## **TITLE**

Spatial and temporal coordination of Duox/TrpA1/Dh31 and IMD pathways is required

for the efficient elimination of pathogenic bacteria in the intestine of *Drosophila* larvae.

## **Authors**

Fatima Tleiss[1], Martina Montanari[2], Olivier Pierre[1], Julien Royet[2]*, Dani Osman[3]*,

Armel Gallet[1]* and C. Léopold Kurz[2]*

## **affiliations**

1 : Université Côte d'Azur, CNRS, INRAE, ISA, France

2: Aix-Marseille Université, CNRS, IBDM, Marseille, France

3: UMR PIMIT (Processus Infectieux en Milieu Insulaire Tropical) CNRS 9192-

INSERM 1187-IRD 249-Université de La Réunion, île de La Réunion, France.

* Corresponding authors: e-mail: armel.gallet@unice.fr; leopold.kurz@univ-amu.fr;

dani.osman@univ-reunion.fr; julien.royet@univ-amu.fr

**<u>Abstract</u>**

Multiple gut antimicrobial mechanisms are coordinated in space and time to efficiently

fight foodborne pathogens. In *Drosophila melanogaster*, production of reactive oxygen

species (ROS) and antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) together with intestinal cell renewal

play a key role in eliminating gut microbes. A complementary mechanism would be to

isolate and treat pathogenic bacteria while allowing colonization by commensals.

Using real-time imaging to follow the fate of ingested bacteria, we demonstrate that

while commensal *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* freely circulate within the intestinal

lumen, pathogenic strains such as. *Erwinia carotovora* or *Bacillus thuringiensis*, are

blocked in the anterior midgut where they are rapidly eliminated by antimicrobial

peptides. This sequestration of pathogenic bacteria in the anterior midgut requires the

Duox enzyme in enterocytes, and both TrpA1 and Dh31 in enteroendocrine cells.

Supplementing larval food with hCGRP, the human homolog of Dh31, is sufficient to

block the bacteria, suggesting the existence of a conserved mechanism. While the

IMD pathway is essential for eliminating the trapped bacteria, it is dispensable for the

blockage. Genetic manipulations impairing bacterial compartmentalization result in

abnormal colonization of posterior midgut regions by pathogenic bacteria. Despite a

functional IMD pathway, this ectopic colonization leads to bacterial proliferation and

larval death, demonstrating the critical role of bacteria anterior sequestration in larval

defense. Our study reveals a temporal orchestration during which pathogenic bacteria,

but not innocuous, are confined in the anterior part of the midgut in which they are

eliminated in an IMD pathway dependent manner.

## **AUTHOR SUMMARY**

Typically, when considering the immune response of animals to infection, we focus on

classical immunity, encompassing both innate and adaptive aspects such as

antimicrobials and circulating immune cells. However, a broader perspective on

immunity includes additional strategies that enhance host protection, such as

behavioral avoidance and internal mechanisms that restrict pathogen propagation. In

our study using *Drosophila* larvae as a model, we uncovered spatially and temporally

interconnected events that are crucial for effectively combating intestinal infections.

Our findings reveal a two-step defense mechanism: first, the larvae rapidly

discriminate between bacterial strains, effectively confining hazardous ones in the

anterior section of the intestine. These blocked bacteria trigger the synthesis and

release of antimicrobial peptides by the host, which ultimately eradicate the entrapped

pathogens. Our experiments show that larvae capable of both limiting bacteria

spreading and producing antimicrobial peptides withstand infections. In contrast, the

absence of either one of these sequential defenses results in high mortality among the

larvae, emphasizing the importance of each step and the necessity of their precise

coordination in the immune response.

## **INTRODUCTION**

One of the key avenues by which bacterial pathogens infiltrate a host is through the ingestion of contaminated food. Following the entry of bacteria in the intestine, the host defense mechanisms will operate in a temporal manner, with mechanical and constitutive chemical barriers serving as the first line of defense, followed by inducible mechanisms involving the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), the transcription, translation, and secretion of antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) as well as inter-organ signaling to cope with possible upcoming stages of infection. This temporality is evident between innate and adaptive immunity, with the former considered the primary defense line that contains and combats the threat while preparing the more subtle adaptive response.

To focus on deciphering innate immune processes, the insect *Drosophila melanogaster* has been widely and successfully used (Neyen et al., 2014; Younes et al., 2020). This model has made it possible to establish the chronology of the events involved in the defense against pathogenic bacteria. In *Drosophila,* as in all metazoans, a layer made of mucus, completed with a peritrophic membrane in insect midguts, protects the intestine lining from direct contact with pathogens (Hegedus et al., 2009; Lemaitre and Miguel-Aliaga, 2013; Pelaseyed et al., 2014). In adult *Drosophila*, a conserved immune response involving the production of ROS by Duox (Dual oxidase) enzyme in enterocytes is triggered in the intestine as early as 30 minutes after ingesting pathogenic bacteria. ROS directly damage bacterial membranes (Benguettat et al., 2018; Ha et al., 2009; Ha et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2013) but also exert an indirect effect in adults by triggering visceral spasms through the host detection of ROS mediated by the TrpA1 nociceptor and subsequent secretion of

Diuretic Hormone 31 (Dh31) by enteroendocrine cells (Benguettat et al., 2018; Du et

al., 2016a). Dh31 then binds its receptor on visceral muscles, triggering contractions

that expedite bacterial elimination (Benguettat et al., 2018). This pathway seems to be

conserved during evolution as TrpA1 is a *Drosophila* homolog of TRP receptors that

respond to noxious conditions (Ogawa et al., 2016) and Dh31 is the *Drosophila*

homolog of the mammalian CGRP (Guo et al., 2021; Nässel and Zandawala, 2019).

In parallel, the IMD innate immune pathway is activated following bacterial

peptidoglycan detection, leading to the transcription of AMP encoding genes and to

the subsequent secretion of the peptides that kill bacteria (Capo et al., 2019).

Previous study has explored the dynamics of food transit involving intestinal

valves and Dh31 in the context of *Drosophila* larvae (LaJeunesse et al., 2010)

Additionally, the perturbed circulation of bacteria within the intestine has been

documented in the literature. However, the intricate interplay between the

sequestration of bacteria in specific gut regions and their subsequent elimination has

remained largely unexplored. In our study, we leveraged a novel real-time

experimental system designed specifically for *Drosophila* larvae, enabling us to

meticulously trace the journey and ultimate fate of pathogenic bacteria ingested

alongside food. This approach has allowed us to shed light on the complex

mechanisms underpinning bacterial management within the larval gut, contributing a

significant advancement to our understanding of host-pathogen interactions at the

intestinal level. We characterized a new mechanism implicated in the blockage and

elimination of pathogenic bacteria in the anterior part of the midgut. We demonstrated

that this confinement is regulated by the ROS/TrpA1/Dh31 axis. Our results delineate

a model in which bacterial trapping arises from ROS production in the intestinal lumen

in response to pathogenic bacteria. These ROS compounds interact with TrpA1 in

Dh31-expressing enteroendocrine cells located between the anterior and middle

midgut, leading to Dh31 secretion and subsequent bacterial compartmentalization,

suggesting the closure of a valve, a midgut junction structure proposed by

(LaJeunesse et al., 2010). Interestingly, we found that we can ectopically induce the

trapping of fluorescent particles or innocuous bacteria using human CGRP that

replaces Dh31. Our findings also highlight the central role of this blockage, which acts

first allowing sufficient time for the subsequent eradication of blocked pathogens by

the IMD pathway and its downstream effectors. Collectively, our data unravel a finely

tuned coordination between the ROS/TrpA1/Dh31 axis and the IMD pathway, enabling

an effective bactericidal action of AMPs.

**RESULTS**

**Bacterial confinement in the anterior part of larval intestine**

The translucency of _Drosophila_ larvae allows for live studies of immune defense

components and their coordination in eradicating pathogenic bacteria. In our prior

work, we revealed a modified food transit in larvae exposed to the Gram-negative

opportunistic bacterium _Erwinia carotovora carotovora_ (_Ecc15_), a process that

involved TrpA1 (Keita et al., 2017).

Using blue food dye, we tracked the presence of food in the intestinal lumen and

observed that larval guts were blue without bacterial contaminants, while in the

presence of _Ecc15_, they appeared clearer (Keita et al., 2017). Such a strategy was

already used to delineate whether oral infection by _Pseudomonas entomophila_ could

modulate food transit (Liehl et al., 2006). However, our previous assay with _Ecc15_

was limited to 1h post-ingestion and using a food dye, not directly monitoring the fate

of the ingested bacteria over the time. We therefore designed a new protocol allowing

to film the fate of fluorescent bacteria once ingested by the larvae. Animals are fed for

1h with food contaminated with fluorescent bacteria to investigate the localization of

these pathogens within the intestinal tract. Following this feeding period, the animals

were transferred to a wet chamber devoid of food. This setup allowed us to monitor

the positional dynamics of the bacteria within the intestine over time, without further

food intake influencing the observations.   We tested three different fluorescent

bacteria: *Ecc15-GFP* (*Ecc*), *Bacillus thuringiensis-GFP* (*Bt*, an opportunistic Gram-

positive bacterium) and *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum-GFP* (*Lp*, a commensal Gram-

positive bacterium). After 1 hour of feeding on contaminated media, *Ecc* and *Bt* were

concentrated in the anterior midgut (Movies 1 and 2). The location of the bacteria

specifically in the anterior part of the intestine following 1h exposure was confirmed

when individuals from populations were imaged and counted (Fig 1A). The

consistently defined limits of the area containing bacteria in the anterior part of the gut

across our observations strongly indicate the presence of a physical boundary. This

reproducibility contrasts with what would be expected if the cessation of food intake

were responsible for halting bacterial progression, which would likely result in more

variable bacterial distributions within the intestine among individual subjects (Fig 1A).

Remarkably, with animals fed 1h with *Ecc* or *Bt* and transferred in a wet chamber,

tracking the GFP signal over time revealed that it remained in the anterior part of the

larva and began to fade 6 hours after ingestion (Movies1 and 2; SUPP1A and

SUPP1B). This fading suggests the elimination of the bacteria, while the larva

continued to exhibit active movements. This pattern was observed for both *Ecc* and

*Bt*. However, unlike the opportunistic bacteria *Ecc* and *Bt*, a food mixture contaminated

with *Lp* led to the bacteria being present in the posterior compartment of the larval

midgut after 1 hour of feeding and remained there throughout the 16-hour duration of

our observation (Movie 3, Fig 1A and SUPP1C) (Storelli et al., 2018). To better

characterize the blockage phenomenon, we counted the ratio of larvae with trapped

GFP-bacteria 1h post feeding. Importantly, in all our experiments, approximately 20%

of larvae displayed an absence of fluorescent bacteria within the intestinal lumen.

Notably, this proportion remained consistent across different bacterial strains used to

contaminate the food, indicating that the specific compartmentalization of pathogenic

bacteria we observed is not related to a global food-intake cessation. Instead, these

findings suggest the deployment of a targeted sequestration mechanism. Focusing on

animals containing fluorescent bacteria, we found that more than 80% of the larvae

had *Ecc* and *Bt* bacteria localized in the anterior part of the midgut (Fig 1A and 1B).

The portion of the intestine containing the fluorescent bacteria is delimited posteriorly

by an extensive turn, a region that was suggested to act like a valve (LaJeunesse et

al., 2010). To confirm our findings, we dissected the intestines of larvae that had

ingested the bacteria. Our analysis confirmed that *Ecc* and *Bt* were predominantly

located in the anterior part of the intestines, whereas *Lp* was not, supporting our initial

observations (SUPP2A). Our data collectively indicate that pathogenic bacteria, such

as *Ecc* and *Bt*, are spatially confined to the anterior part of the larval midgut before

their disappearance. In contrast, the commensal bacterium *Lp* is distributed

throughout the midgut, persisting principally in the posterior part.

**The anterior intestinal confinement of pathogenic bacteria is dose-specific and**

**occurs rapidly**

We hypothesized that the bacterial localization specifically in the anterior part of the

larval intestine was an active host response and might be dependent on the bacterial

dose. To test this, we exposed larvae to varying concentrations of *Ecc* and *Bt* and

measured the blockage ratio. We found that a concentration of $2.10^9$ *Ecc* bacteria per

ml was sufficient to induce the bacterial compartmentalization, whereas for *Bt*, a

concentration of $4.10^{10}$ *Bt* bacteria per ml was required (Fig 2A).

For all subsequent experiments, we used $4.10^{10}$ bacteria per ml.

In previous contamination assays, we arbitrary used a 1-hour time point to

assess the phenotype. However, observations of bacterial blockage occurring within

minutes suggested that this response does not require *de novo* protein synthesis by

the host. Shorter exposure times revealed that *Ecc* was blocked in the anterior part of

the intestine within 15 minutes, while *Bt* showed a similar pattern beginning at 15

minutes and completing by 30 minutes (Fig 2B and 2C). Based on these results, we

defined 1h as our standard exposure time of larvae with bacterial contaminated food.

Our assays typically involved groups of approximately 50 larvae to observe

population-level phenomena. Recent studies have suggested that larval behavior can

be influenced by group dynamics (Dombrovski et al., 2019; Dombrovski et al., 2017;

Louis and de Polavieja, 2017; Mast et al., 2014). To determine whether group size

affects the bacterial confinement, we exposed groups of varying sizes to *Bt* or *Ecc* and

measured the blockage ratio. The phenomenon proved robust even with a single larva

exposed to contaminated food, indicating that the response was not influenced by

group size under our experimental conditions (Fig 2D). Based on these findings, for

all subsequent experiments, we standardized the conditions using $4.10^{10}$ bacteria per

ml, a 1-hour exposure time, and groups of at least 20 larvae.

**Host TrpA1 and Dh31 are crucial for the blockage phenotype**

In our previous study reporting an altered food transit for larvae exposed to a food contaminated with *Ecc* (Keita et al., 2017), we identified the gene *TrpA1* as essential for the host response. The TrpA1 protein, a member of the TRP channel family, facilitates Ca2+ entry into cells at temperatures over 25°C or upon exposure to chemicals such as ROS (Du et al., 2016b; Gu et al., 2019; Guntur et al., 2015). This channel, involved in nociception (Lapointe and Altier, 2011), has been linked to intestinal muscle activity in adult *Drosophila* following *Ecc* exposure (Du et al., 2016a) and in response to ROS production by the host (Benguettat et al., 2018). We examined the role of TrpA1 during the larval response to contaminated food using *TrpA1[1]* homozygous viable mutant in the experimental setup with fluorescent *Lp, Ecc* or *Bt* bacteria. In these mutant larvae, while the localization of *Lp* in the posterior midgut remained unchanged, *Ecc* and *Bt* were found in the posterior midgut. (Fig 3A, 3B, movie 4 and SUPP3A). This observation underscores that TrpA1 is necessary for the blockage of pathogenic bacteria in the anterior midgut and suggests that the disappearance of the fluorescence observed for pathogenic bacteria within the intestine of control animals may be due to bacteria being killed rather than fading of GFP or plasmid loss. Considering previous reports on visceral contraction in adult *Drosophila* linked to ROS production, detection by TrpA1, and Dh31 secretion to expel bacteria (Benguettat et al., 2018; Du et al., 2016a), we wondered whether a similar ROS/TrpA1/Dh31 signaling axis is necessary in larvae to block pathogenic bacteria in the anterior midgut. Indeed, though the bacterial blockage we observed did not expel microorganisms, it might involve muscle contractions related to the food contamination. Thus, we tested the blockage ratio of *Dh31[KG09001]* homozygous viable mutants (*Dh31-*) exposed to *Lp, Bt* or *Ecc* bacteria. In contrast to control animals,

where fewer than 20% of larvae exhibited *Ecc* or *Bt* in the posterior section of the

intestine, for more than 60% of *Dh31*⁻ mutant larvae, the pathogenic bacteria *Bt* or *Ecc*

were localized in the posterior midgut confirming Dh31's crucial role in this mechanism

(Fig 3A and 3B, movie 5 and SUPP3B). The localization of *Lp* was not affected (Fig

3B).

Given the possibility that the compartmentalization of pathogens we observed might

be driven by bacterial virulence factors, we aimed to further investigate the underlying

mechanism. To discern whether this phenomenon was specific to pathogenic bacteria

or could extend to non-pathogenic entities, we conducted experiments to determine if

abiotic particles or non-virulent bacteria could also be ectopically sequestered within

the gut. The human Calcitonin Gene-Related Peptide (hCGRP) is the functional

homolog of Dh31. Indeed, hCGRP has been shown to promote visceral muscle

contractions in adult flies (Benguettat et al., 2018). To investigate whether the bacterial

confinement could be triggered without pathogenic bacteria in response to a hormone,

we exposed larvae to either *Lp* or Dextran-FITC in the presence of hCGRP. While *Lp*

and Dextran-FITC were normally distributed throughout the midgut, adding hCGRP to

the food induced a significant blockage (Fig 3B and 3C and movie 6). This observation

implies that the confinement of bacteria within the gut is not solely a direct

consequence of pathogen toxicity. Intriguingly, despite the larvae being housed in a

wet chamber where no further food intake occurs (which could otherwise push the

bacteria towards the posterior gut), we noted that *Lp* initially sequestered in the

anterior midgut following the administration of hCGRP began to be released after 6

hours (movie 6 and SUPP3). This is suggestive of a dynamic and reversible

phenomenon, likely linked to Dh31/hCGRP hormone metabolization. This

demonstrates that the process could be triggered independently of the bacteria by a

hormone, independently of food-intake *per se*, highlighting it as an active host

mechanism that involves a specific portion of the gut capable of limiting the circulation

of the bacteria.

**Duox in Enterocytes and Dh31 in Pros+ cells control pathogenic bacteria**

**blockage**

The activation of TrpA1, potentially leading to the release of Dh31, ((Belinskaia et al.,

2023; Kondo et al., 2010; Kunst et al., 2014) could be a consequence of ROS

production in the host larval midgut in response to *Ecc* or *Bt*. The larval intestine

comprises two main cell populations: enterocytes (ECs) and enteroendocrine cells

(EECs). In adult *Drosophila*, Dh31 is stored in EECs and is secreted in response to

TrpA1 activation, a process well documented in literature (Benguettat et al., 2018;

Chen et al., 2016; Veenstra et al., 2008). The role of ROS in the immunity of adult

*Drosophila* intestine following infection has also been reported (Chakrabarti et al.,

2012; Ha et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2013; Ryu et al., 2006). To investigate the involvement

of ROS in the larval bacterial confinement, we focused on Duox, the primary enzyme

responsible for luminal ROS production. We spatially silenced *Duox* expression using

RNA interference (*UAS-Duox_IR*) driven by an ubiquitous driver (Da-Gal4), a driver

specific of ECs (Mex-Gal4) or Pros-Gal4, a construction driving expression in EECs

and subsets of neuroblasts. In parallel, using the same set of drivers, we tested the

effects of cell-autonomous *Dh31* silencing using RNAi (*UAS-Dh31_IR*). Upon

exposing these larvae to a food mixture contaminated with fluorescent *Ecc* or *Bt*, we

assessed the blockage ratio. Our results indicate that in larvae, Duox is essential in

ECs for the blockage of both *Ecc* and *Bt* (Fig 3D). Furthermore, silencing *Dh31* in

EECs not only confirmed the mutant phenotype but also indicated that Dh31,

necessary for the confinement, is required for the phenomenon in Pros+ cells. (Fig

3D). This data underscores the pivotal roles of Duox in ECs and Dh31 in Pros+ cells

for the entrapment of pathogenic bacteria in the anterior part of the *Drosophila* larval

midgut.

**Absence of ROS prevents blockage phenotype and leads to larval death**

Our data demonstrating that Duox protein is necessary for the confinement phenotype,

implies that ROS generated by this enzyme are critical. The involvement of TrpA1, a

known ROS sensor, further highlights the significance of these compounds in the

process. To corroborate the necessity of ROS, we neutralized luminal ROS using DTT

(Dithiothreitol), a potent reducing agent known for its efficacy against ROS, mixing it

with the larval food (Benguettat et al., 2018). In normal conditions, larvae fed with *Bt*

exhibit a compartmentalization of the bacteria in the anterior part of their intestine, as

shown previously in FIG 1A, 1B and Fig 4A. However, when the larvae were exposed

to a mixture of *Bt* and DTT, the intestinal sequestration of bacteria in the anterior

midgut was abolished (Fig 4A). The effect of DTT over the blockage phenotype was

quantified using DTT mixed to Dextran-FITC in order to compare with a condition

leading to an almost full posterior localization (FIG 4B). Together our results strongly

suggest that the role of Duox enzyme in producing ROS in the larval intestine is crucial,

and these ROS act as key signals initiating the confinement mechanism. ROS may be

produced to directly limit bacterial proliferation and meanwhile trigger a cascade of

events leading to sequestration in the anterior part.

**Blockage is crucial for bacterial elimination and larval survival**

Our real-time observations showed that between 6 and 8 hours after the bacterial

compartmentalization of *Bt* or *Ecc* in the anterior midgut, the bacteria disappeared

(movies 1 and movie 2, SUPP1A and SUPP1B). This led us to investigate the

relationship between pathogen localization and larval survival. The hypothesis was

that the disappearance of the GFP signal corresponded to the bacterial death. We

therefore assessed the *Lp*, *Bt* or *Ecc* load over time in dissected midguts of control

larvae previously exposed to contaminated food and then transferred to a wet chamber

without food. Consistent with our film data, while the *Lp* load remained stable, the

quantities of *Ecc* and *Bt* diminished rapidly in the intestines of control larvae, with no

bacteria detectable 8 hours post-ingestion and blockage (Fig 5A, 5B and 5C).

However, in the intestines of *TrpA1[1]* and *Dh31-* mutants, the amount of *Bt* and *Ecc*

increased overtime (Fig 5B and 5C). Interestingly, the quantity of bacteria present in

the intestine after a 1 hour feeding period was consistent across different host genetic

backgrounds for any given bacterial species. This uniformity highlights the process'

active regulation rather than attributing the observed patterns to a simple cessation of

food intake or a global disruption of peristalsis in *Dh31* and *TrpA1* mutants resulting in

a massive and uncontrolled influx of bacteria into the posterior part of the intestine.

Unfortunately, we were unable to assess the bacterial load beyond 6 hours due to the

deterioration of the midguts. Supporting this, in movies 4 and 5 (SUPP3A and

SUPP3B), we observed that *Bt* or *Ecc* bacteria which were not blocked in the anterior

part of the midgut did not disappear over time. More importantly, *TrpA1[1]* and *Dh31-*

mutant larvae containing *Bt* or *Ecc* stopped to move suggesting they were dead. We

confirmed the precocious death of the *TrpA1[1]* and *Dh31-* larvae fed with either *Bt* or

*Ecc* compared to control animals (Fig 5D and 5E). Importantly, these mutants

exhibited sustained viability overnight in the wet chamber after having been fed 1h

with a mixture containing *Lp* or a bacteria-free diet (Fig 5E). Interestingly, control larvae

fed a mixture of *Bt* and DTT, which neutralizes ROS and thus inhibits the confinement,

also perished (Fig 5F). This mortality was not due to DTT, as larvae fed Dextran-FITC

plus DTT survived (FIG 5F). These findings suggest that, in larvae, the blockage of *Bt*

and *Ecc* in the anterior part of the midgut – involving a sequence of events with ROS

production by Duox, TrpA1 activation by ROS, and Dh31 secretion – is essential for

bacterial elimination by the host. Thus, failure to compartmentalize pathogenic

bacteria like *Ecc* or *Bt* results in their proliferation and consequent larval death.

**338   The confined area is delimited by TrpA1+/Dh31+ cells and muscular structures**

The above results suggest a working model involving the ROS/TrpA1/Dh31 axis in

which Dh31 release from EECs leads to muscle contractions. However, unlike in adult

*Drosophila*, where bacteria are expelled from the gut, in larvae, we observed a

blockage mechanism. To better understand the physiology of the process, we utilized

confocal microscopy to thoroughly examine larval midguts and explore the relationship

between TrpA1-positive (TrpA1+) cells, anterior confinement of the bacteria, and

muscular structures. In larval midguts, TrpA1+ cells were also Dh31+, and these

Dh31+ cells were identified as EECs (Pros+), typically located at the end of the anterior

midgut. With the reporter line we used (*TrpA1*-Gal4/UAS-RFP), we noted an average

of 3 TrpA1+/Dh31+ cells per gut (ranging from 2 to 6 cells across 14 examined guts,

see source data file) (Fig 6A-6F). This observation was in agreement with our genetic

and functional data linking Dh31 with Pros+ cells including EECs (FIG 3D) and

suggested that TrpA1 and Dh31 operate within the same cells (Fig 6C, 6C' and 6C'').

The shape of these TrpA1+ Dh31+ cells was characteristic of EECs (Fig 6A'). In

agreement with a model involving an interaction of secreted ROS with TrpA1 and a

subsequent local Dh31 release to act on muscles, following exposure to food

contaminated with fluorescent *Bt* or *Ecc*, the bacteria were confined in an area

delimited by the anterior part of the gut and the TrpA1+ cells patch (Fig 6B).

Additionally, we observed that the amount of Dh31 within Pros+ cells of larvae

confining bacteria was lower compared to those not exhibiting the blockage, such as

*TrpA1* mutant (Fig 6D and 6E). Then, we wondered whether specific muscle structures

would exist close to the TrpA1+ cells in the anterior midgut. Actin labeling revealed

fibrous structures on the basal side of the gut and attached to it in a transversal position

(Fig 6C'' and 6F-6H'). These structures, typically lost during dissection, have been

described previously, and the hypothesis of their connection with a valve at the junction

with the midgut was proposed in a report studying larval midgut peristalsis

(LaJeunesse et al., 2010). Notably, the attachment points of these filaments, or

tethers, corresponded with the locations of TrpA1+ cells and the boundary of the area

where *Ecc* or *Bt* were confined (Fig 6C'' and 6F-H). These filaments have been

described as longitudinal muscles emanating from two out of the four gastric caeca,

but this might be a misinterpretation of the images generated by Lajeunesse et al.

(2010). Indeed, a recent study describes these muscular structures using *in vivo*

observations without dissections. Interestingly, they show that these muscles belong

to a subgroup of alary muscles named TARMs (Thoracic Alary Related Muscles)

(Bataillé et al., 2020). Specifically, TARMsT1 connect the anterior of the larvae to the

extremities of gastric caeca, while TARMsT2 link the anterior part of the gut to the

larval epidermis. Our findings support the hypothesis that the observed muscular

structures close to the TrpA1+ cells are TARMsT2 (Fig 6C'', 6F-6H', SUPP 4 and

movie 7). These TARMsT2 are attached to the longitudinal gut muscles and the

intestine forms a loop at the attachment site (Fig 6H' and SUPP4) (Bataillé et al.,

2020). The presence of Dh31+ EECs in this specific curved region of the gut close to

the TARMsT2 attachment (Fig 6C'') led to the hypothesis that this region may act like

a valve (LaJeunesse et al., 2010). Our genetic, functional and physiological data

confirm this model and reveal a new and crucial role in the context of pathogenic

bacteria ingestion.

**IMD pathway is mandatory for eliminating trapped bacteria**

In our study, we observed that control larvae were able to kill *Ecc* and *Bt* bacteria

trapped in the anterior part of the gut within 6-8 hours (==movies 1 and 2 and Fig 5A-C==).

This finding raised questions about the mechanism of bacterial elimination and the

potential role of the IMD (Immune Deficiency) pathway in this process. While larval

intestinal immunity is multifaceted, a key defense mechanism against bacteria is the

production and secretion of AMPs (Hanson and Lemaitre, 2020). Thus, we focused

our investigations on AMPs. Both *Ecc* and *Bt* possess DAP-type peptidoglycans

(PGN), known to activate the IMD signaling cascade, which leads to the production of

AMPs like Diptericin (Kaneko et al., 2006; Leulier et al., 2003; Stenbak et al., 2004).

We used various mutants deficient in components of the IMD pathway, including

PGRP-LC and PGRP-LE (PGN receptors), Dredd (an intracellular component), and

Relish (a NF-kB transcription factor) (Zhai et al., 2018). Additionally, we studied a

mutant, *ΔAMP14*, lacking 14 different AMPs (Carboni et al., 2022). We first assayed

whether the IMD pathway was required for the blockage phenotype upon ingestion of

*Bt* or *Ecc*. While *Lp* was distributed throughout the gut of IMD pathway mutants, *Ecc*

and *Bt* were confined to the anterior part of the intestine, akin to control larvae (==movies==

==8-12, SUPP5 and SUPP6 and Fig 7A and 7B==). Thus, the IMD pathway is not required

for the compartmentalization of *Ecc* and *Bt* in larval intestines. Nevertheless, the

movies suggested a death of the IMD mutant larvae despite the blockage of either *Bt*

or *Ecc*. We therefore tested the survival of these IMD pathway mutants following a 1h

feeding with a mixture containing or not (water) fluorescent bacteria followed by a transfer into a humid chamber. While neither control animals nor the IMD pathway mutants died following a 1h feeding period with a *Lp* contaminated or non-contaminated food and transfer into a humid chamber, all the IMD pathway mutants, including *ΔAMP14*, had a decreased survival after exposure to *Ecc* or *Bt* (Fig 7C and 7D). Thus, the IMD pathway is central for the survival of these animals with bacteria blocked in the anterior part of the intestine. As this increased lethality in IMD pathway mutants might be related to an uncontrolled growth of the confined *Bt* and *Ecc* bacteria, we performed CFU counting. With *Bt* and *Ecc*, while the initial inoculum was divided by $10^3$ in 8h in the control larvae, the bacterial population was maintained and even increased 10-fold in IMD pathway mutants including *ΔAMP14* (Fig 7E and 7F). Additional observations from filming the fate of *Bt* and *Ecc* in IMD pathway mutant larvae confirmed these findings (movies 8-12). The GFP-bacteria, although sequestered in the anterior part of the intestine, did not disappear, coinciding with larval immobility and presumed death. In conclusion, our findings illustrate that although the IMD pathway is dispensable for the initial compartmentalization of pathogenic bacteria, a process contingent on the ROS/TrpA1/Dh31 axis, it plays a crucial role in their subsequent elimination. Indeed, the AMPs produced following IMD pathway activation are essential for killing the trapped bacteria and ensuring larval survival (Figure 8).

**DISCUSSION**

428  Leveraging the transparency of the *Drosophila* larvae, we have successfully

429 developed a novel real-time experimental system to monitor the fate of fluorescent

430 bacteria ingested along with food. This methodological advancement has enabled us

431 to unveil a previously uncharacterized physiological pathway necessary for the

432 efficacy of the larval intestinal immune response. Our research has uncovered a

433 unique defense mechanism centered around the presumed valve located in the

434 anterior midgut, regulated by the enteroendocrine peptide Dh31 (LaJeunesse et al.,

435 2010). Notably, we observed that the pathogenic bacteria we tested, were confined to

436 the anterior section of the larval intestine as early as 15 minutes post-ingestion. We

437 determined that this intestinal sequestration of pathogenic bacteria necessitates a

438 ROS/TrpA1/Dh31 axis initiated by Duox activity in enterocytes in response to

439 pathogenic bacteria. We suspect the secreted ROS to interact with the TrpA1 ion

440 channel receptor located in Dh31-expressing enteroendocrine cells adjacent to the

441 valve-like structure (Figure 8). Previous studies on the interaction between ROS and

442 TrpA1 support our hypothesis (Ogawa et al., 2016). The confining of pathogenic

443 bacteria to the anterior part of the larval intestine is a mandatory step prior to their

444 subsequent elimination by the IMD pathway. Intriguingly, previous studies utilizing

445 fluorescent bacteria have already highlighted a specific localization of pathogenic

446 bacteria in the larval gut. Bacteria such as *Ecc15*, *Pseudomonas entomophila*,

447 *Yersinia pestis*, *Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium*, and *Shigella flexneri* were

448 observed predominantly in the anterior part of the larval gut 6 hours after oral infection

449 (Basset et al., 2000; Bosco-Drayon et al., 2012; Earl et al., 2015; Ramond et al., 2021;

450 Vodovar et al., 2005). Our findings suggest that these bacteria can all induce ROS

451 production by enterocytes, providing a unifying mechanism for their containment and

elimination in the larval gut. Interestingly, it has been reported that the opportunistic

pathogen *Staphylococcus aureus (strain USA300)* predominantly colonizes the

posterior midgut of *Drosophila* larvae, leading to the death of 93% of the larvae

(Ramond et al., 2021). This strain of *S. aureus* produces high levels of detoxifying

enzymes, such as catalase and superoxide dismutases, which effectively neutralize

ROS. The authors suggested that the neutralization of ROS bactericidal activity by

these enzymes is directly responsible for the bacterial proliferation and consequent

host mortality (Ramond et al., 2021). However, considering our findings, we propose

a complementary or an alternative interpretation: the neutralization of ROS by these

detoxifying enzymes might prevent the bacterial compartmentalization, thereby

allowing *S. aureus* to access and establish in the posterior midgut. Our data also

indicate that when pathogenic bacteria reach the posterior midgut, as observed in

larvae fed with DTT or in *TrpA1* or *Dh31* mutants, larval survival is significantly

jeopardized. This suggests that larval mortality could be attributed not to the inhibition

of ROS in the posterior midgut but rather to the presence of bacteria in this region. In

the study by Ramond et al. (2021) involving *S. aureus*, the observation of bacterial

spread into the posterior part was recorded 3 hours post-infection. It would be insightful

to further investigate the dynamics of bacterial diffusion to determine whether, like

other pathogens we studied, *S. aureus* is initially confined to the anterior part of the

gut shortly after ingestion, specifically around 15 minutes post-infection. This could

provide a broader understanding of the interplay between pathogen-specific strategies

and host defense mechanisms in *Drosophila* larvae.

Our study has focused on an elbow-shaped region in the *Drosophila* larval

midgut, characterized by a narrowing of the lumen and surrounded by muscular fibers.

This region, where we observed a halt in transit when food is contaminated, has been

aptly termed a valve due to its functional similarity to the human pyloric region.

Interestingly, LaJeunesse et al. (2010) reported the presence of muscular fibers in this

area while Bataillé et al. (2020) identified them as a subgroup of alary muscles known

as TARMs (Thoracic Alary Related Muscles). Specifically, TARMsT1 connect the

anterior part of the larvae to the extremities of a pair of gastric caeca, whereas

TARMsT2 link the anterior part of the intestine to the larval epidermis. Our actin

staining corroborates the identification of these muscles as TARMsT2, which are

attached to the longitudinal muscles of the intestine, causing the intestine to form a

loop at the site of attachment (Bataillé et al., 2020). The presence of Dh31-positive

enteroendocrine cells (EECs) in this specific elbow-shaped region, close to the

TARMsT2 attachment point, combined with our genetic and functional data, supports

the hypothesis that this region could exhibit a valve-like activity. This activity is likely

triggered by Dh31 or human Calcitonin Gene-Related Peptide (hCGRP) following

bacterial exposure. Notably, our previous research in adult *Drosophila* showed that

Dh31/hCGRP secretion by EECs induces contractions of the visceral longitudinal

muscle fibers, expelling pathogenic bacteria rapidly (Benguettat et al., 2018).

However, in larvae, while Dh31/hCGRP likely induces muscle contractions, the

ensuing action may manifest as the closure of the midgut junction, as evidenced by

the observed retention of pathogenic bacteria. Importantly, in both larvae and adults,

the same pathway and type of muscle fibers appear to be involved, as TARMsT2 are

connected to longitudinal fibers (Figure 6H') (LaJeunesse et al., 2010). This finding is

significant as it illustrates a conserved mechanism across developmental stages,

albeit with different outcomes: expulsion of pathogens in adults and containment in

larvae. In both cases, the overarching objective is the effective elimination of

pathogens, demonstrating the versatility and adaptability of the *Drosophila* immune

response.

Hence, our work shed lights on a yet to be anatomically characterized valve

structure within the *Drosophila* larval gut, presenting a potential model for studying the

functions and roles of mammalian pylori. Notably, CGRP (Calcitonin Gene-Related

Peptide) secreting enteroendocrine cells have been identified in the mammalian

pylorus, as highlighted in research by (Kasacka, 2009) and (Bulc et al., 2018). Drawing

parallels with mammalian stomachs, the pylorus is typically closed, opening only when

the stomach becomes full. In exploring the functionality of the *Drosophila* valve we

studied, we considered two hypotheses: one, where it operates similarly to its

mammalian counterpart, closing by default and opening in response to a full stomach,

and another, where it remains open by default and closes upon detection of infected

food in the intestine. Our observations with the commensal bacteria *Lp* (movie 3)

suggest an initial closure of the pylorus as food accumulates in the anterior part of the

intestine, followed by its opening to allow the passage of non-pathogen-contaminated

food. This indicates a dynamic and responsive mechanism in the *Drosophila* gut. In

contrast, when *Drosophila* larvae encounter food contaminated with pathogenic

bacteria, the valve seems to contract, effectively blocking the passage of contaminated

food into the anterior part of the intestine. This finding is significant as it not only

reveals a unique physiological response in *Drosophila* larvae but also provides a basis

for comparative studies with the mammalian gastrointestinal system, particularly in

understanding the regulatory mechanisms governing pyloric function.

An intriguing question is why animals without a functional IMD pathway die from

*Ecc* or *Bt* exposure while ROS production is still operating? Indeed, when the IMD

pathway is disabled, bacteria are still confined in the anterior part of the gut, but are

not effectively eliminated, resulting in larval death. This outcome strongly suggests

that ROS alone are insufficient for bacterial eradication, even though they have been

shown to damage and inhibit bacterial proliferation (Benguettat et al., 2018; Ha et al.,

2005). However, the role of ROS in the immune response remains crucial since their

timing of expression before antimicrobial peptides is likely a key factor for the efficiency

of the immune response. Our findings, together with those from other studies, highlight

the critical role of AMPs in fighting off virulent intestinal bacteria, particularly in

scenarios where ROS activity is compromised or inadequate (Ramond et al., 2021;

Ryu et al., 2006). Our findings emphasize the critical role of the ROS/TrpA1/Dh31 axis

in effectively eradicating ingested pathogens. The rapid production of ROS following

bacterial ingestion plays a pivotal role in closing the valve and retaining virulent

bacteria in the anterior midgut. Notably, this process does not necessitate a

transcriptional/translation response. In contrast, the production of antimicrobial

peptides is a lengthier process, involving the transcriptional activation of *AMP* genes

downstream of the IMD pathway, followed by their translation and secretion. The initial

confinement of bacteria in the anterior midgut allows time for AMPs to be produced to

eliminate the trapped bacteria, which is crucial for the organismal survival. This

anterior bacterial blockage is important since when virulent bacteria reach the

posterior midgut (in absence of ROS or in *TrpA1* or *Dh31* mutants) the larvae die

despite a functional IMD pathway. A key question arises: Is the posterior midgut less

equipped to combat bacteria? Research by (Bosco-Drayon et al., 2012) suggests that

while the posterior midgut can produce AMPs, this portion of the gut is predominantly

dedicated to dampening the immune response, particularly through the production of

amidases. This permits an immune tolerance likely fostering the establishment of the

commensal flora. Consistent with this, we observed that commensal bacteria like *Lp*

transit from the anterior to the posterior midgut and persist there without compromising

larval survival. Additionally, *Lp* inherent resistance to AMPs (Arias-Rojas et al., 2023)

further underscores the idea that the anterior midgut serves as a checkpoint where

certain bacteria are detained and eliminated, while others, like *Lp*, are permitted to

pass through. When the compartmentalization mechanism is compromised,

pathogens or pathobionts can spread into the posterior midgut, potentially eliciting an

inadequate dampened immune response. Thus, the anterior midgut acts as a critical

juncture in determining the fate of ingested bacteria, either leading to their elimination

or allowing their passage to the posterior midgut, where a more tolerant immune

environment prevails.

Understanding the practical application of this defense mechanism in the natural

environment of *Drosophila melanogaster* larvae is crucial. In the wild, *Drosophila*

adults are typically drawn to rotting fruits on which they lay eggs, exposing them and

their progeny to a plethora of fungi and bacteria. Consequently, developing larvae feed

and grow in these non-sterile conditions. In such environments, encountering

pathogenic microbes is inevitable. Evasion or avoidance behavior has been

documented as a potential strategy for dealing with pathogens (Surendran et al.,

2017). This behavior might enable larvae to seek environments that will supposedly

better sustain their survival. However, given the larvae constant consumption of their

surrounding media in a race to reach pupation, ingestion of pathogen-contaminated

food is a common risk. Under these circumstances, larvae have limited options prior

to the activation of their innate immune response. Discriminating innocuous from

potentially deleterious bacteria and then limiting the transit of the latter ones for

subsequent elimination by AMPs, clearly benefits the host. Nonetheless, the

effectiveness of this blockage strategy would be maximized if it were coordinated with

evasion behaviors. Such coordination could prevent repeated engagement in this

energy-intensive immune response, thus optimizing the larvae chances of reaching

pupation successfully. This interplay between immune response and behavioral

adaptation underlines the sophisticated strategies employed by *Drosophila* larvae to

navigate their microbial-rich environment.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**1-Bacterial strain**

We used the following strains: *Bacillus-thuringiensis*-GFP (*Bt*) (Hachfi et al., 2023) (the

original strain, 4D22, is from the Bacillus Genetics Stock Center - www.bgsc.org),

*Erwinia carotovora* subsp. *carotovora*-GFP *15* (*Ecc*) (Basset et al., 2000) and

*Lactiplantibacillus plantarum*-GFP (*Lp*) (gift from Renata Matos and François Leulier)

(Storelli et al., 2018). *Bt* and *Ecc* were grown on standard LB agar plates at 30°C and

*Lp* was grown in MRS medium in anaerobic conditions at 37°C for at least 18 hours.

The solid medium used in our experiments was supplemented with antibiotics to

ensure the selective growth of our bacterial strains as follows: *Ecc*: Spectinomycin at

100µg/ml; *Bt*: Erythromycin at 10µg/ml; *Lp*: Chloramphenicol at 10µg/ml. Each

bacterium was plated from glycerol stocks for each experiment. A single colony was

used to prepare liquid cultures. Bacteria were inoculated in 500 ml of appropriate

medium containing antibiotics as follows *Ecc*: Spectinomycin at 100 µg/ml; *Bt*:

Erythromycin at 10µg/ml; *Lp*: Chloramphenicol at 10µg/ml. After overnight growth, the

cultures were centrifuged for 15 min at 7500 rpm. Bacterial infectious doses were

adjusted by measuring culture turbidity at an optical density of 600 nm. $OD_{600}$=100 for

*Lp* and *Ecc* corresponds to $4.9.10^7$CFU/µl. $OD_{600}$=100 for *Bt* corresponds to

$1,5.10^7$CFU/µl.

**2-FLY Stocks**

Flies were maintained at 25 °C on our standard fly medium (Nawrot-Esposito et al.,

2020) with12:12 light/dark cycle. Fly stocks used in this study and their origins are as

follows: Canton S (Bloomington #64349, the reference to compare with mutants and

noted as control), *TrpA1[1]* (Bloomington #26504), *Dh31[KG09001]* (Bloomington #16474),

*Dh31-Gal4* (Bloomington #51988), *PGRP-LC[ΔE]* (Bloomington #55713), *PGRP-LE[112]*

(Bloomington #33055), *Dredd[F64]* (Gift from B. Charroux), *Relish[E20]* (Bloomington

#55714), *ΔAMP14* (Gift from B. Lemaitre; (Carboni et al., 2022)), *TrpA1*-Gal4/UAS-

RFP (Gal4 is Bloomington #527593, UAS is Bloomington #27392), *Da*-Gal4

(Bloomington #55851), *Pros*-Gal4 (gift form B. Charroux), *Mex*-Gal4 (gift from B.

Charroux), UAS-*Duox _IR* (Bloomington #38907), UAS-*Dh31_IR*

(Bloomington#25925).

**3-Infection experiments**

Oral infections were performed on mid-L3 larvae (3.5 days after egg laying). For each

experiment, between 20 and 50 non-wandering L3 larvae raised at 25°C were

collected and washed in PBS (1x). Bacterial pellets with starting OD 600nm ranging

from 300 to 400 were aligned with PBS1x at twice the desired final concentration.

Then, they were mixed 1:1 with yeast 40% in PBS (1x) and 500 µl of the infected food

were added at the bottom of an empty plastic fly vial (VWR) before adding the larvae

and sealing it with Parafilm. Then, the larvae were placed at 25°C in the dark. After 60

min, the larvae were washed in PBS (1x) and then counted for the presence of GFP-

bacteria or for other analyses.

**4-Larvae dissection**

625    After 60 min, the infected larvae were washed in PBS (1x). Guts were dissected and

626    fixed in formaldehyde 4% for 45 min, then washed twice in PBS (1x) for 10 min. Guts

627    were mounted between poly-L-lysine (SIGMA P8920-100ML) coated slides and

628    coverslips in Vectashield/DAPI (Vector Laboratories).

**5- Colony-forming unit (CFU) counting**

Following the established protocol for infection experiments, animals were exposed to

contaminated food for 1 hour. Subsequently, animals that had ingested bacteria were

either immediately processed for the initial time-point analysis or transferred to a wet

chamber for assessment at subsequent time-points. Importantly, since there was no

further exposure to contaminated food beyond the 1-hour treatment period, the CFU

assays we conducted measured the changes in the initial bacterial load within the

larvae over time. Infected animals were washed in ethanol 70% for 30s then rinsed in

PBS (1x). Guts were dissected in PBS (1x) and homogenized with a micropestle in

200 µl of LB medium. Samples were serially diluted in LB medium and plated on LB

agar plates overnight at 30°C. The Colonies Forming Unit (CFU) were counted the

following day. CFU counting has been performed at 5 time points: 1h, 2h, 4h, 6h and

8h after a 60 min intoxication (at least 20 larvae per point and 3 independent repeats).

**6-Mortality test**

Oral infection of the larvae was performed as described above in *Infection*

*experiments*. Larvae of the different genotypes fed 1h with *Bt*, *Lp* or *Ecc* were quickly

washed in 70% ethanol and then PBS (1x). Only the larvae that have eaten (containing

GFP bacteria in their intestine) were selected and put in a wet chamber for 18h at

25°C. Mortality was evaluated at this time-point.

**7- DTT and CGRP feeding**

Oral infection of the larvae was performed as described above in *Infection*

*experiments*.

**DTT:** DTT was added to the food at a final concentration of 100 nM and larvae were

fed during 60 min.

**hCGRP:** hCGRP (Sigma #C0167) was resuspended in distilled water. Larvae were

fed 1h as described above with a final hCGRP concentration of 400 µg/ml.

**8-Immunostaining**

Dissected intestines were washed twice with PBS (1x)-0.1% Triton X100 then

incubated for 3h in the blocking solution (10% of fetal calf serum, 0.1% Triton X100,

PBS (1x)). The blocking solution was removed and the primary antibodies added and

incubated overnight à 4°C in blocking solution. The following antibodies were used:

mouse anti-Prospero (MR1A-c, Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank (DSHB)) at

1:200 and rabbit anti-Dh31 (gift from Jan Veenstra and Michael Nitabach; (Kunst et

al., 2014; Park et al., 2008) at 1:500. Secondary antibodies used were anti-mouse

Alexa647 (Invitrogen Cat# A-21235), anti-rabbit Alexa546 (Invitrogen Cat# A-11010).

All secondary antibodies were used at 1:1000. Guts were mounted in Fluoroshield-

DAPI mounting medium (Sigma F6057). Observations of GFP producing bacteria and

of TRPA1+ cells were done using the native fluorescence without immunostaining.

**9-RNAi experiments**

All the tested animals were F1 obtained from a cross between parents possessing the Gal4 transgene and parents possessing the UAS-RNAi construction or from crosses between w- animals (genetic background of the Gal4 and UAS lines) and a transgenic line to serve as ctrl. The larvae were then fed with contaminated food as described above.

**10-Images and movie acquisition**

Images acquisition was performed at the microscopy platform of the Institut Sophia Agrobiotech (INRAE 1355-UCA-CNRS 7254-Sophia Antipolis) with the macroscope Zeiss AxioZoom V16 with an Apotome 2 or a Zeiss Axioplan Z1 with Apotome 2 microscope. Images were analyzed using ZEN and Photoshop softwares. Movie acquisitions were performed with the macroscope Zeiss AxioZoom V16 equipped with the Hamamatsu Flash 4LT Camera. Larvae were captured every 5 minutes. Dead larva images were acquired with a numeric Keyence VHX 2000 microscope.

**11-Data representation and statistical analyses**

The Graphpad Prism 8 software was used for statistical analyses.

CFU data analysis: the D'Agostino–Pearson test to assay whether the values are distributed normally was applied. As not all the data sets were considered normal, non-parametric statistical analysis such as non-parametric unpaired Mann–Whitney two-tailed tests was used for all the data presented.

Blockage ratio and survival ratio datasets: as the values obtained from one larva are categorical data with a *Yes* or *No* value, we used the two-sided Fisher exact t-test and

the 95% confidence interval to test the statistical significance of a possible difference

between a test sample and the related control.

For all the quantitative assays, at least 3 independent experiments were performed

and some were done in two different laboratories by more than one experimenter. The

results from all the experiments were gathered and the total amount of larvae tested

is indicated in the source data file. In addition, we do not show the average response

from one experiment representative of the different biological replicates, but an

average from all the data generated during the independent experiments in one graph.

**12-Source data files: detailed lines, conditions and statistics for the figure**

**section**

A file containing raw data, all the details about the experiments including the replicates,

sample size, genotypes and detailed statistical analyzes is available

https://figshare.com/articles/dataset/Tleiss_et_al_lockdown_Source_Data_File/2501

8352

DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.25018352

## FIGURE LEGENDS

## FIGURE 1

**Contrary to *Lp*, *Ecc* or *Bt* bacteria are found exclusively in the anterior part of the gut.**

**A**: Pictures to illustrate the position of the green fluorescence of control L3 stage larvae as a group (upper panel) or individual (lower panel) after having been fed 1h with a media containing yeast and GFP-producing bacteria (*Ecc* or *Bt* or *Lp*). The white asterisk indicates the anterior part of the animal. The white arrow indicates the posterior limit of the area containing the fluorescent bacteria. Below the pictures are schematics representing larvae, their gut, and the relative position of the GFP-producing bacteria in green. Scale bar is 1mm.

**B**: Graphic representing the blockage ratio for L3 larvae exposed during 1h to a mixture composed of yeast and fluorescent bacteria. The ratio of control larvae with a distinguishable green fluorescence only in the upper part of the intestine, considered as blocked bacteria, is represented. The ratio is calculated as: x larvae with bacteria exclusively in the anterior part of the gut / (x larvae with bacteria exclusively in the anterior part of the gut + y larvae with bacteria all along the gut). Larvae with no distinguishable fluorescence were considered as non-eaters and discarded from the quantifications. The ratio of larvae with no distinguishable fluorescence was not influenced by the different conditions we tested. Shown is the average blockage ratio with a 95% confidence interval from at least 3 independent assays with at least 30 animals per condition and trial. **** indicates $p < 0,0001$, Fisher exact t-test. See the source data file for details.

**FIGURE 2**

**Bacterial blockage is dose-dependent, occurs in less than 30 minutes, and does**

**not involve a group effect.**

**A**: Blockage ratio for control L3 larvae fed 1h with a mixture combining yeast with

different concentrations of fluorescent *Ecc* or *Bt*, concentrations are in number of

bacteria per ml. Shown is the average blockage ratio with a 95% confidence interval

from at least 3 independent assays with at least 18 animals per condition and trial. ****

indicates p<0,0001, Fisher exact t-test. See the source data file for details.

**B**: Representative images of control larvae fed during 30 min. with *Bt*. Scale bar is

1mm.

**C**: Blockage ratio for control L3 larvae fed during various times with a mixture

combining yeast with *Ecc* or *Bt*. Shown is the average blockage ratio with a 95%

confidence interval from at least 3 independent assays with at least 20 animals per

condition and trial. ns indicates values with differences not statistically significant, ****

indicates p<0,0001, Fisher exact t-test. See the source data file for details.

**D**: Blockage ratio for control L3 larvae fed 1h as individual animals or as groups of 10

or >40 with a mixture combining yeast with a constant concentration of *Ecc* or *Bt*

$(4.10^{10}$ bacteria per ml). Shown is the average blockage ratio with a 95% confidence

interval from at least 3 independent assays with the exact number of animals indicated

per condition and trial. ns indicates values with differences not statistically significant,

Fischer exact t-test. See the source data file for details.

**FIGURE 3**

**The bacterial blockage necessitates Duox in enterocytes, the TrpA1 channel and**

**Dh31 in Pros+ cells.**

**A**: Pictures to illustrate the localization of the fluorescent bacteria within the intestine

of control (ctrl), *Trpa1*[1] or *Dh31*⁻ L3 larvae after having been fed 1h with a mixture of

yeast and *Ecc*. Scale bar is 1mm.

**B**: Blockage ratio for control (ctrl) L3 larvae or mutants for *Trpa1*[1] or *Dh31*⁻ fed 1h with

a mixture combining yeast and *Lp* or *Ecc* or *Bt* or fluorescent Dextran with or without

hCGRP hormone. Shown is the average blockage ratio with a 95% confidence interval

from at least 3 independent assays with at least 30 animals per condition and trial. 0

indicates an absence of blockage. **** indicates p<0,0001, Fisher exact t-test. See the

source data file for details.

**C**: Pictures to illustrate the localization of the fluorescence within the intestine of control

L3 larvae after having been fed 1h with a mixture of yeast and fluorescent Dextran

with or without hCGRP hormone. Below the pictures are schematics representing

larvae, their gut, and the relative position of the fluorescence in green. Scale bar is

1mm.

**D**: Blockage ratio for animals expressing RNA interference constructions directed

against *Duox* mRNA or *Dh31* mRNA, ubiquitously (Da-Gal4), in enterocytes (Mex-

Gal4) or in enteroendocrine cells (Pros-Gal4) and then fed 1h with a mixture combining

yeast and *Ecc* or *Bt*. Shown is the average blockage ratio with a 95% confidence

interval from at least 3 independent assays with at least 30 animals per condition and

trial. ns indicates values with differences not statistically significant, **** indicates

p<0,0001 , Fisher exact t-test. See the source data file for details.

**FIGURE 4**

**Blocking the ROS with DTT prevents the compartmentalization of _Bt_, and the**

**larvae with bacteria in the posterior part of the intestine die.**

**A**: Pictures to illustrate the localization of the fluorescence within the intestine of

control (ctrl) L3 larvae after having been fed 1h with a mixture of yeast and _Bt_ with or

without DTT. Below the pictures are schematics representing larvae, their gut, and

the relative position of the fluorescent bacteria in green. Scale bar is 1mm.

**B**: Blockage ratio for control (ctrl) L3 larvae fed 1h with a mixture combining yeast,

DTT and fluorescent Dextran or _Bt_. Shown is the average blockage ratio with a 95%

confidence interval from at least 3 independent assays with at least 18 animals per

condition and trial. ns indicates values with differences not statistically significant,

Fisher exact t-test. See the source data file for details.

 **FIGURE 5**

**In the absence of blockage in *TrpA1[1]* or *Dh31⁻* mutants, *Bt* and *Ecc* proliferate**

**in the larval intestine and the larvae die.**

**A**, **B** and **C**: quantification over time of the amount of *Lp*, (A), *Bt* (B) or *Ecc* (C) live

bacteria within the larval intestine of control (ctrl) (A, B and C), *Dh31⁻* (B and C) and

*TrpA1[1]* (B and C) animals following a 1h feeding period with a solution containing

yeast and bacteria. CFU stands for Colony Forming Units. Shown is the average ±

SEM of at least 3 independent experiments with at least 7 guts each. After 8h, either

all the *TrpA1[1]* or *Dh31⁻* larvae were dead or the intestines were severely damaged

preventing the CFU counting. * Indicates p<0,05, Mann Whitney, two-tailed test. See

the source data file for details.

**D**: Pictures of control (ctrl) or *TrpA1[1]* or *Dh31⁻* larvae after 8h in a wet chamber

following a 1h feeding with a mixture of yeast and *Bt.* For control larvae, some animals

made pupae that are visible while for *TrpA1[1]* and *Dh31⁻*mutants, the dark larvae are

dead non-moving melanized animals. Scale bar is 1mm.

**E**: Ratio of dead control or T*rpA1[1]* or *Dh31⁻* larvae after 8h in a wet chamber following

or not (water) a 1h feeding period with yeast mixed with *Lp* or *Ecc* or *Bt.* Shown is the

average with 95% confidence interval of at least 3 independent experiments with at

least 21 larvae per trial and condition. The 0 symbol indicates an absence of lethality.

**** indicates p<0,0001, Fisher exact t-test. See the source data file for details.

**F**: Ratio of dead control (ctrl) larvae after 8h in a wet chamber following a 1h feeding

period with a mixture combining yeast, DTT and Dextran fluorescent beads or *Bt.*

Shown is the average with 95% confidence interval of at least 3 independent

experiments with at least 18 larvae per trial and condition. The 0 symbol indicates an

absence of lethality. **** indicates p<0,0001, Fisher exact t-test. See the source data

file                                    for                                    details.

**FIGURE 6**

**TrpA1+ cells in the gut are enteroendocrine cells concentrated in a portion of**

**the intestine bordering the blocked bacteria.**

Confocal fluorescent pictures of the anterior portions of L3 larval intestines to detect;

longitudinal and transversal muscles concentrated in actin (F, G, H and H'), TrpA1+

cells producing RFP (A, A', B, C, C'' and F), GFP-bacteria (B, G and H), Dh31+ cells

(C', C'', D and E), Pros+ cells (D and E) and nuclei with DNA staining (A, A', B, C'', D,

E and G).

In B, D, E, G, H and H'; animals were previously fed for 1h with a mixture containing

bacteria and yeast with *Bt* (B, D and E) or *Ecc* (G, H and H'). When present, the white

star indicates the anterior part of the intestinal portion shown, the arrows point to

TARMs and the > symbols point to TrpA1+ cells. The empty squares in A and H with

dashed lines correspond to the portion of the image magnified in A' and H',

respectively. Scale bar in A, B, F, G and H represents 500μm, in A', C, D, E and H'

represents 100 μm.

 **FIGURE 7**

**IMD pathway is not required for the blockage but essential for larvae survival**

**and *Bt* or *Ecc* clearance.**

**A**: Pictures to illustrate the localization of the fluorescence within the intestine of

*PGRP-LC[ΔE]* L3 larvae after having been fed 1h with a mixture of *Lp* or *Ecc* or *Bt*.

Scale bar is 1mm.

**B**: Blockage ratio for control L3 larvae or mutants of the IMD pathway fed 1h with a

mixture combining yeast and *Lp* or *Ecc* or *Bt*. Shown is the average with 95%

confidence interval of at least 3 independent experiments with at least 20 larvae per

trial and condition. ns indicates values with differences not statistically significant,

Fisher exact t-test. See the source data file for details.

**C**: Pictures of *PGRP-LC[ΔE]*, *Rel[E20]* or *ΔAMP14* mutant larvae after 18h in a wet

chamber following a 1h feeding with a mixture of yeast and *Bt*. The dark larvae are

dead non-moving melanized animals. *ΔAMP14* is a mutant deleted for 14

antimicrobial-encoding genes.

**D**: Ratio of dead control or *TrpA1[1]* or *Dh31*- larvae after 18h in a wet chamber

following or not (water) a 1h feeding period with yeast mixed with *Lp* or *Ecc* or *Bt.*

Shown is the average with 95% confidence interval of at least 3 independent

experiments with at least 20 larvae per trial and condition. The 0 symbol indicates an

absence of lethality. **** indicates p<0,0001, Fisher exact t-test. See the source data

file for details.

**E** and **F**: quantification over time of the amount of *Bt* (A) and *Ecc* (B) live bacteria

within the larval intestine of control or IMD pathway mutant animals including *ΔAMP14*

following a 1h feeding period with a solution containing yeast and bacteria. CFU stands

for Colony Forming Units. *ΔAMP14* is a mutant deleted for 14 antimicrobial-encoding

genes. Shown is the average ± SEM of at least 3 independent experiments with at

least 7 guts each. After 8h, either all the mutants were dead or the intestines were

severely damaged preventing the CFU counting. * Indicates $p < 0,05$, Mann Whitney,

two-tailed test. See the source data file for details.

**FIGURE 8**

**Chronological coordination of ROS/TrpA1/Dh31 and IMD pathways for an**
**efficient microbial elimination.**

<u>**t0:**</u> larvae ingest bacteria from the food mixture (anterior on the left, only bacteria
similar to *Ecc* or *Bt* are illustrated). This initial phase necessitates a discrimination
between commensal and pathogenic bacteria, not elucidated in this study (symbolized
by '?'). The presence of pathogenic bacteria induces the production of ROS by
enterocytes (EC) in a Duox-dependent manner. Then ROS activates TrpA1 in
enteroendocrine cells (EEC). <u>**t15 minutes:**</u> Dh31 secretion by EEC is responsible for
the blockage of bacteria likely by promoting visceral muscle contractions leading to a
closure of a valve-like structure. This phenomenon concentrates the bacteria in the
anterior part of the gut. The bacterial concentration in this part of the intestinal lumen
may facilitate the triggering of the IMD signaling cascade that controls the transcription
of the genes (*AMPs*) encoding the antimicrobial peptides (AMPs). <u>**t6 hours:**</u> the valve-
like structure is still closed. The bactericidal activity of AMPs has eliminated most of
the bacteria accumulated in the anterior part of the intestine. Importantly, if
confinement is prevented, the larvae die; if the response by antimicrobial peptides is
hindered, the larvae die.

**SUPP1**

***Ecc* and *Bt* are blocked in the anterior part of the intestine and disappear while *Lp* transits to the posterior part and remains.**

**A**: Timelapse from the movies of L3 Larvae fed 1h with a mixture of yeast and *Ecc* then transferred on a glass slide, in a wet chamber, to be imaged overnight. Refers to Movie 1.

**B**: Timelapse from the movies of L3 Larvae fed 1h with a mixture of yeast and *Bt* then transferred on a glass slide, in a wet chamber, to be imaged overnight. Refers to Movie 2.

**C**: Timelapse from the movies of L3 Larvae fed 1h with a mixture of yeast and *Lp* then transferred on a glass slide, in a wet chamber, to be imaged overnight. Refers to Movie 3.

For A-C, the frames are separated by 5 minutes.

**SUPP2**

**Contrary to *Lp, Ecc* or *Bt* bacteria are blocked in the anterior part of the gut.**

**A**: Graphic representing the blockage ratio for dissected intestines of L3 larvae exposed during 1h to a mixture composed of yeast and fluorescent bacteria. Shown is the average blockage ratio with a 95% confidence interval from at least 3 independent assays with at least 8 organs per condition and trial. **** indicates $p < 0.0001$, Fisher exact t-test. See the source data file for details.

**SUPP3**

*Ecc* **is not blocked anteriorly in** *TrpA1[1]* **and** *Dh31-* **mutants, persists in the**

**posterior part of the intestine and disappears while** *Lp* **can be blocked following**

**exogenous addition of hCGRP.**

**A**: Timelapse from the movies of *TrpA1[1]* L3 Larvae fed 1h with a mixture of yeast

and *Ecc* then transferred on a glass slide, in a wet chamber, to be imaged overnight.

Refers to Movie 4.

**B**: Timelapse from the movies of *Dh31-* L3 Larvae fed 1h with a mixture of yeast and

*Ecc* then transferred on a glass slide, in a wet chamber, to be imaged overnight.

Refers to Movie 5.

**C**: Timelapse from the movies of w- L3 Larvae fed 1h with a mixture of yeast and *Lp* +

hCGRP then transferred on a glass slide, in a wet chamber, to be imaged overnight.

Refers to Movie 6.

For A-C, the frames are separated by 5 minutes.

**SUPP4**

**TARMsT2 are attached to the longitudinal gut muscles.**

Confocal fluorescent pictures of different TARMsT2 in the anterior portions of L3 larval

intestines to detect longitudinal and transversal muscles concentrated in actin. The

white star indicates the anterior part of the intestinal portion shown. The empty square

with dashed lines in A corresponds to the portion of the image magnified in A'. Scale

bar represents 500µm.

**SUPP5**

*Bt* **and** *Ecc* **are blocked anteriorly and persist in** *PGRP-LC[ΔE]* **and** *PGRP-LE[112]*

**mutants, respectively.**

**A**: Timelapse from the movies of *PGRP-LC[ΔE]* L3 Larvae fed 1h with a mixture of yeast

and *Bt* then transferred on a glass slide, in a wet chamber, to be imaged overnight.

Refers to Movie 8.

**B**: Timelapse from the movies of *PGRP-LE[112]* L3 Larvae fed 1h with a mixture of

yeast and *Ecc* then transferred on a glass slide, in a wet chamber, to be imaged

overnight. Refers to Movie 9.

For A and B, the frames are separated by 5 minutes.

**SUPP6**

*Bt* **and** *Ecc* **are blocked and persist anteriorly in** *Dredd[F64]* **and** *Rel[E20]* **mutants.**

**A**: Timelapse from the movies of *Dredd[F64]* L3 Larvae fed 1h with a mixture of yeast

and *Ecc* then transferred on a glass slide, in a wet chamber, to be imaged overnight.

Refers to Movie 10.

**B**: Timelapse from the movies of *Rel[E20]* L3 Larvae fed 1h with a mixture of yeast and

*Bt* then transferred on a glass slide, in a wet chamber, to be imaged overnight. Refers

to Movie 11.

**C**: Timelapse from the movies of *Rel[E20]* L3 Larvae fed 1h with a mixture of yeast and

*Ecc* then transferred on a glass slide, in a wet chamber, to be imaged overnight. Refers

to Movie 12.

For A-C, the frames are separated by 5 minutes.

**MOVIES**

**Movie 1**

**Fluorescent *Ecc* is blocked in the anterior part of the larval intestine then vanishes.**

Live imaging during 12h of a L3 control larva previously fed 1h with a food containing *Ecc* fluorescent bacteria then transferred on a glass slide in a wet chamber.

**Movie 2**

**Fluorescent *Bt* is blocked in the anterior part of the larval intestine then vanishes.**

Live imaging during 12h of a L3 control larva previously fed 1h with a food containing *Bt* fluorescent bacteria then transferred on a glass slide in a wet chamber.

**Movie 3**

**Fluorescent *Lp* is not blocked in the anterior part of the larval intestine and persists in the posterior midgut.**

Live imaging during 10h of a L3 control larva previously fed 1h with a food containing *Lp* fluorescent bacteria then transferred on a glass slide in a wet chamber.

**Movie 4**

**Fluorescent *Ecc* is not blocked in the anterior part of the *TrpA1* mutant larval intestine and persists in the posterior midgut.**

Live imaging during 10h of a L3 *TrpA1* mutant larva previously fed 1h with a food containing *Ecc* fluorescent bacteria then transferred on a glass slide in a wet chamber.

**Movie 5**

**Fluorescent *Ecc* is not blocked in the anterior part of the *Dh31* mutant larval intestine and persists in the posterior midgut.**

998    Live imaging during 10h of a L3 *Dh31* mutant larva previously fed 1h with a food

999    containing *Ecc* fluorescent bacteria then transferred on a glass slide in a wet chamber.

1000

**Movie 6**

**https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.25018481.v1**

**DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.25018481**

**Fluorescent *Lp* is blocked in the anterior part of the larval intestine following**

**treatment with hCGRP.**

Live imaging during 12h of a control L3 larva previously fed 1h with a food containing

*Lp* fluorescent bacteria and hCGRP then transferred on a glass slide in a wet chamber.

1008

**Movie 7**

**https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.25018496.v1**

**DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.25018496**

**TARMsT2 are attached to the longitudinal gut muscles.**

Confocal imaging of the intestine from a control animal stained with fluorescent

phalloidin and animated 3D-reconstruction of the anterior portion containing the

attached TARMs.

1016

**Movie 8**

**Fluorescent *Bt* is blocked in the anterior part of the *PGRP-LC* mutant larval intestine and persists.**

Live imaging during 12h of a L3 *PGRP-LC* mutant larva previously fed 1h with a food containing *Bt* fluorescent bacteria then transferred on a glass slide in a wet chamber.

**Movie 9**

**Fluorescent *Ecc* is blocked in the anterior part of the *PGRP-LE* mutant larval intestine and persists.**

Live imaging during 12h of a L3 *PGRP-LE* mutant larva previously fed 1h with a food containing *Ecc* fluorescent bacteria then transferred on a glass slide in a wet chamber.

**Movie 10**

**Fluorescent *Ecc* is blocked in the anterior part of the *Dredd* mutant larval intestine and persists.**

Live imaging during 12h of a L3 *Dredd* mutant larva previously fed 1h with a food containing *Ecc* fluorescent bacteria then transferred on a glass slide in a wet chamber.

**Movie 11**

**Fluorescent *Bt* is blocked in the anterior part of the *Rel* mutant larval intestine and persists.**

Live imaging during 12h of a L3 *Rel* mutant larva previously fed 1h with a food containing *Bt* fluorescent bacteria then transferred on a glass slide in a wet chamber.

**Movie 12**

**Fluorescent *Ecc* is blocked in the anterior part of the *Rel* mutant larval intestine and persists.**

Live imaging during 12h of a L3 *Rel* mutant larva previously fed 1h with a food containing *Ecc* fluorescent bacteria then transferred on a glass slide in a wet chamber.

1056

1057

1058

1059

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

1061 L.K., A.G., F.T., M.M., O.P., D.O. and J.R. conceived the experiments. F.T., M.M., O.P. performed the experiments. L.K., A.G., F.T., D.O. and J.R. wrote the manuscript. A.G., D.O. and J.R. secured funding.

## COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are grateful to all members of the BES and DEB teams at the Institut Sophia Agrobiotech for fruitful discussions. We greatly thank Emilie Avazéri, Gladys Gazelle, Marie-Paule Esposito, Juliette Dubois and Elisa Di Lelio for their technical support. We thank Bernard Charroux (at the IBDM Aix Marseille University) and Ambra MASUZZO (in the team of Richard Benton, Université de Lausanne) for pioneer observations and numerous discussions, François Leulier and Renata Matos for sharing bacterial and fly lines and Frank Schnorrer for discussions about alary muscles.

## FUNDING

F.T. was supported by the Lebanese Association for Scientific Research (LASER), the

AJAJE association from Lebanon, and the Université Côte d'Azur (ATER). This work

was supported by the French government through the UCAJEDI Investments in the

Future project managed by the National Research Agency (ANR) with the reference

number ANR-15-IDEX-01 and through the ANR-22-CE35-0006-01 (BaDAss) to A.G.

This work was supported by CNRS, ANR BACNEURODRO (ANR-17-CE16-0023-01),

Equipe Fondation pour la Recherche Médicale (EQU201603007783) and the ANR

Pepneuron (ANR-21-CE16-0027) to J.R. and L.K.

1083

## REFERENCES

**Arias-Rojas, A., Frahm, D., Hurwitz, R., Brinkmann, V. and Iatsenko, I.** (2023).
Resistance to host antimicrobial peptides mediates resilience of gut commensals during
infection and aging in Drosophila. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **120**, e2305649120.
**Basset, A., Khush, R. S., Braun, A., Gardan, L., Boccard, F., Hoffmann, J. A. and**
**Lemaitre, B.** (2000). The phytopathogenic bacteria Erwinia carotovora infects Drosophila
and activates an immune response. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **97**, 3376-81.
**Bataillé, L., Colombié, N., Pelletier, A., Paululat, A., Lebreton, G., Carrier, Y., Frendo, J.**
**L. and Vincent, A.** (2020). Alary muscles and thoracic alary-related muscles are atypical
striated muscles involved in maintaining the position of internal organs. *Development* **147**.
**Belinskaia, M., Wang, J., Kaza, S. K., Antoniazzi, C., Zurawski, T., Dolly, J. O. and**
**Lawrence, G. W.** (2023). Bipartite Activation of Sensory Neurons by a TRPA1 Agonist Allyl
Isothiocyanate Is Reflected by Complex Ca(2+) Influx and CGRP Release Patterns:
Enhancement by NGF and Inhibition with VAMP and SNAP-25 Cleaving Botulinum
Neurotoxins. *Int J Mol Sci* **24**.
**Benguettat, O., Jneid, R., Soltys, J., Loudhaief, R., Brun-Barale, A., Osman, D. and**
**Gallet, A.** (2018). The DH31/CGRP enteroendocrine peptide triggers intestinal contractions
favoring the elimination of opportunistic bacteria. *PLoS Pathog.* **14**, e1007279. doi:
10.1371/journal.ppat.1007279. eCollection 2018 Sep.
**Bosco-Drayon, V., Poidevin, M., Boneca, I. G., Narbonne-Reveau, K., Royet, J. and**
**Charroux, B.** (2012). Peptidoglycan sensing by the receptor PGRP-LE in the Drosophila gut
induces immune responses to infectious bacteria and tolerance to microbiota. *Cell Host*
*Microbe* **12**, 153-65.
**Bulc, M., Palus, K., Całka, J. and Zielonka, Ł.** (2018). Changes in Immunoreactivity of
Sensory Substances within the Enteric Nervous System of the Porcine Stomach during
Experimentally Induced Diabetes. *J Diabetes Res* **2018**, 4735659.
**Capo, F., Wilson, A. and Di Cara, F.** (2019). The Intestine of Drosophila melanogaster: An
Emerging Versatile Model System to Study Intestinal Epithelial Homeostasis and Host-
Microbial Interactions in Humans. *Microorganisms.* **7(9).** microorganisms7090336. doi:
10.3390/microorganisms7090336.

**Carboni, A. L., Hanson, M. A., Lindsay, S. A., Wasserman, S. A. and Lemaitre, B.** (2022). Cecropins contribute to Drosophila host defense against a subset of fungal and Gram-negative bacterial infection. *Genetics* **220**.

**Chakrabarti, S., Liehl, P., Buchon, N. and Lemaitre, B.** (2012). Infection-induced host translational blockage inhibits immune responses and epithelial renewal in the Drosophila gut. *Cell Host Microbe* **12**, 60-70. doi: 10.1016/j.chom.2012.06.001.

**Chen, J., Kim, S. M. and Kwon, J. Y.** (2016). A Systematic Analysis of Drosophila Regulatory Peptide Expression in Enteroendocrine Cells. 10.14348/molcells.2016.0014.

**Dombrovski, M., Kim, A., Poussard, L., Vaccari, A., Acton, S., Spillman, E., Condron, B. and Yuan, Q.** (2019). A Plastic Visual Pathway Regulates Cooperative Behavior in Drosophila Larvae. *Curr Biol* **29**, 1866-1876.e5.

**Dombrovski, M., Poussard, L., Moalem, K., Kmecova, L., Hogan, N., Schott, E., Vaccari, A., Acton, S. and Condron, B.** (2017). Cooperative Behavior Emerges among Drosophila Larvae. *Curr Biol* **27**, 2821-2826.e2.

**Du, E. J., Ahn, T. J., Kwon, I., Lee, J. H., Park, J. H., Park, S. H., Kang, T. M., Cho, H., Kim, T. J., Kim, H. W. et al.** (2016a). TrpA1 Regulates Defecation of Food-Borne Pathogens under the Control of the Duox Pathway. *PLoS Genet* **12**, e1005773. doi: 10.1371/journal.pgen.1005773. eCollection 2016 Jan.

**Du, E. J., Ahn, T. J., Wen, X., Seo, D. W., Na, D. L., Kwon, J. Y., Choi, M., Kim, H. W., Cho, H. and Kang, K.** (2016b). Nucleophile sensitivity of Drosophila TRPA1 underlies light-induced feeding deterrence. *Elife* **5**.

**Earl, S. C., Rogers, M. T., Keen, J., Bland, D. M., Houppert, A. S., Miller, C., Temple, I., Anderson, D. M. and Marketon, M. M.** (2015). Resistance to Innate Immunity Contributes to Colonization of the Insect Gut by Yersinia pestis. *PLoS One* **10**, e0133318.

**Gu, P., Gong, J., Shang, Y., Wang, F., Ruppell, K. T., Ma, Z., Sheehan, A. E., Freeman, M. R. and Xiang, Y.** (2019). Polymodal Nociception in Drosophila Requires Alternative Splicing of TrpA1. *Curr Biol* **29**, 3961-3973.e6.

**Guntur, A. R., Gu, P., Takle, K., Chen, J., Xiang, Y. and Yang, C. H.** (2015). Drosophila TRPA1 isoforms detect UV light via photochemical production of H2O2. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **112**, E5753-61.

**Guo, X., Lv, J. and Xi, R.** (2021). The specification and function of enteroendocrine cells in Drosophila and mammals: a comparative review. *Febs j*.

**Ha, E. M., Lee, K. A., Seo, Y. Y., Kim, S. H., Lim, J. H., Oh, B. H., Kim, J. and Lee, W. J.** (2009). Coordination of multiple dual oxidase-regulatory pathways in responses to commensal and infectious microbes in drosophila gut. *Nat Immunol* **10**, 949-57. doi: 10.1038/ni.1765. Epub 2009 Aug 9.

**Ha, E. M., Oh, C. T., Bae, Y. S. and Lee, W. J.** (2005). A direct role for dual oxidase in Drosophila gut immunity. *Science* **310**, 847-50.

**Hachfi, S., Brun-Barale, A., Munro, P., Nawrot-Esposito, M.-P., Michel, G., Fichant, A., Bonis, M., Ruimy, R., Boyer, L. and Gallet, A.** (2023). Ingestion of Bacillus cereus spores dampens the immune response to favor bacterial persistence. *BioRxiv (Nature comm., In revision)*.

**Hanson, M. A. and Lemaitre, B.** (2020). New insights on Drosophila antimicrobial peptide function in host defense and beyond. *Curr Opin Immunol* **62**, 22-30.

**Hegedus, D., Erlandson, M., Gillott, C. and Toprak, U.** (2009). New insights into peritrophic matrix synthesis, architecture, and function. *Annu Rev Entomol* **54**, 285-302.

**Kaneko, T., Yano, T., Aggarwal, K., Lim, J. H., Ueda, K., Oshima, Y., Peach, C., Erturk-Hasdemir, D., Goldman, W. E., Oh, B. H. et al.** (2006). PGRP-LC and PGRP-LE have essential yet distinct functions in the drosophila immune response to monomeric DAP-type peptidoglycan. *Nat Immunol* **7**, 715-23.

**Kasacka, I.** (2009). Quantitative distribution and localization of calcitonin gene-related peptide-like cells in the stomach of two kidney, one clip rats. *J Physiol Pharmacol* **60**, 35-9.

**Keita, S., Masuzzo, A., Royet, J. and Kurz, C. L.** (2017). Drosophila larvae food intake cessation following exposure to Erwinia contaminated media requires odor perception, Trpa1

channel and evf virulence factor. *J Insect Physiol.* **99:25-32.**,
10.1016/j.jinsphys.2017.02.004. Epub 2017 Feb 21.
**Kondo, T., Oshima, T., Obata, K., Sakurai, J., Knowles, C. H., Matsumoto, T., Noguchi,**
**K. and Miwa, H.** (2010). Role of transient receptor potential A1 in gastric nociception.
*Digestion* **82**, 150-5.
**Kunst, M., Hughes, M. E., Raccuglia, D., Felix, M., Li, M., Barnett, G., Duah, J. and**
**Nitabach, M. N.** (2014). Calcitonin gene-related peptide neurons mediate sleep-specific
circadian output in Drosophila. *Curr Biol* **24**, 2652-64.
**LaJeunesse, D. R., Johnson, B., Presnell, J. S., Catignas, K. K. and Zapotoczny, G.**
(2010). Peristalsis in the junction region of the Drosophila larval midgut is modulated by
DH31 expressing enteroendocrine cells. *BMC Physiol* **10:14.**, 10.1186/1472-6793-10-14.
**Lapointe, T. K. and Altier, C.** (2011). The role of TRPA1 in visceral inflammation and pain.
*Channels* **5**, 525-9. doi: 10.4161/chan.5.6.18016. Epub 2011 Nov 1.
**Lee, K. A., Kim, S. H., Kim, E. K., Ha, E. M., You, H., Kim, B., Kim, M. J., Kwon, Y., Ryu,**
**J. H. and Lee, W. J.** (2013). Bacterial-derived uracil as a modulator of mucosal immunity
and gut-microbe homeostasis in Drosophila. *Cell* **153**, 797-811. doi:
10.1016/j.cell.2013.04.009.
**Lemaitre, B. and Miguel-Aliaga, I.** (2013). The digestive tract of Drosophila melanogaster.
*Annu Rev Genet* **47:377-404.**, 10.1146/annurev-genet-111212-133343.
**Leulier, F., Parquet, C., Pili-Floury, S., Ryu, J. H., Caroff, M., Lee, W. J., Mengin-**
**Lecreulx, D. and Lemaitre, B.** (2003). The Drosophila immune system detects bacteria
through specific peptidoglycan recognition. *Nat Immunol* **4**, 478-84.
**Louis, M. and de Polavieja, G.** (2017). Collective Behavior: Social Digging in Drosophila
Larvae. *Curr Biol* **27**, R1010-r1012.
**Mast, J. D., De Moraes, C. M., Alborn, H. T., Lavis, L. D. and Stern, D. L.** (2014). Evolved
differences in larval social behavior mediated by novel pheromones. *Elife* **3**, e04205.
**Nässel, D. R. and Zandawala, M.** (2019). Recent advances in neuropeptide signaling in
Drosophila, from genes to physiology and behavior. *Prog Neurobiol* **179**, 101607.
**Nawrot-Esposito, M. P., Babin, A., Pasco, M., Poirié, M., Gatti, J. L. and Gallet, A.**
(2020). Bacillus thuringiensis Bioinsecticides Induce Developmental Defects in Non-Target
Drosophila melanogaster Larvae. *Insects* **11**.
**Neyen, C., Bretscher, A. J., Binggeli, O. and Lemaitre, B.** (2014). Methods to study
Drosophila immunity. *Methods* **68**, 116-28. doi: 10.1016/j.ymeth.2014.02.023. Epub 2014
Mar 12.
**Ogawa, N., Kurokawa, T. and Mori, Y.** (2016). Sensing of redox status by TRP channels.
*Cell Calcium* **60**, 115-22. doi: 10.1016/j.ceca.2016.02.009. Epub 2016 Mar 4.
**Park, D., Veenstra, J. A., Park, J. H. and Taghert, P. H.** (2008). Mapping peptidergic cells
in Drosophila: where DIMM fits in. *PLoS One.* **3**, e1896. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0001896.
**Pelaseyed, T., Bergstrom, J. H., Gustafsson, J. K., Ermund, A., Birchenough, G. M.,**
**Schutte, A., van der Post, S., Svensson, F., Rodriguez-Pineiro, A. M., Nystrom, E. E. et**
**al.** (2014). The mucus and mucins of the goblet cells and enterocytes provide the first
defense line of the gastrointestinal tract and interact with the immune system. *Immunol Rev*
**260**, 8-20. doi: 10.1111/imr.12182.
**Ramond, E., Jamet, A., Ding, X., Euphrasie, D., Bouvier, C., Lallemant, L., He, X.,**
**Arbibe, L., Coureuil, M. and Charbit, A.** (2021). Reactive Oxygen Species-Dependent
Innate Immune Mechanisms Control Methicillin-Resistant Staphylococcus aureus Virulence
in the Drosophila Larval Model. *MBio* **12**, e0027621.
**Ryu, J. H., Ha, E. M., Oh, C. T., Seol, J. H., Brey, P. T., Jin, I., Lee, D. G., Kim, J., Lee, D.**
**and Lee, W. J.** (2006). An essential complementary role of NF-kappaB pathway to
microbicidal oxidants in Drosophila gut immunity. *EMBO J* **25**, 3693-701. Epub 2006 Jul 20.
**Stenbak, C. R., Ryu, J. H., Leulier, F., Pili-Floury, S., Parquet, C., Hervé, M., Chaput, C.,**
**Boneca, I. G., Lee, W. J., Lemaitre, B. et al.** (2004). Peptidoglycan molecular requirements
allowing detection by the Drosophila immune deficiency pathway. *J Immunol* **173**, 7339-48.
**Storelli, G., Strigini, M., Grenier, T., Bozonnet, L., Schwarzer, M., Daniel, C., Matos, R.**
**and Leulier, F.** (2018). Drosophila Perpetuates Nutritional Mutualism by Promoting the

Fitness of Its Intestinal Symbiont Lactobacillus plantarum. *Cell Metab.* **27**, 362-377.e8. doi:
10.1016/j.cmet.2017.11.011. Epub 2017 Dec 28.
**Surendran, S., Huckesfeld, S., Waschle, B. and Pankratz, M. J.** (2017). Pathogen-
induced food evasion behavior in Drosophila larvae. *J Exp Biol.* **220**, 1774-1780. doi:
10.1242/jeb.153395. Epub 2017 Mar 2.
**Veenstra, J. A., Agricola, H. J. and Sellami, A.** (2008). Regulatory peptides in fruit fly
midgut. *Cell Tissue Res* **334**, 499-516. doi: 10.1007/s00441-008-0708-3. Epub 2008 Oct 30.
**Vodovar, N., Vinals, M., Liehl, P., Basset, A., Degrouard, J., Spellman, P., Boccard, F.**
**and Lemaitre, B.** (2005). Drosophila host defense after oral infection by an
entomopathogenic Pseudomonas species. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **102**, 11414-9. Epub
2005 Aug 1.
**Younes, S., Al-Sulaiti, A., Nasser, E. A. A., Najjar, H. and Kamareddine, L.** (2020).
Drosophila as a Model Organism in Host-Pathogen Interaction Studies. *Front Cell Infect*
*Microbiol* **10**, 214.
**Zhai, Z., Huang, X. and Yin, Y.** (2018). Beyond immunity: The Imd pathway as a
coordinator of host defense, organismal physiology and behavior. *Dev Comp Immunol* **83**,
51-59.
1240

# FIGURE 1

**A**

**B**

# FIGURE 2

**A**

**B**

*After a 30 min. exposure to Bt*

**C**

**D**

# FIGURE 3

# FIGURE 4

**A**

**B**

# FIGURE 5

# FIGURE 7

# FIGURE 8

# SUPP1

**A** ctrl + *Ecc*

**B** ctrl + *Bt*

**C** ctrl + *Lp*

**A**

# SUPP3

**A**

TrpA1[1]  + Ecc

**B**

Dh31[-] + Ecc

**C**

ctrl + Lp + hCGRP

# SUPP5

**A**
*PGRP-LC[ΔE] Bt*

**B**
*PGRP-LE[112] Ecc*

**A**
*Dredd[F64] Ecc*

**B**
*Rel[E20] Bt*

**C**
*Rel[E20] Ecc*