes including *Thor* and *InR* as well as other cytokines
such as *dpp*, *daw* or *egr* but could not detect a specific enrichment in cluster C6 similar to our results
from PQ-treated S2 cells *in vitro* (Figure 3B). These findings from the snRNA-seq analysis *in vivo* and S2
cells *in vitro* support the hypothesis that cluster C6 plasmatocytes represent a functional state of
activated plasmatocytes directly responding to oxidative stress by JNK signaling and Jak/STAT pathway
activation. Furthermore, we found evidence that cluster C6 specifically expresses the cytokine *upd3*,
which could reflect an important mediator for oxidative stress response.

Oxidative stress induces distinct cell states in the fat body, including the induction of a Jak/STAT
responsive and the loss of an AMP-producing cell cluster.

The diversification of plasmatocytes during oxidative stress and the defined cytokine producing
immune-activated cell cluster C6 could play a key role in immune response to oxidative stress and also
for interorgan communication. To further explore this hypothesis, we aimed to gain further insights
into single-cell transcriptomic profiles of the *Drosophila* fat body during oxidative stress. Using cell

type-specific signatures, three of the clusters were annotated as fat body cells (clusters: 1, 3 and 4)

(Figure 2A-B). Re-scaling and clustering of all 3150 identified fat body nuclei revealed 8 distinct clusters

(Figure 4A). First, we verified fat body-specific signature gene expression across these clusters (Figure

S4B) and excluded expression of hemocyte-specific signature genes (Figure S4C). From the eight

distinct fat body cell clusters, we identified that cluster C1, C6 and C8 were mainly enriched with cells

obtained from control flies, whereas clusters C2-5 were almost exclusively derived from PQ treated

flies (Figure 4B, Figure S4D). Only cluster C7 represents cells from both conditions (Figure 4B, Figure

S4D). To define the transcriptional changes between these eight fat body cell clusters, we analyzed the

TOP20 DE genes across all fat body cell clusters (Figure 4C, Table S2), as well as the unique regulated

genes in each specific cluster compared to all others (Figure 4D). Here the cluster C1, mostly derived

of fat body cells from control flies, showed an enrichment for gene induction associated with

triglyceride storage, such as *Fatty acid synthase 1* (*FASN1*), *Glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase 1*

(*Gpdh1*) or *Acyl-CoA synthetase long-chain* (*Acsl*), as well as fat body signature genes (Figure 4C-D).

Interestingly cluster C8, which mostly consisted of cells from control food, showed a distinct expression

of AMP genes including *Dro*, *Drs* or *Diptericin-B* (*DptB*), however this cluster completely disappeared

after PQ feeding (Figure 4C-D). In contrast, PQ treatment induced several fat body specific cell clusters

which were not found in control conditions. For example, cluster C2, C4 and C5, which showed a strong

gene induction of oxidative stress response genes, but also genes associated with Jak/STAT pathway

(e.g. *Socs36E*, *upd3*, *Fas3*, *TotA*) and JNK activation (e.g. *puc*, *kay*) (Figure 4C-D). In all of these clusters,

genes associated with triglyceride storage were significantly reduced. This is in line with our findings

showing a reduction in triglyceride storage in the fat body upon oxidative stress (Figure 1F, Figure S1E-

F). Overall our data revealed that the fat body has a unique heterogeneity upon oxidative stress with

a clear separation of clusters with JNK and Jak/STAT activation signature, which could be either

activated by the PQ-induced oxidative stress itself or by the cytokines released by immune-activated

hemocytes, especially *upd3*.

Loss of DNA damage signaling in adult hemocytes results in elevated *upd3* levels and a decreased

survival on oxidative stress

To evaluate the role of immune activation in hemocytes during oxidative stress response, we aimed to

specifically explore the implication of DNA damage signaling in hemocytes (Figure 1-3). Previously it

has been observed that oxidative stress-induced DNA damage supports immune activation in

macrophages via DNA damage signaling[27]. Based on our findings, we predict that also in adult

hemocytes oxidative stress not only drives genome instability and activates repair, but plays a role in

the induction and modulation of immune activation via specific gene expression changes in cluster C6

plasmatocytes. To test if DNA damage signaling is involved in the response of adult hemocytes to

oxidative stress, we analyzed flies with a hemocyte-specific knock-down for different genes of the DNA

damage repair (DDR) machinery including the DNA damage sensing kinases *telomere fusion* (*tefu*) and

meiotic 41 (*mei-41*) and the MRN complex protein *nbs*. Of note, by targeting adult hemocytes, mostly

plasmatocytes are targeted which make up 95% of all hemocytes in the adult fly.

We generated *Hml>mei-41-IR* (*w;Hml-Gal4,UAS-2xeGFP/UAS-mei-41-IR*), *Hml>tefu-IR* (*w;Hml-*

Gal4,UAS-2xeGFP/UAS-tefu-IR), *Hml>mei41-IR;tefu-IR* (*w;Hml-Gal4,UAS-2xeGFP/UAS-mei-41-IR;UAS-*

tefu-IR) and *Hml>nbs-IR* (*w;Hml-Gal4,UAS-2xeGFP/UAS-nbs-IR*) flies (Figure S6A). First, we compared

their susceptibility to PQ treatment after 18 hrs and found significantly increased susceptibility to the

treatment across all DDR-deficient lines compared to the control genotype (*Hml/+*: 10.7±1.2%,

Hml>mei-41-IR: 40.7±4.8%, *Hml>tefu-IR*: 20.7±4.3%, *Hml>mei41-IR;tefu-IR*: 37.5±4.8% and *Hml>nbs-*

IR: 48.2±6.7%) (Figure 5A). In these flies, decreased survival after PQ did not correlate to an overall

reduction in lifespan on normal food and a decrease in fitness (Figure S6B).

Next, we inquired if DDR-deficiency in hemocytes might increase susceptibility of the fly to other

stresses. For this we challenged all genotypes with starvation. Importantly, we did not observe a

decreased survival of DDR-deficient flies on starvation compared to the control genotype, indicating

that the observed susceptibility to oxidative stress of flies with a DDR-deficiency in hemocytes is

specifically caused by oxidative stress due to PQ treatment (Figure S6C). As defects in the DDR

machinery in hemocytes might already affect the development during embryonic and larval stages, we

used a hemocyte-specific temperature-inducible knock-down of *mei-41*, *tefu* and *nbs1* which was

induced by a temperature shift to 29°C directly after eclosion from the pupae to induce a knockdown

in adult hemocytes only. We analyzed the lifespan of *Hml-Gal80^{ts}>mei-41-IR* (*w;Hml-Gal4,UAS-*

2xeGFP/UAS-mei-41-IR;tub-Gal80), *Hml-Gal80^{ts}>tefu-IR* (*w;Hml-Gal4,UAS-2xeGFP/UAS-tefu-IR;tub-*

Gal80), *Hml-Gal80^{ts}>mei-41-IR;tefu-IR* (*w;Hml-Gal4,UAS-2xeGFP/UAS-mei-41-IR;tub-Gal80/UAS-tefu-*

IR) and *Hml-Gal80^{ts}>nbs-IR* (*w;Hml-Gal4,UAS-2xeGFP/UAS-nbs-IR;tub-Gal80*) compared to control flies

Hml-Gal80^{ts}/+ (*w;Hml-Gal4,UAS-2xeGFP/+;tub-Gal80*) and again found no alterations in overall

lifespan of all genotypes analyzed on control food except a slight decrease in lifespan of *Hml-*

Gal80^{ts}>mei-41-IR;tefu-IR. (Figure S6D). In contrast, we again found a higher susceptibility to oxidative

stress via PQ-feeding in the DDR-deficient lines compared to control (*Hml-Gal80^{ts}/+*: 30.3±5.2%, *Hml-*

Gal80^{ts}>mei-41-IR: 36.2±4.3%, *Hml-Gal80^{ts}>tefu-IR*: 52.4±6.9%, *Hml-Gal80^{ts}>mei-41-IR;tefu-IR*:

72.3±6.3% and *Hml Hml-Gal80^{ts}>nbs-IR*: 36.2±4.3%) (Figure S6E), which directly confirms our previous

results and conclusions (Figure 5A).

As we have seen before that loss of hemocytes is detrimental for the survival on oxidative stress, we

wanted to exclude a reduction in hemocytes in the DDR deficient fly lines as a cause of the higher

susceptibility to oxidative stress. We quantified GFP$^+$ hemocytes in *Hml>mei-41-IR*, *Hml>tefu-IR*,

Hml>mei-41-IR;tefu-IR and *Hml>nbs-IR* flies (Figure 5B, Figure S6A). We did not find alteration in

hemocyte number across all fly lines on control food (with the exception of an increase in hemocytes

in the *Hml>tefu-IR* line), nor did we observe any effect of PQ treatment on the number of hemocytes

in DDR-deficient flies (Figure 5B, Figure S6A).

Next, we analyzed if the loss of the DDR signaling machinery via knockdown of *tefu* and *mei41* results

in increased DNA damage in hemocytes. Comet assays of isolated hemocytes from DDR deficient flies

and the control genotype on PQ and control food only indicated a slight increase in DNA damage in

these flies, which demonstrates that the higher susceptibility of DDR deficient flies is not due to a loss

of hemocyte numbers or a substantial increase in DNA damage, but rather due to changes in the

downstream DDR-signaling events modulating immune activation of hemocytes (Figure 5C). Other

studies demonstrated that upon tissue damage JNK-mediated secretion of the JAK/STAT cytokines

upd1, upd2 and upd3 is a critical step for innate immune signaling[28,29]. Furthermore, DNA damage

signaling is essential to induce such an immune response and to regulate insulin signaling[30]. To

elucidate the implication of DDR signaling on hemocyte activation and oxidative stress resistance, we

measured the gene expression levels of *upd* cytokines as well as JNK and Jak/STAT targets in DDR

deficient flies and controls on PQ and control food. Loss of DNA damage signaling in hemocytes

induced a significant induction of *upd3* expression upon PQ treatment in *Hml>tefu-IR* and *Hml>mei-*

41-IR;tefu-IR flies (Figure 5D). In contrary, *upd1* and *upd2* were not significantly changed in DDR-

deficient flies (Figure 5D). We measured the Jak/STAT target genes *Socs36E* and *TotA* on systemic level.

A slight induction of *Socs36E* expression in all DDR-deficient genotypes on PQ, but only *Hml>mei-41-*

IR;tefu-IR flies showed a significant induction of *Socs36E* upon PQ treatment compared to control food

and *Hml/+* flies on PQ (Figure 5D). *TotA* expression tended to be reduced upon PQ treatment across

all genotypes analyzed. However, when we checked the levels of *puc* as a *JNK signaling* target gene,

we found a significant induction on PQ treatment in *Hml>tefu-IR*, *Hml>mei-41-IR;tefu-IR* and *Hml>nbs-*

IR flies, which was not seen in control flies upon PQ treatment (Figure 5D). When we analyzed the gene

expression of genes involved in metabolism and energy mobilization, we detected a significant

induction and dysregulation of *Thor* and *InR* in all DDR-deficient genotypes upon PQ treatment

compared to control flies (Figure 5E), as well as a slight induction of *Pepck1* (Figure 5E). To exclude that

these changes in energy mobilization are due to altered expression of *Ilps*, we analyzed the levels of

*Ilp*2, *Ilp3* and *Ilp5* in all genotypes on control and PQ-food, but could not detect remarkable alterations

here (Figure 5E). To further exclude that the higher susceptibility of DDR-deficient flies and seen

alterations in stress response are due to inefficient mobilization of triglycerides, we measured stored

triglycerides across all genotypes and found efficient mobilization of triglyceride storage upon PQ

treatment in all genotypes compared to control food (Figure 5F).

From our results we can conclude that DNA damage signaling in adult hemocytes, mostly consisting of

plasmatocytes, essentially determines susceptibility to oxidative stress. Loss of DNA damage signaling

in hemocytes results in upregulation of *JNK* signaling and elevated expression of the pro-inflammatory

cytokine *upd3*, as well as transcriptional alterations in energy mobilization and insulin signaling. Based

on our previous results on the role of hemocytes during oxidative stress, we can therefore assume that

the DNA damage signaling machinery in hemocytes is activated by oxidative stress and plays an

essential modulatory and rate-limiting role for subsequent immune activation.

Adult hemocytes control susceptibility to oxidative stress by JNK signaling and *upd3* release

To this point, our data suggests that oxidative stress-induced DNA damage signaling in hemocytes

limits immune activation and stress response upon oxidative stress. As we found that increased *upd3*

levels correlate with a higher susceptibility to oxidative stress of flies with DDR-deficient hemocytes,

we aimed to test if hemocyte-derived *upd3* is a major source to regulate susceptibility to PQ-induced

oxidative stress. To do so, we either over-expressed *upd3* in hemocytes in *Hml>upd3* (*w;Hml-Gal4,UAS-*

2xeGFP/UAS-upd3) flies or performed a hemocyte-specific knockdown of *upd3* in *Hml>upd3-IR* (*w;Hml-*

Gal4,UAS-2xeGFP/UAS-upd3-IR) flies (Figure S6F). Both genotypes showed a normal overall lifespan

compared to the *Hml/+* control (Figure S6G), but when we compared their susceptibility to PQ-induced

oxidative stress, *Hml>upd3* flies showed a drastically decreased survival on PQ, whereas *Hml>upd3-IR*

flies did not show a changed survival on PQ treatment after 18 hours (Figure 6A). We tested *upd3*

expression levels on a whole fly level and found a slight but not significant induction in *Hml/+* flies after

PQ treatment compared to control food, in line with our previous results (Figure 1B and 6B). As

expected, *Hml>upd3* flies showed increased levels of *upd3* in both treatment groups compared to the

other genotypes, but also showed a significant increase of *upd3* upon PQ compared to control food

(Figure 6B). Surprisingly, *Hml>upd3-IR* flies still showed a slight induction of *upd3* upon PQ treatment,

which could potentially be derived from another cellular source after eliminating hemocyte-derived

upd3, for example fat body cells, as seen in our snRNA-seq analysis.

To identify if the higher susceptibility of *Hml>upd3* flies to oxidative stress was due to reduced

hemocyte numbers, we quantified hemocytes across all three genotypes, but did not see any

significant changes of hemocyte number in both genotypes compared to *Hml/+* control flies on control

food and PQ (Figure 6C and Figure S6F). Only in the *Hml>upd3-IR* flies we found a reduction of

hemocytes between flies on control food and PQ, but without consequences for their susceptibility to

oxidative stress (Figure 6C and Figure S6G). Our data indicate that elevation of hemocyte-derived *upd3*

is sufficient to increase the mortality of adult flies on PQ-mediated oxidative stress. Yet we could not

exclude other cellular sources than hemocytes for *upd3* upon oxidative stress. Therefore, we wanted

to probe if hemocyte-derived *upd3* is sufficient to increase the susceptibility to PQ treatment in the

absence of other cellular sources. We backcrossed *Hml>upd3* flies to *upd3*-null mutants (*upd3^{null}*) to

generate *upd3^{null};Hml>upd3* flies (*upd3^{null};Hml-Gal4,UAS-2xeGFP/UAS-upd3)* and compared their

survival on PQ to *Hml/+* and *upd3^{null}* flies (Figure 6D). Of note, we found that *upd3^{null}* mutants had a

significant reduced susceptibility to oxidative stress compared to *Hml/+* flies, however we found a

decreased survival in *upd3^{null};Hml>upd3* flies when hemocytes alone overexpressing *upd3* similar to

the higher susceptibility of *Hml>upd3* flies (Figure 6D). We then wanted to test if loss of *upd3* would

also rescue the higher susceptibility of flies with DDR-deficient hemocytes and backcrossed

Hml>mei41-IR;tefu-IR to *upd3^{null}* flies to generate *upd3^{null};Hml>mei41-IR;tefu-IR* flies (*upd3^{null};Hml-*

Gal4,UAS-2xeGFP/UAS-mei41-IR;UAS-tefu-IR) (Figure 6D). Indeed we found a substantially decreased

susceptibility of these flies to oxidative stress compared to *Hml>mei41-IR;tefu-IR* flies, supporting our

hypothesis that loss of DNA damage signaling in hemocytes and subsequently increased levels of upd3

render adult flies more susceptible to oxidative stress.

Previous studies highlighted that JNK signaling can induce *upd3* expression in hemocytes[12]. In line with

these reports, we found enrichment of genes with *kayak/AP-1* binding motifs in the plasmatocyte

subset C6 which showed further upregulation of Jak/STAT target genes and also *upd3* expression

(Figure 3). Therefore, we wanted to verify if *JNK* activation in hemocytes acts as a direct downstream

signal activated by oxidative stress and subsequently induces the release of the pro-inflammatory

cytokine *upd3*. We either overexpressed a constitutive active form of *JNKK hemipterous* (*hep*) in

hemocytes using *Hml>hep[act]* (*w;Hml-Gal4,UAS-2xeGFP/UAS-hep[act]*) flies or overexpressed a

dominant-negative version of the Jun kinase *basket* (*bsk*) in hemocytes using *Hml>bsk-DN* (*w;Hml-*

Gal4,UAS-2xeGFP/UAS-bsk-DN). We compared their survival on PQ after 18 hrs and in line with our

previous results, we found an increased susceptibility of *Hml>hep[act]* flies to PQ treatment, but not

of *Hml>bsk-DN* flies compared to the control genotype (Figure 6E). We again analyzed the overall

lifespan of these flies on normal food and could not find differences between the genotypes (Figure

S6H). Furthermore, when we analyzed *upd3* expression in these flies upon PQ treatment, we found a

significant induction of *upd3* expression after PQ treatment in *Hml>hep[act]* compared to control food,

but only a slight increase in *Hml/+* and *Hml>bsk-DN* flies upon PQ feeding (Figure 6F). These findings

support a substantial role of JNK-mediated induction of *upd3* in hemocytes upon oxidative stress.

In summary, our study revealed a defined immune-responsive subset of plasmatocytes during

oxidative stress. We show that this oxidative stress-mediated immune activation seems to be

regulated by DNA damage signaling in hemocytes, which controls JNK activation and subsequent *upd3*

expression. Loss of DNA damage signaling and over-induction of JNK signaling or upd3 in hemocytes

release renders the adult fly more susceptible to oxidative stress.

Discussion

Similar to vertebrate macrophages, oxidative stress triggers immune activation in *Drosophila* hemocytes[18]. However, this immune activation was not obvious on a systemic level upon PQ-mediated oxidative stress. In contrast, localized oxidative stress-induced immune activation in damaged tissues is an essential step of the *Drosophila* immune response to infection or injury[19,31]. However, the precise contribution of *Drosophila* macrophages in this immune activation, in the organ-to-organ communication during stress response and the implication in the organism's survival upon increased oxidative stress remained so far ill-defined. Overall, we describe the induction of diverse cellular states of adult hemocytes, namely plasmatocytes, during oxidative stress with a particular subset of plasmatocytes (cluster C6) which directly responds to oxidative stress by immune activation. We demonstrated that this immune activation seems to be at least partially controlled by the DNA damage signaling machinery in hemocytes. Loss of *nbs*, *tefu* or *mei-41* in hemocytes renders the organism more susceptible to oxidative stress without significantly affecting oxidative stress mediated DNA damage, but with an enhanced induction of JAK/STAT and JNK signaling, accompanied by changes in genes associated with energy mobilization and storage. In line with that, we describe substantial changes in the fat body on the transcriptomic level with diverse cell states, indicating decrease of triglyceride storage and induced response to oxidative stress and immune activation, but loss of AMP-producing cells. Finally, we showed that the control of hemocyte-derived *upd3* is key for the survival of the organism upon oxidative stress and that induction of the *JNK/upd3* signaling axis in hemocytes is sufficient to increase the susceptibility to oxidative stress. Hence, we postulate that hemocyte-derived *upd3* is most likely released by the activated plasmatocyte cluster C6 during oxidative stress *in vivo* and is subsequently controlling energy mobilization and subsequent tissue wasting upon oxidative stress.

Drosophila hemocytes have been described before to react to PQ-mediated or infection-mediated intestinal damage via release of cytokines to promote ISC proliferation in the gut[14,17]. PQ is a widely used model in *Drosophila* to induce oxidative stress via oral uptake[32]. In many reports the gut has been described to be the most affected organ and ISC proliferation is an essential step to regenerate the injured intestinal epithelium[33,34]. PQ treatment has been described to cause gut leakage and therefore this could be a potential cause of death for the fly[14], though we did not find signs of gut leakage within the 18 hours PQ treatment with a concentration of 15mM. Aside from the gut, oral PQ treatment was shown to induce oxidative stress in many organs including hemocytes[35], oenocytes[36] and the brain[37], indicating that the induced oxidative stress is not only localized to the gut tissue. PQ-induced oxidative stress was described before to cause neurodegeneration with parkinsonism-like symptoms, accompanied by strong immune activation and upregulation of *JNK* signaling in the CNS[37], an activation

profile similar to the identified activated plasmatocyte cluster C6 and the activated fat body clusters

C2 and C4 in our snRNA-seq analysis. The snRNA-seq analysis further revealed distinct hemocyte

clusters with seven plasmatocyte clusters and one crystal cell cluster. Whereas the plasmatocyte

clusters C1 and C7 seem to represent cellular states found in steady state conditions only, we identified

several other clusters which seemed to be exclusive or at least enriched under PQ treatment.

Interestingly, we only identified one cluster, C6, which specifically responded to oxidative stress via

immune activation and upregulation of oxidative stress response genes but also *Jak/STAT* and *JNK*

target genes. We postulate that these cells might be directly exposed to the oxidative stress because

their signature resembles the one of S2 cells directly treated with PQ *in vitro*. Even though oxidative

DNA damage in hemocytes was followed by immune activation *in vitro* and *in vivo*, it remains to be

determined if this activation is induced by cytokines derived from damaged organs during oxidative

stress or by the oxidative stress directly. The hypothesis that this cluster is directly exposed to oxidative

stress is further supported by an upregulation of genes such as *Hsps* in this cluster which are known to

be directly induced by oxidative stress[38]. Furthermore, we found evidence that oxidative DNA damage

and induced DNA damage signaling dynamically modulate immune activation cascades in cluster C6

plasmatocytes. This was supported by the increased DNA damage in S2 cells by PQ treatment but also

the enrichment of DDR-associated genes such as *Gadd45* in cluster C6, which is associated with *JNK*

activation and is further implicated in oxidative stress induced DNA damage[37]. Constant DNA damage

signaling and repair is an essential step in all tissues to maintain tissue homeostasis[39].

In our study, we point to a potential role of DNA damage signaling as a rate-limiting step for immune

activation and response to oxidative stress in hemocytes. We did not find indications of canonical DNA

damage response, such as induced apoptosis in hemocytes due to the oxidative DNA damage. Non-

canonical DNA damage sensing has been implicated in immune responses in vertebrates and

invertebrates[30,37,40,41]. It was demonstrated that vertebrate macrophages *in vitro* respond similarly to

immune stimuli such as infection by synergistic activation of DDR and type I interferon signaling to

induce downstream immune signaling cascades[27]. Here, we provide new evidence in *Drosophila* that

potentially non-canonical DNA damage is used by immune cells *in vivo* to modulate and especially

control their immune response including pro-inflammatory cytokine release upon oxidative stress.

Localized DNA damage in larval epithelial cells has been shown to induce non-canonical DNA damage

activity leading to the secretion of *upds* and the regulation of hemocyte expansion and activation, as

well as subsequent hemocyte-mediated regulation of energy storage in the fat body[30]. In further

support of our results, one report previously demonstrated that loss of DNA damage signaling

machinery induced the release of *upd3* in hemocytes[14]. Most likely, the identified plasmatocyte cluster

C6 is a central cellular source of this signal. However, we also detected *upd3* induction in the PQ-

induced fat body cell cluster C4 as potential secondary source of upd3, which needs to be further

determined in future studies. Furthermore, anatomical localization of this upd3-producing

plasmatocyte cluster, as well as spatial distribution and cross-talk of the different plasmatocyte and

fat body cell clusters would be of interest. We describe a strong connection between the control of

upd3 expression by hemocytes and the susceptibility of the adult fly to oxidative stress. Upon oxidative

stress, we observe decreased triglycerides and glycogen stores and altered gene expression such as

induced expression of lipolytic enzymes and other *foxo* target genes indicating energy mobilization

from the adult fat body, which was further supported by the transcriptomic profiling of fat body cells.

Accumulating evidence throughout our study points to an implication of hemocyte-derived *upd3* in the

control of energy mobilization and tissue wasting during oxidative stress. Our data from hemocyte-

deficient flies indicating defects in energy mobilization and maintenance of free glucose levels further

support this assumption. Our presented findings are in line with our previous studies where we showed

that upon high fat diet hemocytes produce high levels of *upd3* which induces insulin insensitivity in

many tissues by activating *Jak/STAT signaling* in these organs and inhibiting the insulin signaling

pathway[12]. Furthermore, we and others described a central role for hemocyte derived *upds* in the

control of glucose metabolism in muscles during steady state and upon infection[13,42]. As shown before,

hemocytes produce high levels of *upd3* upon infection with *Mycobacterium marinum* which also

caused tissue wasting and extensive energy mobilization in a *foxo*-dependent manner[11,43].

Our study provides further evidence that hemocytes serve as essential signaling hubs in "organ to

organ communication" during oxidative stress, which is in line with previous studies in immune

challenge as well as steady state[19,42,44]. Our findings in *Drosophila* highlight the role of macrophages

for the survival on oxidative stress with an urgent need for a balanced immune response to overcome

the tissue damage. We further unravel the diverse responses of hemocytes and fat body cells towards

oxidative stress which can now serve as a baseline to further explore the spatiotemporal

macrophage/hemocyte responses to oxidative stress and their communication with other host tissue

cells such as the fat body. Future in depth analysis of the regulation of these cellular states and their

coupling to tissue repair will allow to gain new insights for the treatment of diseases where tissue

repair and tissue wasting needs to be balanced, including cancer or neurodegenerative diseases.

Acknowledgements and Funding

The authors are very grateful to the members of the Kierdorf lab for their help and support. The

authors would especially like to thank M. Oberle for her exceptional help with the maintenance of the

Drosophila stocks and the management of the fly room. We would like to acknowledge the Lighthouse

Core Facility and its staff, especially J. Bodinek-Wersing and U. Jagadeshwaran, for their assistance with

the sorting of nuclei. The authors are especially grateful to D. Ganser and H. Fischer for the continuous

support throughout the study. Graphical abstract was created with BioRender.com. KK was supported

by project grants of the Fritz Thyssen Foundation and of the German Research Foundation (DFG). MSD

was supported by Wellcome Trust (207467/Z/17/Z) and Biotechnology and Biological Sciences

Research Council (BBSRC) (BB/W/001004/1). KK, MP, and OG were supported by the DFG through

project grants within SFB/TRR167 (Project ID 259373024) and by project grants within CRC1479

(Project ID 441891347). KK, MP, OG, and AC were supported by the DFG under Germany's Excellence

Strategy (grant no. CIBSS—EXC-2189, Project ID 390939984). AC was further supported by the

Boehringer Ingelheim Foundation (Plus3 Programme). OG was further supported by the European

Research Council (ERC) through Starting Grant 337689 and Proof-of-Concept Grant 966687, and by the

DFG through project grants in GRK2606 (Project ID 423813989), SFB1425 (Project ID 422681845), and

SFB1160 (Project ID 256073931), as well as by the EU-H2020-MSCA-COFUND EURIdoc programme (No.

101034170). MP was further supported by the Novo Nordisk Foundation, the Ernst Jung Foundation,

the DFG through project grants in SFB992 (Project ID 192904750), and SFB1160 (Project ID

256073931), a Reinhart Koselleck grant and the Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz prize, the Ministry of

Science, Research and Arts of the state of Baden-Wuerttemberg (Sonderlinie 'Neuroinflammation')

and by the Alzheimer Forschung Initiative e.V. (AFI). GM was supported by a Marie Skłodowska-Curie

postdoctoral fellowship.

Author Contributions

FH contributed to project planning, performed all experiments, analyzed data, edited the manuscript

and prepared the figures. TM and PW performed experiments, helped with the data analysis, and

edited the manuscript. CC performed the snRNA-seq experiment and bioinformatics analysis of the

hemocytes. GM performed data preprocessing and supported bioinformatics analysis. AC, MSD, KP,

OG, and MP provided equipment and reagents, helped to analyze and interpret data, and edited the

manuscript. KK planned and supervised the project, conceptualized the study and wrote the

manuscript.

Competing Interests Statement

The authors declare no competing financial or scientific interests.

Methods Section

Drosophila melanogaster stocks:

Flies were reared on a high yeast food containing 10% brewer's yeast, 8% fructose, 2% polenta and

0.8% Agar. Propionic acid and nipagin were added to prevent bacterial or fungal growth. All crosses

(except those containing the *tub-Gal80^{ts}* construct or otherwise noted) were performed at 25°C with

a 12 hours dark/light cycle. The crosses with *tub-Gal80^{ts}* were performed at 18°C to ensure the

inhibition of the Gal4-protein during developmental stages of the fly. The experimental male F1 flies

were transferred to 29°C as soon as they hatched and were aged for six days. All transgenic lines used
in this study are listed in the Table S3.

Lifespan/Survival assays:

622 Male flies were collected after eclosion and groups of 20 age-matched flies per genotype were housed
623 in a food vial. The survival experiments were performed at 29°C. The vials were placed horizontal to
624 avoid that flies fall into the food and become stuck. Dead flies were counted in a daily manner. The
625 flies were transferred into a fresh food vial twice per week without CO_2 anesthesia.

Paraquat treatment:

Flies were maintained at 29°C for six days prior to treatment. On day six they were starved for 6 hours.
A filter paper soaked in 5% sucrose solution with or without 15mM Paraquat (PQ, Methyl viologen
hydrate, Acros Organics) was added after starvation. Flies were fed for 18 hours on the PQ containing
food in groups of ten. The PQ treatment was performed at 29°C in the dark[20]. To assess the survival
rate the dead flies per vial were counted and the percentage was calculated. The living flies were
further analyzed in other assays used in this study.

Starvation experiments:

634 10-20 age-matched male flies were kept in a vial containing 1% agar supplemented with 2% 1xPBS. The
635 starvation experiments were performed at 25°C. Dead flies were counted every hour. Several
636 individual experiments were performed and started on different daytimes to exclude diurnal derived
637 artifacts. The data of the individual experiments were pooled and analyzed with GraphPad Prism 9.2.0.

Paraffin sections and stainings:

Anaesthetized flies were washed in 75% ethanol for 5-10 seconds and transferred into 4% PFA for 30
minutes at room temperature. The flies were washed for 1 hour in PBS on a shaker. Subsequently the
flies were transferred into tissue cassettes, dehydrated and embedded in paraffin. The flies were cut
in 7μm thick sections de-paraffinated and stained on slides with Hematoxylin-Gill (II) for five minutes.
Subsequently the sections were blued in running water for ten minutes. It followed a 0.5% Eosin
treatment for five minutes and a final ethanol treatment with increasing concentrations until 100%.
The sections were transferred into Xylol and finally covered with synthetic resin and a cover slip.

Cryo sections and Oil Red O staining:

Anaesthetized flies were washed in 75% ethanol for 5-10 seconds and transferred into 4% PFA for 30
minutes at room temperature. Subsequently, the flies were dehydrated for 1h at 37°C in 30% sucrose
solution. The dehydrated flies were placed in a Tissue-Tek cryo-mold and embedded in Tissue-Tek®
O.C.T.™ Compound. The cryo-mold was placed on dry-ice which was embedded in a 100% ethanol bath
until the whole block was completely frozen. The flies were cut in 10μm sections and stained on the
slide. The slides were put on RT and dried. Subsequently, they were submerged in Oil red O solution
for 30 minutes. The slides were rinsed two times in deionized water and subsequently stained for two
minutes with hematoxylin to stain the nuclei. Finally, the slides were washed with water for 5 minutes
and covered with a cover slip and glycerin.

Semi-quantitative Real-Time PCR:

Three flies were pooled and smashed in 100µl TRIzol to stabilize and isolate the RNA. Chloroform was
used to extract the RNA followed by an isopropanol precipitation step. The RNA was cleaned with 70%
ethanol and solubilized in water. A DNAse treatment was performed to digest potential genomic DNA
contaminations. The purified and DNAse treated RNA was written into cDNA using RevertAid Reverse
Transcriptase (Thermo Scientific) at 37°C for one hour. The reaction was stopped by incubating for 10
minutes at 70°C. The subsequent RTqPCR was done in SensiMix SYBR Green no-ROX (Meridian
Bioscience) and was performed on a LightCycler 480 (Roche). The qPCR cycling started with a 10-
minute 95°C step followed by 50 cycles with the following times and temperatures: 15s at 95°C, 15s at
60°C and 15s at 72°C. The gene expression levels were normalized to the value of the measured loading
control gene Rpl1.

Confocal microscopy:

The flies were anesthetized with CO_2, glued on a cover slip and imaged immediately. Confocal
microscopy was done with a Leica SP8 microscope (Leica) and a 10x/NA0.4 Leica air objective. The
images were acquired in a resolution of 512x512 with a scan speed of 600 Hz. Z-Stacks with a step size
of 5µm and tile scans (2x2 or 2x3 images per fly) were acquired to quantify the hemocytes in whole
flies. The tiled images were merged with the LAS-X software (Leica) and maximum projections were
created using Fiji/ImageJ. The hemocytes were counted in the maximum projection images of whole
flies.

Smurf Assay:

Smurf assays were performed to check the feeding behavior as well as the gut integrity of 7 days old,
male flies upon PQ treatment. Brilliant Blue dye (FCF) was added into 5% sucrose solution in a
concentration of 1% (w/v). PQ was added in concentrations of 2mM, 15mM and 30mM. Control food
was 5% sucrose and 1% Brilliant Blue without PQ. The flies were fed with blue food according to the
PQ-treatment protocol, as described above. Flies were analyzed after 18h of feeding on brilliant-blue
food. Three kinds of flies were distinguished. Flies that did not eat at all were excluded. Flies with a
blue gut or crop were classified as "non-smurf". Flies which turned completely blue or showed
distribution of blue dye outside the gut were classified as "smurf".

Thin Layer Chromatography (TLC):

Each sample in the TLC analysis contains 10 flies of the respective genotype. The flies were starved for
one hour before they were anesthetized with CO_2 and transferred into 100µl chloroform:methanol
(3:1) on ice. The flies were centrifuged for 5 minutes at 15,000g at 4°C and subsequently homogenized
with a pestle. The sample was centrifuged again with the same settings. Lard was dissolved in
chloroform:methanol (3:1) and served as triglyceride control (standard 1). Standard 1 was used to
produce a standard curve with decreasing triglyceride concentrations. The samples and the standard
curve were loaded on a glass silica gel plate (Millipore). The mobile phase in the TLC chamber was
made with hexane:diethylether (4:1). The plate was placed in the chamber until the solvent front
reached the upper end of the plate. The plate was taken out, air dried and stained with ceric
ammonium heptamolybdate (CAM). Subsequently the plate was incubated at 80°C for 2 hours to
visualize the stained triglyceride bands. Images were taken with a gel documentation system (gelONE).
Triglyceride density was measured and the concentrations were calculated according the pre-
determined concentrations of the standard curve. Image analysis and calculations were done using
ImageJ.

Glucose Assay:

Seven days old male flies were used for the analysis. They were treated for 18h with PQ or sucrose
respectively. Subsequently the flies were starved for one hour to bring all flies into the same metabolic
state. Three flies were pooled as one sample and manually homogenized in 75µl TE + 0.1% Triton X-
100 (Sigma Aldrich). The samples were incubated for 20min at 75°C to inactivate any intrinsic
enzymatic activity. 5µl of the samples were loaded into a flat-bottom 96-well plate. Each sample was
measured four times to measure glucose, trehalose, glycogen and the fly background respectively. The
fly background was determined by diluting the fly sample with water. Glucose reagent (Sentinel
Diagnostics) was added to the fly sample to measure the glucose levels. Trehalase (Sigma Aldrich) or
amyloglucosidase (Sigma Aldrich) was added to the glucose reagent to measure trehalose or glycogen
respectively. Plates were incubated for 24h at 37°C before the colorimetric measurement was
performed at a wavelength of 492nm on a Tecan® Spark plate reader. The concentrations were
calculated according to standards loaded on the same plate.

Nuclei FACS sorting:

100 male *Hml-dsRed.nuc* flies per sample were homogenized in 500µl ice-cold EZ nuclei lysis buffer
(Sigma). Another 500µl EZ lysis buffer was added and the nuclei were incubated for five minutes on
ice. Following a pre-filtration step with a 70µm cell strainer (Miltenyi filters) the nuclei were
centrifuged at 500g for six minutes at 4°C. The pellet was resuspended and incubated in 1ml of EZ lysis
buffer for five minutes on ice following a second centrifugation step with previous used settings. After
discarding the supernatant, 500µl of nuclei wash and resuspension buffer (1x PBS; 1% BSA; 0.2U/µl
RNase inhibitor, NEB) was added without resuspending the pellet and incubated for 5 minutes on ice.
Subsequently the pellet was resuspended with additional 500µl nuclei wash and resuspension buffer.
The nuclei were centrifuged using previous settings and subsequently washed with 1ml of nuclei wash
and resuspension buffer. After centrifugation the pellet was resuspended and incubated for 15
minutes with nuclei staining solution containing DAPI (1:1000) and DRAQ7 (1:100). The nuclei were
washed once with 1ml nuclei wash and resuspension buffer. After centrifugation the pellet was
dissolved in 200µl wash and resuspension buffer, filtered through a 40µm filter and sorted on a BD
FACS ARIAIII. A duplet exclusion was performed by gating on singlets in FSC-A vs. FSC-W plot.
Subsequently DRAQ7+DAPI+ events were sorted into nuclei wash and resuspension buffer.

Single nucleus library preparation and sequencing:

For single nucleus library preparation, nuclei were loaded onto a Chromium Single Cell 3' G Chip (10X
Genomics) to generate single-nucleus gel beads in emulsion (GEM) according to the manufacturer's
instructions without modifications using Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' Reagents Kit v3.1 (10X
Genomics). In order to multiplex the samples for sequencing, Single Index Kit T Set A (10x Genomics)
was used for library preparation according to the manufacturer's instructions. The cDNA content and
size of post-sample index PCR samples was analyzed using a 2100 BioAnalyzer (Agilent). Library
quantification was done using NEB Next® Library Quant Kit for Illumina® (New England Biolabs)
following manufacturer's instructions. Sequencing libraries were loaded on an Illumina Nextseq 550
flow cell, with sequencing settings according to the recommendations of 10× Genomics. Sample de-
multiplexing was done using built-in BCL2FASTQ. Cell Ranger v6 software was implemented for gene
alignment to the fly genome. The *Drosophila melanogaster* genome assembly and annotation file were
downloaded from Ensembl (Release 104). The annotation files were filtered as suggested by 10x
Genomics, to keep only the categories of interest (i.e. protein coding genes, long intergenic noncoding

RNAs, antisense, pseudogenes). Cell Ranger v6 with the "include-intron" parameter was used for the
generation of the count data.

snRNA-seq data analysis

Downstream analysis implemented the SoupX v1 and Seurat v4 R-based packages. The matrix for each
sample was loaded using the SoupX package[45] and ambient RNA contamination was calculated using
the default setting. The corrected matrix together with metadata on treatment were used to create an
object in Seurat v4[23]. Doublet detection was done using the DoubletFinder package v2[46]. After doublet
exclusion, a combined object was created from the list by using the "merge" function. Nuclei with <
5% of mitochondrial contamination and between 400 and 1,700 genes expressed were retained for
further analysis. The filtered raw count matrix was log-normalized within each nucleus. The top 3,000
variable genes were calculated by Seurat using the variance stabilizing transformation selection
method and data were scaled. The variable genes were used to perform principal component analysis
(PCA) and the top 20 principal components were used for the unsupervised clustering. Seurat applies
a graph-based clustering approach: the *"FindNeighbors"* function uses the number of principal
components (dims = 20) to construct the k-nearest neighbors graph based on the Euclidean distance
in PCA space, and the *"FindClusters"* function applies the Louvain algorithm to iteratively group nuclei
(resolution = 1). We then used the PCA embedding to generate an UMAP for cluster visualization. For
each cluster, differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were calculated using the *"FindMarkers"* and
"FindAllMarkers" function with default parameters with adjusted P < 0.05 using Bonferroni correction.
The DEGs were used to assign cell type identity to clusters based on known cell lineage markers
described in previously published study[25]. To understand the impact of Paraquat treatment on each
cluster, *"FindMarkers"* function was used to compare "control" vs "Paraquat" treated cells per cluster.
Based on the DEGs obtained from this analysis, volcano plots were created using the EnhancedVolcano
package v1[47]. UMAP visualizations, feature plots and dot plots for snRNA-seq data were generated
using in-built plotting functionality of Seurat.

Subclustering of hemocytes and further analysis:

Based on the cell identity and known hemocyte marker genes from a previous study[25], sub-clusterings
were performed using the same unsupervised algorithm and downstream analysis. After removing
non-hemocyte clusters, final sub-clustering was done with a modification that *"FindNeighbors"*
function was run with dims = 10 and "FindClusters" function was run with resolution 0.8. Based on the
DEGs found by the *"FindAllMarkers"* function (parameters: only.pos = T, test.use= "MAST") a heat map
was plotted for TOP 20 DE genes per clusters.

Subclustering of fat body cells and further analysis:

Based on the cell identity according to the FlyCell Atlas, sub-clustering was performed using the same
unsupervised algorithm and downstream analysis as used for hemocytes. After removing non-fat body
clusters, final sub-clustering was done with the *"FindNeighbors"* function which was run with dims =
10 and "FindClusters" function which was run with resolution 0.8. Based on the DEGs found by the
"FindAllMarkers" function (parameters: only.pos = T, test.use= "MAST") a heat map was plotted for
TOP 20 DE genes per clusters.

Regulation network analysis of hemocyte clusters:

In order to determine the transcription factor activity, regulon analysis was performed using the R
package SCENIC (v1.3.1)[48]. To remove noise, genes with low expression levels or low positive rates
were filtered using the "geneFiltering" function with default settings to obtain a filtered matrix which
was used to build co-expression network using the "runCorrelation" and "runGENIE3" functions. Gene
regulatory networks (GRNs) were built and scored using the default parameters. Potential regulons
based on DNA-motif analysis were selected by using RcisTarget and active gene networks were
identified by AUCell. Regulon activity for each cell was calculated as the average normalized expression
of putative target genes. Regulon activity matrix was exported which was used to create a new 'AUC'
assay using "CreateAssayObject" function of Seurat. "DoHeatmap" function from Seurat was used to
plot scaled TF activity in individual hemocytes.

S2 Cell Culture, CellROX staining and flow cytometry:

Drosophila S2 cells (Invitrogen™) were cultured in Schneider's Drosophila medium (Gibco™) at 26°C
and atmospheric oxygen and carbon dioxide conditions. The medium contained 10% FCS and 1%
penicillin/streptomycin. PQ was added into the medium in concentrations of 15mM or 30mM to
investigate the influence on the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS). Control cells remained
untreated. To visualize ROS and oxidative stress, the cells were stained with CellROX™ Deep Red
Reagent (Invitrogen) for 30 minutes directly in the medium in a concentration of 1:500 at 26°C. The
cells were washed twice with 1xPBS containing 2mM EDTA. In order to stain dead cells DAPI was added
to the samples in a concentration of 1:1000. Samples were acquired using a BD LSRFortessa™ (BD
Biosciences) and analyzed with FlowJo analysis software.

COMET assays:

Comet assays were performed to analyze the amount of DNA damage in S2 cells treated with PQ. S2
cells were treated with 15mM or 30mM PQ for 24h. The cells were brought into a concentration of
1.8×10^5 cells/ml. Low melting agarose (LMA) was boiled at 90°C and subsequently cooled down to 37°C.
The cells were diluted in low melting agarose (LMA) at a ratio of 1:10 (cells:LMA) and transferred onto
a CometSlide™ (Trevigen). To ensure proper attachment of the LMA, the slides were cooled for 30
minutes at 4°C. The lysis was performed for one hour at 4°C. Therefore, the slides were submerged in
CometAssay® Lysis Solution (Trevigen). Subsequently the cells were submerged in alkaline unwinding
solution (200mM NaOH, 1mM EDTA, pH 13) for 1h at 4°C. The electrophoresis was performed under
alkaline conditions (pH13) for 30 minutes with a current of 20V (1V/cm). The slides were neutralized
with ddH$_2$O, dehydrated with 37% ethanol and dried properly at 37°C before they were stained with
SYBR™Gold (Invitrogen) for 30 minutes. Comets were imaged with an Olympus BX61 fluorescence
microscope. Comet data was analyzed via TriTrek CometScore 2.0.0.38 software.

Statistical analysis and data handling:

Statistical significance of real-time qPCR, Paraquat survival, hemocyte quantification, TLC, Glucose
assay, CellROX and comet assay data was calculated with an unpaired t-test or one-way ANOVA as
indicated in the figure legends. Lifespan/survival assays were analyzed using Log-Rank and Wilcoxon
test. Significance digits indicate the following significance levels: *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$,
****$p<0.0001$. Significance tests were performed using GraphPad Prism 9 software. Data handling of
snRNAseq data is described above.

Data availability

snRNA-seq data will be available upon publication on the gene omnibus express (GEO) platform, GEO
accession number: GSE24429. Please contact the lead contact for the token. Microscopy, flow
cytometry and survival data reported in this paper will be shared by the lead contact upon request.
Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available from the
lead contact upon request.

References

1. Pham-Huy, L.A., He, H., and Pham-Huy, C. (2008). Free Radicals, Antioxidants in Disease and
Health. Int J Biomed Sci *4*, 89–96.

2. Sinenko, S.A., Shim, J., and Banerjee, U. (2011). Oxidative stress in the haematopoietic niche
regulates the cellular immune response in Drosophila. EMBO Rep *13*, 83–89.
10.1038/embor.2011.223.

3. Herb, M., and Schramm, M. (2021). Functions of ROS in Macrophages and Antimicrobial
Immunity. Antioxidants (Basel) *10*, 313. 10.3390/antiox10020313.

4. Nathan, C., and Cunningham-Bussel, A. (2013). Beyond oxidative stress: an immunologist's guide
to reactive oxygen species. Nat Rev Immunol *13*, 349–361. 10.1038/nri3423.

5. Finkel, T., and Holbrook, N.J. (2000). Oxidants, oxidative stress and the biology of ageing. Nature
408, 239–247. 10.1038/35041687.

6. Moghadam, Z.M., Henneke, P., and Kolter, J. (2021). From Flies to Men: ROS and the NADPH
Oxidase in Phagocytes. Frontiers in Cell and Developmental Biology *9*, 618.
10.3389/fcell.2021.628991.

7. Meister, M., and Lagueux, M. (2003). Drosophila blood cells. Cell Microbiol *5*, 573–580.
10.1046/j.1462-5822.2003.00302.x.

8. Banerjee, U., Girard, J.R., Goins, L.M., and Spratford, C.M. (2019). Drosophila as a Genetic Model
for Hematopoiesis. Genetics *211*, 367–417. 10.1534/genetics.118.300223.

9. Gold, K.S., and Brückner, K. (2014). Drosophila as a model for the two myeloid blood cell systems
in vertebrates. Exp. Hematol. *42*, 717–727. 10.1016/j.exphem.2014.06.002.

10. Holz, A., Bossinger, B., Strasser, T., Janning, W., and Klapper, R. (2003). The two origins of
hemocytes in Drosophila. Development *130*, 4955–4962. 10.1242/dev.00702.

11. Péan, C.B., Schiebler, M., Tan, S.W.S., Sharrock, J.A., Kierdorf, K., Brown, K.P., Maserumule, M.C.,
Menezes, S., Pilátová, M., Bronda, K., et al. (2017). Regulation of phagocyte triglyceride by a
STAT-ATG2 pathway controls mycobacterial infection. Nat Commun *8*, 14642.
10.1038/ncomms14642.

12. Woodcock, K.J., Kierdorf, K., Pouchelon, C.A., Vivancos, V., Dionne, M.S., and Geissmann, F.
(2015). Macrophage-derived upd3 cytokine causes impaired glucose homeostasis and reduced
lifespan in Drosophila fed a lipid-rich diet. Immunity *42*, 133–144.
10.1016/j.immuni.2014.12.023.

13. Kierdorf, K., Hersperger, F., Sharrock, J., Vincent, C.M., Ustaoglu, P., Dou, J., Gyoergy, A., Groß,
O., Siekhaus, D.E., and Dionne, M.S. (2020). Muscle function and homeostasis require cytokine
inhibition of AKT activity in Drosophila. Elife *9*, e51595. 10.7554/eLife.51595.

14. Ayyaz, A., Li, H., and Jasper, H. (2015). Haemocytes control stem cell activity in the Drosophila
intestine. Nat. Cell Biol. *17*, 736–748. 10.1038/ncb3174.

15. Myers, A.L., Harris, C.M., Choe, K.-M., and Brennan, C.A. (2018). Inflammatory production of
reactive oxygen species by Drosophila hemocytes activates cellular immune defenses.
Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications *505*, 726–732.
10.1016/j.bbrc.2018.09.126.

16. Fogarty, C.E., Diwanji, N., Lindblad, J.L., Tare, M., Amcheslavsky, A., Makhijani, K., Brückner, K.,
Fan, Y., and Bergmann, A. (2016). Extracellular Reactive Oxygen Species Drive Apoptosis-Induced
Proliferation via Drosophila Macrophages. Current Biology *26*, 575–584.
10.1016/j.cub.2015.12.064.

17. Chakrabarti, S., Dudzic, J.P., Li, X., Collas, E.J., Boquete, J.-P., and Lemaitre, B. (2016). Remote
Control of Intestinal Stem Cell Activity by Haemocytes in Drosophila. PLoS Genet *12*, e1006089.
10.1371/journal.pgen.1006089.

18. Chakrabarti, S., and Visweswariah, S.S. (2020). Intramacrophage ROS Primes the Innate Immune
System via JAK/STAT and Toll Activation. Cell Reports *33*, 108368. 10.1016/j.celrep.2020.108368.

19. Wu, S.-C., Liao, C.-W., Pan, R.-L., and Juang, J.-L. (2012). Infection-Induced Intestinal Oxidative
Stress Triggers Organ-to-Organ Immunological Communication in Drosophila. Cell Host &
Microbe *11*, 410–417. 10.1016/j.chom.2012.03.004.

20. Wang, M.C., Bohmann, D., and Jasper, H. (2003). JNK Signaling Confers Tolerance to Oxidative
Stress and Extends Lifespan in Drosophila. Developmental Cell *5*, 811–816. 10.1016/S1534-
5807(03)00323-X.

21. Cox, N., Crozet, L., Holtman, I.R., Loyher, P.-L., Lazarov, T., White, J.B., Mass, E., Stanley, E.R.,
Elemento, O., Glass, C.K., et al. (2021). Diet-regulated production of PDGFcc by macrophages
controls energy storage. Science *373*. 10.1126/science.abe9383.

22. Martelotto, L. (2020). 'Frankenstein' protocol for nuclei isolation from fresh and frozen tissue for
snRNAseq.

23. Hao, Y., Hao, S., Andersen-Nissen, E., Mauck, W.M., Zheng, S., Butler, A., Lee, M.J., Wilk, A.J.,
Darby, C., Zager, M., et al. (2021). Integrated analysis of multimodal single-cell data. Cell *184*,
3573-3587.e29. 10.1016/j.cell.2021.04.048.

24. Li, H., Janssens, J., De Waegeneer, M., Kolluru, S.S., Davie, K., Gardeux, V., Saelens, W., David,
F.P.A., Brbić, M., Spanier, K., et al. (2022). Fly Cell Atlas: A single-nucleus transcriptomic atlas of
the adult fruit fly. Science *375*, eabk2432. 10.1126/science.abk2432.

25. Cattenoz, P.B., Sakr, R., Pavlidaki, A., Delaporte, C., Riba, A., Molina, N., Hariharan, N.,
Mukherjee, T., and Giangrande, A. (2020). Temporal specificity and heterogeneity of Drosophila
immune cells. EMBO J *39*, e104486. 10.15252/embj.2020104486.

26. Tattikota, S.G., Cho, B., Liu, Y., Hu, Y., Barrera, V., Steinbaugh, M.J., Yoon, S.-H., Comjean, A., Li,
F., Dervis, F., et al. (2020). A single-cell survey of Drosophila blood. eLife *9*, e54818.
10.7554/eLife.54818.

27. Morales, A.J., Carrero, J.A., Hung, P.J., Tubbs, A.T., Andrews, J.M., Edelson, B.T., Calderon, B.,
Innes, C.L., Paules, R.S., Payton, J.E., et al. (2017). A type I IFN-dependent DNA damage response
regulates the genetic program and inflammasome activation in macrophages. eLife *6*, e24655.
10.7554/eLife.24655.

28. Jiang, H., Patel, P.H., Kohlmaier, A., Grenley, M.O., McEwen, D.G., and Edgar, B.A. (2009).
Cytokine/Jak/Stat Signaling Mediates Regeneration and Homeostasis in the Drosophila Midgut.
Cell *137*, 1343–1355. 10.1016/j.cell.2009.05.014.

29. Pastor-Pareja, J.C., Wu, M., and Xu, T. (2008). An innate immune response of blood cells to
tumors and tissue damage in Drosophila. Dis Model Mech *1*, 144–154; discussion 153.
10.1242/dmm.000950.

30. Karpac, J., Younger, A., and Jasper, H. (2011). Dynamic coordination of innate immune signaling
and Insulin signaling regulates systemic responses to localized DNA damage. Dev Cell *20*, 841–
854. 10.1016/j.devcel.2011.05.011.

31. Louradour, I., Sharma, A., Morin-Poulard, I., Letourneau, M., Vincent, A., Crozatier, M., and
Vanzo, N. (2017). Reactive oxygen species-dependent Toll/NF-κB activation in the Drosophila
hematopoietic niche confers resistance to wasp parasitism. eLife *6*, e25496.
10.7554/eLife.25496.

32. Paraquat administration in Drosophila for use in metabolic studies of oxidative stress (2011).
Analytical Biochemistry *419*, 345–347. 10.1016/j.ab.2011.08.023.

33. Jiang, H., Grenley, M.O., Bravo, M.-J., Blumhagen, R.Z., and Edgar, B.A. (2011). EGFR/Ras/MAPK
signaling mediates adult midgut epithelial homeostasis and regeneration in Drosophila. Cell Stem
Cell *8*, 84–95. 10.1016/j.stem.2010.11.026.

34. Patel, P.H., Pénalva, C., Kardorff, M., Roca, M., Pavlović, B., Thiel, A., Teleman, A.A., and Edgar,
B.A. (2019). Damage sensing by a Nox-Ask1-MKK3-p38 signaling pathway mediates regeneration
in the adult Drosophila midgut. Nat Commun *10*, 4365. 10.1038/s41467-019-12336-w.

35. Azad, P., Ryu, J., and Haddad, G.G. (2011). Distinct role of Hsp70 in Drosophila hemocytes during
severe hypoxia. Free Radic Biol Med *51*, 530–538. 10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2011.05.005.

36. Huang, K., Chen, W., Zhu, F., Li, P.W.-L., Kapahi, P., and Bai, H. (2019). RiboTag translatomic
profiling of Drosophila oenocytes under aging and induced oxidative stress. BMC Genomics *20*,
50. 10.1186/s12864-018-5404-4.

37. Maitra, U., Scaglione, M.N., Chtarbanova, S., and O'Donnell, J.M. (2019). Innate immune
responses to paraquat exposure in a Drosophila model of Parkinson's disease. Sci Rep *9*, 12714.
10.1038/s41598-019-48977-6.

38. Donovan, M.R., and Marr, M.T. (2016). dFOXO Activates Large and Small Heat Shock Protein
Genes in Response to Oxidative Stress to Maintain Proteostasis in Drosophila*. Journal of
Biological Chemistry *291*, 19042–19050. 10.1074/jbc.M116.723049.

39. Khan, C., Muliyil, S., and Rao, B.J. (2019). Genome Damage Sensing Leads to Tissue Homeostasis
in Drosophila. Int Rev Cell Mol Biol *345*, 173–224. 10.1016/bs.ircmb.2018.12.001.

40. Dunphy, G., Flannery, S.M., Almine, J.F., Connolly, D.J., Paulus, C., Jønsson, K.L., Jakobsen, M.R.,
Nevels, M.M., Bowie, A.G., and Unterholzner, L. (2018). Non-canonical Activation of the DNA

Sensing Adaptor STING by ATM and IFI16 Mediates NF-κB Signaling after Nuclear DNA Damage.
Mol Cell *71*, 745-760.e5. 10.1016/j.molcel.2018.07.034.

41. Bednarski, J.J., and Sleckman, B.P. (2019). At the intersection of DNA damage and immune
responses. Nat Rev Immunol *19*, 231–242. 10.1038/s41577-019-0135-6.

42. Yang, H., Kronhamn, J., Ekström, J., Korkut, G.G., and Hultmark, D. (2015). JAK/STAT signaling in
Drosophila muscles controls the cellular immune response against parasitoid infection. EMBO
Rep *16*, 1664–1672. 10.15252/embr.201540277.

43. Dionne, M.S., Pham, L.N., Shirasu-Hiza, M., and Schneider, D.S. (2006). Akt and FOXO
dysregulation contribute to infection-induced wasting in Drosophila. Curr Biol *16*, 1977–1985.
10.1016/j.cub.2006.08.052.

44. Yang, H., and Hultmark, D. (2016). Tissue communication in a systemic immune response of
Drosophila. Fly (Austin) *10*, 115–122. 10.1080/19336934.2016.1182269.

45. Young, M.D., and Behjati, S. (2020). SoupX removes ambient RNA contamination from droplet-
based single-cell RNA sequencing data. Gigascience *9*, giaa151. 10.1093/gigascience/giaa151.

46. McGinnis, C.S., Murrow, L.M., and Gartner, Z.J. (2019). DoubletFinder: Doublet Detection in
Single-Cell RNA Sequencing Data Using Artificial Nearest Neighbors. Cell Syst *8*, 329-337.e4.
10.1016/j.cels.2019.03.003.

47. Blighe, K. (2021). EnhancedVolcano: publication-ready volcano plots with enhanced colouring
and labeling.

48. Aibar, S., González-Blas, C.B., Moerman, T., Huynh-Thu, V.A., Imrichova, H., Hulselmans, G.,
Rambow, F., Marine, J.-C., Geurts, P., Aerts, J., et al. (2017). SCENIC: single-cell regulatory
network inference and clustering. Nat Methods *14*, 1083–1086. 10.1038/nmeth.4463.

49. Hersperger, F., Kastl, M., Paeschke, K., and Kierdorf, K. (2024). Hemocyte Nuclei Isolation from
Adult Drosophila melanogaster for snRNA-seq. Methods Mol Biol *2713*, 71–79. 10.1007/978-1-
0716-3437-0_4.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Loss of hemocytes increases the susceptibility of adult Drosophila to oxidative stress by
Paraquat feeding. (A) Survival of *Hml/+* flies with control food (C) (n=20) and 15mM Paraquat (P)
(n=28) at 29°C. Five independent experiments were performed. Student's unpaired t-test:
****$p<0.0001$, each data point represents a sample with 10 flies. (B-C) RT-qPCR of whole flies were
performed to investigate gene-expressions of the JAK-STAT-signaling pathway (B) and insulin-signaling
pathway (C). All transcript levels were normalized to the expression of the loading control *Rpl1* and are
shown in arbitrary units [au]. Each data point (n=5) represents a sample of three whole flies. Student's
unpaired t-tests were performed for each transcript to compare the gene-expression between control
and treated flies: **$p<0.01$; ***$p<0.001$; ****$p<0.0001$. (D) Glucose and (E) glycogen levels of whole
flies were measured in control and PQ-treated flies. Each dot (n=3) represents a sample containing
three flies. Student's unpaired t-test: **$p<0.01$. (F) Triglyceride (TG) amounts were determined via
thin-layer chromatography (TLC). Left panel: Representative image of a TLC plate, each band
represents a sample with ten flies. Right panel: Quantification thereof. n= 3 per group were analyzed.
Student's unpaired t-test: **$p<0.01$. (G) Representative images of 7 days old *HmlΔ4>eGFP* flies treated

with 5% sucrose solution and 15mM PQ respectively. Scale bars = 500μm. (H) Hemocyte quantification
of 7 days old *HmlΔ4>eGFP* flies treated with control food (5% sucrose solution) (n=5) or 15mM
Paraquat (n=5). Each data point represents one fly. Statistical significance was tested using student's
unpaired t-test: p=0.508. (I) Survival of *crq-Gal80ts/+* control flies (n=13) and hemocyte depleted *crq-*
Gal80ts>reaper flies (n=7) on control food (n=20) and 15mM Paraquat (n=28) at 29°C. Student's
unpaired t-test: ****p<0.0001, each data point represents a sample with 10 flies. (J) TG amounts in
crq-Gal80ts/+ control flies and hemocyte-deficient *crq-Gal80ts>reaper* flies on control food or Paraquat
food. Left panel: Representative image of a TLC plate, each band represents a sample with ten flies.
Right panel: Quantification thereof. n= 3 per group were analyzed. One-way ANOVA: *p<0.05. (K)
Glucose and (L) Glycogen levels of whole flies were measured in *crq-Gal80ts/+* control flies and
hemocyte-deficient *crq-Gal80ts>reaper* flies. Each dot (n= 3) represents a sample with three whole
flies. One-way ANOVA: ****p<0.0001.

Figure 2. Unbiased single nuclei transcriptomic profiling identified diverse transcriptomic states of
hemocytes associated with oxidative stress response. (A) Uniform Manifold Approximation and
Projection (UMAP) visualization of single nucleus states from flies exposed to 15mM PQ containing or
control food. Dashed lines indicate the broad cell types. Male accessory gland main cells (MAG),
Malpighian tubule principal cells (MTC), male germline cells (MGC), outer photoreceptor cells (PRC),
tracheolar cells (TC), epithelial cells (EC). Colors indicate distinct clusters. n=11839 nuclei are shown.
(B) UMAP visualization of nuclei from **A** colored by treatment. Nuclei from control group are labeled
in red and nuclei from PQ group are labeled in blue. Dashed lines indicate the broad cell type as **A**. (C)
UMAP visualization of hemocytes from **A** after sub-setting and re-clustering. Colors and dashed lines
indicate distinct clusters. n=1354 nuclei are shown. (D) UMAP visualization of hemocyte clusters
colored by treatment. Nuclei from control group are labeled in red and nuclei from PQ group are
labeled in blue. Dashed lines indicate distinct clusters. n=1354 nuclei are shown. (E) Heat map of top
20 DE genes for each hemocyte cluster. Gene names are indicated on the left. Colors in the heat map
correspond to normalized scaled expression. (F) Volcano plots comparing pseudo bulk gene expression
of individual hemocyte cluster vs. all hemocytes. The $-\log_{10}$-transformed adjusted P value (P adjusted,
y-axis) is plotted against the $\log_2$-transformed fold change (FC) in expression between the indicated
cluster vs remaining hemocytes (x-axis). Non-regulated genes are shown in grey, not significantly
regulated genes are shown in green, significantly regulated genes with a FC<1.5 are shown in blue and
significantly regulated genes with a FC>1.5 are shown in red.

Figure 3: A specific cluster of plasmatocytes responds to oxidative stress with immune activation by
Jak/STAT, DDR and JNK signaling. (A) Key transcription factors (TFs) regulating hemocytes states. Heat
map of scaled TF activity at a single cell level in hemocytes states from **Figure 2C**. Colors in the heat
map correspond to scaled expression. Numbers on top indicate the cluster identity. Labels on the left
and right indicate the TFs. (B) Feature plots showing scaled expression of selected genes associated
with JAK/STAT signaling (*upd3*, *Socs36E*, *TotA*, *TotM*, *Fas3*), JNK and DNA damage signaling (*puc*,
Gadd45), insulin signaling (*Thor*, *InR*), TGFβ signaling (*dpp*, *daw*) and TNF signaling (*egr*).

Figure 4: **Oxidative stress induced different transcriptomic states in fat body cells, including cells with**
a distinct Jak/STAT activation signature (A) UMAP visualization of fat body cells from **Figure 2A** by
unsupervised clustering. Colors and dashed lines indicate different clusters. Each dot represents one
nucleus. n=3150 nuclei are shown. (B) UMAP of fat body cell clusters split by treatment. Nuclei from
control flies are labeled in red and nuclei from PQ treated flies are labeled in blue. Dashed lines indicate
different clusters. Each dot represents one nucleus. n=3150 nuclei are shown. (C) Heat map of top 20

DE genes for each fat body cluster. Gene names indicated on the left. Fold change of gene expression
is color coded as indicated in legend. (F) Volcano plots comparing pseudo bulk gene expression of
individual fat body cluster vs. all fat body cells. The $-\log_{10}$-transformed adjusted P value (P adjusted, y-
axis) is plotted against the $\log_2$-transformed fold change (FC) in expression between the indicated
cluster vs remaining hemocytes (x-axis). Non-regulated genes are shown in grey, not significantly
regulated genes are shown in green, significantly regulated genes with a FC<1.5 are shown in blue and
significantly regulated genes with a FC>1.5 are shown in red.

Figure 5: Loss of DNA damage signaling activity in hemocytes leads to an increase in systemic *upd3*
levels and a higher susceptibility to oxidative stress. (A) Survival of *Hml/+* (n= 28), *Hml>mei41-IR (n=*
23); *Hml>tefu-IR (n= 24); Hml>mei41-IR,tefu-IR (n= 16)* and *Hml>nbs-IR* (n= 22) flies on control food
and PQ. Each data point represents a sample of 10 flies. Mean ± SEM is shown. Three independent
experiments were performed. One-way ANOVA: ****p<0.001*; *****p<0.0001*. (B) Hemocyte
quantification of *Hml/+* control flies and DDR-knockdowns on control food (C) and 15mM Paraquat (P).
Each data point represents one fly (n=5 for all groups). Mean ± SEM is shown. One way ANOVA: *Hml/+*
(C) vs *Hml>tefu-IR* (C), ***p=0.0052*; *Hml>tefu-IR* (C) vs *Hml>tefu-IR* (P), **p=0.03* (C) Comet assay of
isolated hemocytes from *Hml/+* (C: n=73; P: n=129), *Hml>mei41-IR* (C: n=119; P: n=132) and *Hml>tefu-*
IR (C: n=175; P: n=125) - flies on control food and PQ. Olive tail moment of comet assays of sorted
hemocyte nuclei is shown. One-way ANOVA: *p<0.05; ***p<0.001; ****p<0.0001. (D) Gene
expression analysis for *Jak/STAT* target genes via RT-qPCR in *Hml/+* control flies and DDR-knockdowns
on control food (C) and 15mM Paraquat (P). All transcript levels were normalized to the expression of
the loading control *Rpl1* and are shown in arbitrary units [au]. Each data point (n=5) represents a
sample of three individual flies. Mean ± SEM is shown. Two-way ANOVA: **p<0.05*; ***p<0.01*; ***
p<0.001; *****p<0.0001*. (E) Gene expression analysis for insulin signaling target genes and *Ilps* via RT-
qPCR in *Hml/+* control flies and DDR-knockdowns on control food (C) and 15mM Paraquat (P). All
transcript levels were normalized to the expression of the loading control *Rpl1* and are shown in
arbitrary units [au]. Each data point (n=5) represents a sample of three individual flies. Mean ± SEM is
shown. Two-way ANOVA: **p<0.05*; ***p<0.01*; *** *p<0.001*; *****p<0.0001*. (F) Triglyceride (TG) levels
of *Hml/+*, *Hml>mei41-IR*, *Hml>tefu-IR, Hml>mei41-IR,tefu-IR* and *Hml>nbs-IR* flies on control food and
PQ determined via thin-layer chromatography (TLC). One representative TLC is shown (left panel).
Quantification thereof is shown on the right. Each data point (n=4 per group) represents a sample of
ten individual flies. Mean ± SEM is shown. n.d. = not detectable. One-way ANOVA was performed for
both groups (15mM PQ and control) separately: **p=0.0106*.

Figure 6: Hemocyte-derived *upd3* controls susceptibility to oxidative stress in adult *Drosophila*. (A)
Survival of *Hml/+* (n=28), *Hml>upd3-IR* (n=27) and *Hml>upd3* (n=26) flies on 15mM PQ food. Each data
point represents a sample of 10-15 flies. Mean ± SEM is shown. Three independent experiments were
performed. One-way ANOVA: *****p<0.0001*. (B) Gene expression analysis for *upd3* via RT-qPCR in
Hml/+, Hml>upd3-IR and *Hml>upd3* flies on control food (C) and 15mM Paraquat (P). Each data point
(n=5-6) represents a sample of three individual flies. Mean ± SEM is shown. Two-way ANOVA:
*****p<0.0001*. (C) Hemocyte quantifications in *Hml/+, Hml>upd3-IR* and *Hml>upd3* flies on control
food and 15mM PQ food. Each data point represents one fly (n= 5-6). Mean ± SEM is shown. One-way
ANOVA: **p<0.01. (D) Survival of *Hml/+* (n=241), *upd3^{null};Hml/+* (n=122), *Hml>upd3* (n=104),
upd3^{null};Hml>upd3 (n=57), *Hml>mei-41-IR;tefu-IR* (n=103) and *upd3^{null};Hml>mei-41-IR;tefu-IR* (n=50)
flies on 15mM PQ food at 29°C. Each data point represents a sample with 10-15 flies. Mean ± SEM is
shown. One-way ANOVA: *****p<0.0001*. (E) Survival of *Hml/+* (n=78), *Hml>hep[act]* (n=38) and
Hml>bsk-DN (n=80) flies on 15mM PQ food. Each data point represents a sample with 10 flies. Mean ±

SEM is shown. One-way ANOVA: **$p<0.01$; ****$p<0.0001$. (F) Gene expression analysis for *upd3* via

RT-qPCR of *Hml/+, Hml>hep[act]* and *Hml>bsk-DN* flies on control food (-) and 15mM Paraquat (+).

Each data point (n=5-6) represents a sample of three individual flies. Mean ± SEM is shown. Two-way

ANOVA: *$p<0.05.$

Supplementary Figure Legends

1077

Figure S1: Paraquat-induced oxidative stress does not cause gut leakage, but detrimental changes in
triglyceride storage in the fat body. (A) Survival of *Hml/+* flies treated with control food (n=8), 2mM
PQ (n=8), 15mM PQ (n=9) and 30mM PQ (n=8). Each data point represents a sample of 10 flies. Mean
± SEM is shown. One-way ANOVA: **$p<0.01$; ****$p<0.0001$. (B) Smurf assay to test the gut integrity
of 7 days old *Hml/+* flies treated with 2mM PQ (n=79), 15mM PQ (n=90), 30mM PQ (n=80) and controls
(n=80). Data was pooled from two independent experiments. (C) Gene expression analysis for *AMP*
genes via RT-qPCR in whole flies on control food (C) and 15mM Paraquat (P). All transcript levels were
normalized to the expression of the loading control *Rpl1* and are shown in arbitrary units [au]. Each
data point (n=5) represents a sample of three individual flies. Mean ± SEM is shown. (D) Gene
expression analysis for *dpp*, *daw* and *eiger* via RT-qPCR in whole flies on control food (C) and 15mM
Paraquat (P). All transcript levels were normalized to the expression of the loading control *Rpl1* and
are shown in arbitrary units [au]. Each data point (n=5) represents a sample of three individual flies.
Mean ± SEM is shown. (E) Representative light microscopic images of HE stained control flies (left
panels) and flies treated with 15mM PQ (right panels). Inserts indicate location of higher magnification
images below. Scale bar (overview) = 500 μm, scale bar (inserts) = 100 μm. (F) Representative light
microscopic images of Oil Red O stained control flies (left panels) and flies treated with 15mM PQ (right
panels). Arrows indicate stained fat droplets. Scale bar = 100 μm.

Figure S2: Gating strategy for the FACS isolation of nuclei from control and PQ-treated flies. (A) Flow
cytometric sorting strategy of nuclei used for the snRNA-seq. Doublet exclusion was performed via
gating on DRAQ7 single positive nuclei. DRAQ7^{+}DAPI[+] double positive events were considered to be
nuclei and were sorted for the snRNA-seq as previously described[49]. (B) Violin plot indicating number
of genes identified in analyzed nuclei of the sorted samples. Color code is indicated in legend. (C) Violin
plot indicating RNA counts of the analyzed nuclei of each sorted sample. Color code is indicated in
legend. (D) Violin plot indicating percentage of mitochondrial genes detected in the nuclei of each
sorted samples. Color code is indicated in legend.

Figure S3: Specific signature genes identify plasmatocyte and crystal cell clusters within the eight
identified hemocyte clusters. (A) Dot plot of hemocyte signature gene expression according to
Cattenoz et al[25]. Color code is indicated in legend. (B)-(L) Feature plots for expression levels of
respective hemocyte signature genes across all hemocyte clusters. Color-code, indicating the
expression levels of the respective genes, is shown on the right side of each graph. Gene names are
indicated above plots shown. (M) Bar plot representing distribution of nuclei derived from flies under
control condition (red) and flies treated with 15mM PQ (turquoise) across all eight identified hemocyte
clusters. Each cluster is shown as one bar. Total number of hemocytes in the respective cluster is
indicated below.

Figure S4: Fat body signature genes are highly expressed across the eight distinct fat body cell
clusters and are absent in hemocyte cell clusters. (A) Dot plot of fat body signature gene expression
according to the Fly Cell Atlas signature[24] on the eight identified hemocytes clusters. Color code is
indicated in legend. (B) Dot plot of fat body signature gene expression on the eight identified fat body
clusters. Color code is indicated in the legend. (C) Dot plot of hemocyte signature gene expression
according to Cattenoz et al.[25] on the eight identified fat body clusters. Color code is indicated in the
legend. (D) Bar plot representing distribution of nuclei derived from flies under control condition (red)

and flies treated with 15mM PQ (turquoise) across all eight identified fat body clusters. Each cluster is

shown as one bar. Total number of fat body cells in the respective cluster is indicated below.

Figure S5: PQ treatment of S2 cells *in vitro* induces reactive oxygen species, immune activation and

DNA damage. (A) Gating strategy of flow cytometric analysis of control or PQ-treated S2-cells stained

for reactive oxygen species (ROS) with CellROX. Control cells, 15mM PQ treated and 30mM PQ treated

cells are shown in the first, second and third row respectively. After doublet exclusion, dead cells were

excluded via DAPI staining. The amount of ROS was determined in the last gate were the CellROX

staining is shown. (B) Representative FACS histograms of cells treated with PQ and analyzed via CellROX

staining. Gates indicate the cut-off for determining CellROX$^+$ cells. (C) Mean fluorescence intensity

(MFI) of FACS analyzed, CellROX$^+$ cells. Data were generated from three independent experiments

(n=3). One-way ANOVA: *$p<0.05$; **$p<0.01$; ***$p<0.001$; ****$p<0.0001$*. (D) Comet assay of S2 cells

treated without PQ (n=351), 5mM PQ (n=208), 10mM PQ (n=129) and 15mM PQ (n=71). Assay was

performed in two independent experiments. Data of one representative assay are shown as violin plots

with median (red), second and third quartile. One-way ANOVA: ***$p<0.001$; ****$p>0.0001$*. (E-F) Gene

expression analysis of genes associated with JAK-STAT signaling, JNK signaling, insulin signaling is

shown in (E) and TGFβ signaling and AMPs is shown in (F). S2-cells treated with 15mM PQ for six or 24

hours. Controls were untreated. Each dot represents a sample containing RNA of 50.000 cells. One-

way ANOVA: *$p<0.05$; **$p<0.01$; ***$p<0.001$; ****$p<0.0001$*.

Figure S6: Loss of DNA damage, upd3 or JNK signaling in hemocytes alters susceptibility to oxidative

stress but not overall lifespan. (A) Representative images of *Hml/+* flies and DDR-Knockdown flies on

control food (left panels) and treated with 15mM PQ (right panels). Five individual flies per group were

analyzed. (B) Lifespan analysis of *Hml/+* (n=251)*, Hml>mei-41-IR* (n=231)*, Hml>tefu-IR* (n=219)*,*

Hml>mei-41-IR;tefu-IR (n=144) and *Hml>nbs-IR* flies (n=299). *Hml/+* vs. *Hml>mei-41-IR*: Log-rank test

****$p<0.0001$*, X^2=172.2; Wilcoxon test ****$p<0.0001$*, X^2=155.9. *Hml/+* vs. *Hml>tefu-IR*: Log-rank test

****$p<0.0001$*, X^2=56.09; Wilcoxon test ****$p<0.0001$*, X^2=50.95. *Hml/+* vs. *Hml>mei-41-IR;tefu-IR*:

Log-rank test ns, X^2=3.1; Wilcoxon test ***$p=0.0005$*, X^2=12.11. *Hml/+* vs *Hml>nbs-IR*: Log-rank test

****$p<0.0001$*, X^2=60.90; Wilcoxon test ****$p<0.0001$*, X^2=50.21. Data was obtained from three

independent experiments. (C) Starvation survival of *Hml/+* (n=607)*, Hml>mei-41-IR* (n=421)*, Hml>tefu-*

IR (n=480)*, Hml>mei-41-IR;tefu-IR* (n=266) and *Hml>nbs-IR* (n=341) flies. *Hml/+* vs. *Hml>mei-41-IR*: Log-

rank test **$p=0.0052$*, X^2=7.81; Wilcoxon test ns, X^2=0.02. *Hml/+* vs. *Hml>tefu-IR*: Log-rank test ns,

X^2=0.03; Wilcoxon test *$p=0.0153$*, X^2=5.88. *Hml/+* vs. *Hml>mei-41-IR;tefu-IR*: Log-rank test ns, X^2=0.21;

Wilcoxon test *$p=0.019$*, X^2=5.51. *Hml/+* vs *Hml>nbs-IR*: Log-rank test ***$p=0.0003$*, X^2=13.30; Wilcoxon

test ns, X^2=1.24. Data was obtained from two independent experiments. (D) Lifespan analysis of *Hml-*

Gal80^{ts}/+ (n=127)*, Hml-Gal80^{ts}>mei-41-IR* (n=140)*, Hml-Gal80^{ts}>tefu-IR* (n=164)*, Hml-Gal80^{ts}>mei-41-*

IR;tefu-IR (n=101) and *Hml-Gal80^{ts}>nbs-IR* flies (n=157). *Hml-Gal80^{ts}/+* vs. *Hml-Gal80^{ts}>mei-41-IR*: Log-

rank test ****$p<0.0001$*, chi^2=21.80; Wilcoxon test ****$p<0.0001$*, X^2=18.48. *Hml-Gal80^{ts}/+* vs. *Hml-*

Gal80^{ts}>tefu-IR: Log-rank test ***$p=0.0003$*, X^2=13.20; Wilcoxon test *$p=0.033$*, X^2=4.56. *Hml-Gal80^{ts}/+*

vs. *Hml-Gal80^{ts}>mei-41-IR;tefu-IR*: Log-rank test *$p=0.0429$*, X^2=4.10; Wilcoxon test ***$p=0.0001$*,

X^2=14.95. *Hml-Gal80^{ts}/+* vs *Hml-Gal80^{ts}>nbs-IR*: Log-rank test **$p=0.0047$*, X^2=7.99; Wilcoxon test ns,

X^2=1.68. Data was obtained from five independent experiments. (E) Survival of *Hml-Gal80^{ts}/+* (n=23)*,*

Hml-Gal80^{ts}>mei-41-IR (n=28)*, Hml-Gal80^{ts}>tefu-IR* (n=18)*, Hml-Gal80^{ts}>mei-41-IR;tefu-IR* (n=13) and

Hml-Gal80^{ts}>nbs-IR flies (n=31) on PQ food. Each dot represents a sample with ten flies. Mean ± SEM

is shown. One-way ANOVA *$p<0.05$; ****$p<0.0001$*. Data was obtained from five independent

experiments. (F) Representative images of *Hml/+, Hml>upd3-IR* and *Hml>upd3* flies on control food

(left panels) and treated with 15mM PQ (right panels). Six individual flies per group were analyzed. (G)

Lifespan analysis of *Hml/+ (n=266), Hml>upd3-IR (n=269),* and *Hml>upd3* flies (n=193). *Hml/+* vs.
Hml>upd3-IR: Log-rank test ****$p<0.0001$, X^2=96.03; Wilcoxon test ****$p<0.0001$, X^2=81.16. *Hml/+*
vs. *Hml>upd3*: Log-rank test ****$p<0.0001$, X^2=15.33; Wilcoxon test *$p=0.0124$, X^2=6.26. Results are
shown from two independent experiments. (H) Lifespan analysis of *Hml/+* (n=281), *Hml>hep[act]*
(n=117), and *Hml>bsk-DN* (n=273) flies. *Hml/+* vs. *Hml>hep[act]*; Log-rank test: n.s.; p=0.69, X^2=0.16;
Wilcoxon test: n.s. p=0.18, X^2=1.77. *Hml/+* vs. *Hml>bsk-DN*: Log-rank test: ****$p<0.0001$, X^2=25.31;
Wilcoxon test: ****$p<0.0001$, X^2=23.61. Data was obtained from two independent experiments.

Table S1: Differentially expressed genes in hemocyte clusters C1-C8.

Table S2: Differentially expressed genes in fat body cell clusters C1-C8.

Table S3: Transgenic *Drosophila* lines and primers used in the study.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6