Multi-modal comparison of molecular programs driving nurse cell death and clearance in *Drosophila melanogaster* oogenesis

Shruthi Bandyadka[1,2], Diane PV Lebo[2], Albert Mondragon[3], Sandy B Serizier[3], Julian Kwan[4], Jeanne S Peterson[2], Alexandra Y Chasse[3], Victoria Jenkins[2], Anoush Calikyan[2], Anthony Ortega[2], Joshua D Campbell[5], Andrew Emili[2,4,6], Kimberly McCall[2,#]

[1]Graduate Program in Bioinformatics, Boston University

[2]Department of Biology, Boston University

[3]Molecular Biology, Cell Biology and Biochemistry Graduate Program

[4]Department of Biochemistry, Boston University Chobanian & Avedisian School of Medicine

[5]Department of Medicine, Boston University Chobanian & Avedisian School of Medicine

[6]Division of Oncological Sciences, Knight Cancer Institute, Oregon Health & Science University

[#]Corresponding author. Email: kmccall@bu.edu

Abstract

The death and clearance of nurse cells is a consequential milestone in *Drosophila*

melanogaster oogenesis. In preparation for oviposition, the germline-derived nurse cells

bequeath to the developing oocyte all their cytoplasmic contents and undergo programmed

cell death. The death of the nurse cells is controlled non-autonomously and is precipitated by

epithelial follicle cells of somatic origin acquiring a squamous morphology and acidifying the

nurse cells externally. Alternatively, stressors such as starvation can induce the death of nurse

cells earlier in mid-oogenesis, manifesting apoptosis signatures, followed by their engulfment

by epithelial follicle cells. To identify and contrast the molecular pathways underlying these

morphologically and genetically distinct cell death paradigms, both mediated by follicle cells,

we compared their genome-wide transcriptional, translational, and secretion profiles before

and after differentiating to acquire a phagocytic capability, as well as during well-fed and

nutrient-deprived conditions. By coupling the GAL4-UAS system to Translating Ribosome

Affinity Purification (TRAP-seq) and proximity labeling (HRP-KDEL) followed by Liquid

Chromatography tandem mass-spectrometry, we performed high-throughput screens to

identify pathways selectively activated or repressed by follicle cells to employ nurse cell-

clearance routines contextually and preferentially. We also integrated two publicly available

single-cell RNAseq atlases of the *Drosophila* ovary to define the transcriptomic profiles of

follicle cells. In this report, we describe the genes and major pathways identified in the screens

and the striking consequences to *Drosophila melanogaster* oogenesis caused by RNAi

perturbation of prioritized candidates. To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first of its

kind to comprehensively characterize two distinct apoptotic and non-apoptotic cell death

paradigms in the same multi-cellular system. Beyond molecular differences in cell death, our

investigation may also provide insights into how key systemic trade-offs are made between

survival and reproduction when faced with physiological stress.

Keywords: *Drosophila melanogaster*; translatome; secretome; single-cell RNA-seq integration;

ovary; oogenesis; cell death; phagocytosis; phagoptosis; starvation

Introduction

Oogenesis is a tightly regulated interplay of germline and somatic cells conspiring to produce a viable egg. Like industrial production lines, organisms have evolved to reinforce egg production by adapting quality control measures, such as inspection checkpoints, corrective action, and elimination of defective egg chambers to optimize the health of eggs. Cell death is a requisite means to cull both sub-optimal products of oogenesis, as well as superfluous peripheral tissues that have completed their respective roles in supporting the oocyte on its way to maturation [1].

In *Drosophila melanogaster*, the egg chamber undergoes 14 well-defined stages of development, with significant physical and physiological interactions between the oocyte, the germline-derived Nurse Cells (NCs) and the somatic Follicle Cells (FCs) that form a monolayer encapsulating the germline [2,3]. Multiple regulated cell death events mark the checkpoints during which both the egg's competence and the suitability of the environment is surveyed. One such crucial checkpoint is encountered in mid-oogenesis during stages 7 through 9, when the decision to invest energy into yolk, chorion, and vitelline membrane deposition is made. As previously reported [4,5], seemingly innocuous physiological stressors such as short-term protein deprivation can induce a 60-fold difference in the rate of oogenesis. This diminished oviposition results in part from the degeneration of egg chambers in mid-oogenesis, which can be readily identified by the condensed and fragmented appearance of NC nuclei and the enlargement of FCs as they synchronously engulf the germline cells [6,7] (Fig 1a). Investigation into the underlying genetic factors has identified important roles for effector caspase *Dcp-1* [8–10] and autophagy [11–14], indicating that the germline is eliminated by a combination of apoptosis and autophagic mechanisms. Further, FCs express the phagocytic receptor Draper

(Drpr) on their cell surfaces which recognizes and internalizes the dying germline, leading to

the subsequent activation of the JNK signaling pathway to promote resolution of clearance

[6,7,15].

When the milieu is optimal and any physiological insults are overcome, oogenesis

proceeds through 14 stages. A marked difference in egg chamber morphology is observed as

it enters the vitellogenic phase in mid-oogenesis. A majority of the FCs migrate to encapsulate

the oocyte, referred to as Main Body FCs (MBFCs), and a subset of them flatten and elongate

to become Stretch Follicle Cells (SFCs) that migrate and extend into the spaces between the

NCs [16] (Fig 1a). Stage 11 is defined by nurse cell "dumping", in which maternal mRNAs,

proteins and organelles from the NCs are deposited into the transcriptionally quiescent oocyte

via ring canals, leaving behind the NC nuclei and a small amount of cytoplasm [3]. By stage

13, the NC nuclei begin to be eliminated non-autonomously and asynchronously by SFCs, in

a process morphologically and physiologically distinct from starvation-induced NC clearance

[17]. At the close of oogenesis at stage 14, all the NCs are cleared away, leaving only the fully

developed oocyte. Genetic ablation of SFCs revealed that SFCs were required for NC

dumping, death, and clearance [18], while disruption of caspases and autophagy-related genes

failed to prevent NC death, indicating that developmental NC death occurs through non-

apoptotic and non-autophagic mechanisms [18,19]. However, the usual suspects in

engulfment - *drpr*, *Ced-12*, and the JNK signaling pathway, were found to be required for NC

death and clearance, indicating that the phagocytosis machinery is deployed by SFCs [18].

Subsequently, the NCs are externally acidified by SFCs targeting their lysosomal machinery,

specifically Vacuolar-ATPases (V-ATPases), to their plasma membranes [20]. This form of cell

death, where the phagocytosis apparatus of one cell is harnessed to kill another cell, which

would otherwise continue to live, is known as phagoptosis [21,22]. Recent findings on the

molecular mechanisms underlying both phagoptosis and starvation-induced death modalities

have been reviewed more comprehensively elsewhere [1,7].

In both of these forms of nurse cell death and clearance, epithelial follicle cells are recruited

for NC elimination, acting as non-professional, tissue-resident phagocytes, albeit in distinct

morphological configurations (Fig 1A). While there are differences in genes required in the NCs

for their death, the two death regimes share some components, specifically in the engulfment

machinery acting in FCs, indicating that clearance requires the preferential activation or

repression of specific sub-routines of death-associated signaling cascades (Fig 1B). The

follicle cells could also be primed differentially by distinct external cues, arising both from NCs,

in the form of "find me" and "eat me" signals [23], as well as from the extracellular environ,

shaped in part, by the nutrient sensing pathway. How follicle cells in mid-oogenesis are able to

make context-driven decisions to steer the fates of nurse cells, and of themselves, remains to

be determined.

To determine how follicle cells are deployed differently during the two types of NC death,

we took a multimodal approach by capturing the "translatome" and "secretome" of follicle cells

in these diverse contexts. We performed Translational Ribosome Affinity Purification with RNA-

sequencing (TRAP-seq), in addition to proximity labeling (HRP-KDEL) followed by Liquid

Chromatography tandem mass-spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) of MBFCs under fed and starved

conditions, as well as after their transition to SFCs, to identify the pathways that differentially

promote distinct nurse cell clearance routines. Further, we compared the translational profiles

of fed MBFCs and fed SFCs to their transcriptional profiles obtained by integrating two

previously published single-cell RNAseq atlases of the fly ovaries [24,25] to identify genes that

are exclusively under translational regulation. Our analyses and validation identified several

key genes and pathways that play vital roles during the making of a healthy egg, ranging from

ensuring structural integrity and regulating metabolic pathways, to key signaling molecules. In

summary, we have generated a multidimensional portrait of fly ovarian follicle cells with which

we dissect and discern their complex, context-dependent behavior during NC death and

clearance.

Results

Establishing the translatome, secretome, and transcriptome of MBFCs and SFCs

To capture the translatome or the set of all mRNAs undergoing translation in a cell, we

performed TRAP-seq [26,27], by expressing GFP-tagged large ribosomal subunit 10a in

follicle cells using the GAL4/UAS system [28,29]. We then performed immunoprecipitation to

capture ribosome-bound mRNAs and subsequently sequenced and analyzed the transcripts.

We used the follicle cell line GR1-GAL4 to express RpL10a-GFP in MBFCs (GR1>*RpL10a*-

GFP) and PG150-GAL4 to express RpL10a-GFP in SFCs (PG150>*RpL10a*-GFP) (Fig 2A, S1

Fig). We generated biological triplicates corresponding to experimental groups of fed MBFCs,

fed SFCs, and starved MBFCs, with each replicate averaging over 49 million reads (Fig 2B).

Analysis with Salmon and DEseq2 identified 1133 differentially translated genes (FDR

Adjusted p<0.05) associated with phagoptotic clearance of nurse cells by comparing fed SFC

samples to the fed MBFC baseline. Similarly, comparison of starved MBFC samples to fed

MBFCs identified 99 differentially translated genes (FDR Adjusted p<0.05). The functional

roles played by these candidates is described in detail in subsequent sections.

To establish the secretome or the set of all trans-membrane and secreted proteins of the

follicle cells, we took a tissue and organelle-specific proteomics approach by combining the

GAL4/UAS system with proximity-dependent protein labeling, followed by LC-MS/MS.

Proteins fated to be secreted or trans-membrane are trafficked through the endoplasmic

reticulum (ER) and Golgi network. To isolate and identify these proteins, we biochemically

tagged and enriched proteins in the ER by expressing a genetically tagged fusion construct

downstream of UAS, carrying horseradish peroxidase (HRP) fused to the ER-retention signal

KDEL, along with secretion signal IgK leader sequence (ss) and the V5 epitope [30]. We

expressed ss-HRP-KDEL-V5 in follicle cells, where it localizes to the ER. Like the translatome,

to achieve MBFC-specific expression, we used GR1-Gal4 (GR1>ss-HRP-KDEL-V5) and to

achieve SFC-specific expression, we used PG150-Gal4 (PG150>ss-HRP-KDEL-V5) (Fig 2A,

Figure A,B in S2 Fig). Next, we exposed dissected ovaries to biotin-phenol substrate and a

brief pulse of H_2O_2, which catalyzes the biotinylation of the proteins being trafficked through

the ER. We confirmed that the biotinylation is ER-specific with α-V5 and streptavidin-488

immunostaining and additionally verified that the biotinylation is contingent on the availability

of the biotin-phenol substrate and H_2O_2, (Figure C-H in S2 Fig). We then performed

streptavidin enrichment followed by on-bead trypsin digestion and LC-MS/MS on the samples

in two batches. Two replicates of fed MBFC samples were produced in each batch as a

baseline to compare to the two replicates each of fed SFCs and starved MBFCs that were

generated in separate batches (Fig 2C).   Stringent database (MaxQuant) based spectral

searching identified ~2200 unique proteins in batch 1 samples, and ~1800 in batch 2 samples.

After removing decoys (reversed protein sequences used to gauge the false discovery rate)

and potential contaminants (e.g. trypsin), we obtained a high confidence set of 40 differentially

abundant proteins in the phagoptosis comparison and 14 proteins in the starvation-induced

clearance comparison (FDR Adjusted p<0.05) (Figure I-J in S2 Fig).

Next, we leveraged two previously published single-cell RNAseq atlases of the fly ovary

[24,25] to obtain complete transcriptomic profiles of MBFCs and SFCs, against which we

compared our findings from the translatome and the secretome, as well identified gene

regulatory programs with finer resolution. The Jevitt et al. atlas [25] comprises cells from egg

chambers across all developmental time points. However, the Rust et al. atlas [24] does not

include vitellogenic egg chambers but delineates precursors to SFCs. Therefore, we

integrated the two datasets using Seurat Reciprocal PCA and obtained a reclustered subset

of cells that include putative MBFCs and SFCs across the developmental continuum (Fig 2D).

To identify MBFC and SFC populations comparable to the translatome and secretome, we

obtained a cell identity module score using Seurat *AddModuleScore* based on the expression

of canonical MBFC and SFC markers, such as *Yp1* and *cv-2* respectively (Figure A-E in S3

Fig) [31]. For the scope of this study, we bisected the reclustered subset broadly into MBFCs

and SFCs and identified differentially expressed genes between the two groups and confirmed

their concordance with findings from the original publications (Fig 2E-2G). We used the

direction and magnitude of Log$_2$ fold change (LFC) values from this comparison (SFCs /

MBFCs) to contrast findings from the translatome and the secretome.

Distinct genes contribute to overlaps in gene ontology (GO) terms enriched in

phagoptosis and starvation-death of NCs

To identify shared and disjointed pathways between phagoptosis (fed SFCs vs. fed

MBFCs) and starvation-death of NCs (starved MBFCs vs. fed MBFCs), we compared the LFC

estimates from both the translatome and the secretome (Fig 3A-3B). For the sets of candidates

identified in each dataset, we performed GO-term and KEGG pathway enrichment analysis

[32]. We identified 5 congruently upregulated genes in the translatomes of SFCs and starved

MBFCs (Fig 3C) involved in cytoskeletal remodeling (GO:0030239, GO:0061640,

GO:0031032) and 49 congruently downregulated genes, a majority of which are associated

with vitelline membrane and chorion deposition (GO:0007304, GO:0030703) (Fig 3D). We also

identified other genes associated with the same GO-terms but individual genes were unique to

either SFCs or starved MBFCs, highlighting the molecular differences underlying the similar

processes that give rise to diverse phenotypic outcomes. The 415 genes uniquely upregulated

in the SFC translatome were enriched for inositol and tyrosine metabolism (GO:0006020,

GO:0006570), defense response (GO:0006952), and organic acid catabolism (GO:0016054).

Accordant with our expectations, we found glucose homeostasis (GO:0042593), response to

starvation (GO:0042594), and lipid metabolism (GO:0008610) over-represented exclusively in

the starved MBFC translatome. Notably, response to wounding (GO:0009611) was also over-

represented in this group (S1 Table).

While the candidates identified in the secretome were different from those identified in

the translatome in both phagoptosis and starvation, we observed that the GO-terms over-

represented in the corresponding comparisons were equivalent. For example, we found actin

and microtubule associated proteins over-represented in the starved MBFC secretome

(GO:0003779, GO:0008017, GO:0005200). In the SFC secretome, we found enrichment of

proteins involved in the hydrolysis of acid anhydrides (GO:0016817) (Fig 3E). We did not find

any congruity in the differentially abundant proteins identified in phagoptosis and starvation-

death in the secretome.

We also compared the LFC values of differentially expressed genes between SFCs

and MBFCs identified from the translatome and the integrated scRNAseq transcriptome. After

filtering out genes with adjusted p value >= 0.05 in both datasets, we found 18 genes

concordantly upregulated and 45 genes concordantly downregulated in SFCs (Figure F-H in

S3 Fig). A majority of these genes were involved in cytoskeletal remodeling and cell

morphogenesis or in eggshell deposition. Overall, we found only *Vm32E* and chorion

associated gene *CG12398* downregulated in SFCs across all 3 datasets (S2 Table).

SFCs and starved MBFCs congruently downregulate eggshell deposition

The *Drosophila* eggshell is a multi-layered extra-cellular matrix structure proximal to the

oocyte, helping maintain egg chamber structural integrity. In mid and late oogenesis, MBFCs

and oocytes secrete sequentially, several proteins that comprise the vitelline membrane and

the several layers that comprise the chorion [33,34]. Genes required for optimal eggshell

assembly such as *dec-1*, *Cp36*, and *Vm26Ab* were identified through screening of female

sterile (fs) mutants [35–37]. In agreement with these findings, GO-term enrichment of our multi-

modal dataset revealed that several genes involved in various eggshell deposition processes

were downregulated in SFCs at the transcriptome, translatome, and at the secretome level,

confirming that the datasets are capturing the appropriate tissues, as well as confirming that

eggshell deposition is a MBFC-specific trait. Further, we used the GLAD matrisome gene list

[38] to annotate our multi-modal dataset and comprehensively identify patterns of regulation in

specific structural and functional sub-classes of the matrisome. We found that vitelline

membrane-associated genes *Vm26Aa*, *Vm26Ab*, *Vm26Ac*, *Vm32E*, *Vm34Ca*, and *Vml* were

all congruently downregulated in fed SFCs compared to the fed MBFC baseline in both the

translatome and the integrated scRNAseq transcriptomes. However, only *Vm32E* was

significantly downregulated in SFCs in the secretome, while the directionality of fold change of

other Vm genes in the secretome still remained concordant with the other datasets. Similarly,

chorion-related genes *Cp15*, *Cp16*, *Cp19*, *Cp36*, *Cp18*, and *Cp38* were significantly

downregulated in SFCs in the translatome, while only *Cp15* and *Cp16* were significantly

downregulated in SFCs at the secretome level. Interestingly, we observed Semaphorin 1b

(*Sema1b*) and BMP ligand *gbb* were also downregulated by SFCs in the secretome, however

this effect was not observed in the other datasets (S2 Table).

Previous studies have reported that starvation stress deters egg chambers from

entering vitellogenesis [39]. In concordance, our analyses show that protein-deprived MBFCs

significantly downregulate the translation of *Vm32E*, *Vml*, and all chorion-related genes. In

addition to these apical-matrix associated genes, we found other extracellular matrix (ECM)-

affiliated genes such as ECM-regulator *PH4alphaPV* and immune-regulated glycoprotein

I(2)34Fc to be downregulated in the translatome of starved MBFCs. However, we did not

observe a similar trend in their corresponding protein products in the secretome.

Cytoskeletal dynamics in SFCs and starved MBFCs

During stages 9 and 10, the egg chamber further elongates and maintains an anterior-

posterior axis while the oocyte grows tremendously to occupy over half the volume of the egg

chamber. Keeping up with the increasing surface area of the egg chamber, anterior follicle cells

elongate and flatten, acquiring the characteristic squamous morphology, cellular patterning,

and identity of SFCs. It was previously [40] reported that downregulation of *Br* expression

mediated by ecdysone and JAK/STAT pathways is essential for SFC flattening [40]. Several

additional genes involved in the cuboidal-to-squamous transition of follicle cells, such as *Tm1*,

Rab11, and *Zip* were also reported [40]. In contrast, during starvation-induced clearance,

MBFCs undergo cytoskeletal rearrangements to enlarge in place, and the GTPase Rac1 has

been previously reported to be required for the cytoskeletal rearrangements during

phagocytosis. We previously reported that *Rac1* is required in starved MBFCs to promote the

enlargement of FCs and engulfment of apoptotic nurse cells [6]. Rac1 is also required in SFCs

even though acidification, but not engulfment of nurse cells has been observed in phagoptosis

[18]. Several key questions related to cytoskeletal dynamics remain unanswered. Namely, how

are follicle cells able to assume two different morphological configurations in phagoptosis and

starvation-induced clearance of nurse cells? Are the same morphogenetic events required to

surround and internalize nurse cell targets in both death paradigms? What controls SFC

density and patterning along the anterior-posterior axis?

Towards this goal, we identified 26 cytoskeleton-associated genes upregulated in the

translatomes of SFCs. In concordance with the SFC transcriptome, we found *Tm1* upregulated

in the SFC translatome, along with several other calcium-dependent regulators of the

cytoskeleton, such as *Tm2*, *up*, *Actn*, *Mlc1*, *Mlc2*, *bt*, *TpnC41C*, *Scp1*, *cue*, and *didum* (S2

Table). From the SFC secretome, we found a potential role for *armi* in late oogenesis, which

closely associates with the microtubule cytoskeleton in egg chambers during early and mid-

oogenesis, influencing egg chamber axial polarity during these stages [41]. Of note, we found

actin encoding *Act88F* to be upregulated in both SFC and starved MBFC translatomes. In

addition, *Act79B* upregulation was exclusive to the SFC translatome. Because Ca^{2+} signaling

plays a vital role in actin polymerization and phagocytic cup formation in other systems [42],

we characterized the consequences of disrupting *TpnC41C*, *Scp1*, and *cue* by RNAi, using the

GR1 driver. All 3 candidates demonstrated a persisting NC nuclei (PNCN) phenotype indicating

their requirement in phagoptotic NC clearance. In addition, we performed RNAi of other

cytoskeleton regulators and observed a weak PNCN phenotype (Fig 4A-4C).

Regulation of lysosomal machinery during phagoptosis of nurse cells

We previously reported that the lysosomal machinery, in particular V-ATPases, was required

in SFCs for the acidification of nurse cells [20]. Our analysis of the integrated scRNAseq

dataset identified 15 genes associated with V-ATPases that were upregulated by SFCs at less

than 1.5x LFC differential (S2 Table). By contrast, we found only *Vha44* to be upregulated by

SFCs in the translatome in concordance with the transcriptome. Paradoxically, we found

Vha68-1 to be upregulated by SFCs in the translatome, while *Vha68-2*, another gene isoform

that codes for the same V-ATPase subunit (V1 catalytic domain, subunit A) to be upregulated

in SFCs in the transcriptome. At the secretome level, none of the V-ATPase protein products

showed a significant differential even though peptides of various subunits were identified.

In addition to V-ATPases, we identified 18 lysosome-associated genes enriched in the SFC

translatome. These include a transmembrane lysophospholipase *sws*, *g* (*garnet*) which

encodes a subunit of lysosomal adapter protein complex AP-3, and *psidin*, which also affects

lamellipodial dynamics in border cells, as well as initiates humoral immune response [43,44].

Likewise, the SFC secretome included 3 lysosomal proteins Plekhm1, FeCH, and CG43693.

Notably, mutations in the human ortholog of Plekhm1 have been implicated in autosomal

recessive osteopetrosis [45], which results from improper lysosomal acidification and

resorption of the extracellular bone matrix [46], a mechanism reminiscent of SFC acidification

of nurse cells. Interestingly, the SFC secretome was also enriched for four ATPases Ns1

(Q8MT06), Ns2 (Q7JXU4), pix (Q9VSS1), and CG13185 (A8DYB0), which are associated

with hydrolysis of acid anhydrides, a reaction which results in the formation of carboxylic acids.

Intrigued by this finding, we examined the SFC translatome further, finding 11 upregulated

genes that are involved in carboxylic acid metabolism (GO:0016054, GO: 0019752). These

included *hgo, Faa, Gabat, CG1440, CG3699, CG1461, Hn, Spat, Hpd, SERCA,* and *GstZ2.*

The role of innate immune signaling in NC death and clearance

The innate immune response in *Drosophila* relies on two highly conserved NF-κB

pathways - Toll and Immune Deficiency (Imd). When the organism is immunologically

challenged, a class of circulating secreted molecules called peptidoglycan recognition proteins

(PGRPs) recognize and bind pathogen associated molecular patterns (PAMPs), such as Lys-

type or DAG-type peptidoglycans or β-glucan which are expressed on the pathogen [47,48].

Depending on the infecting pathogen, Toll or Imd signaling is triggered preferentially.

Toll is typically activated upon infection by gram-positive bacteria or fungi, which

initiates a serine protease cascade in host cells, whereby the zymogen Spatzle (Spz) is

activated by proteolysis, after which it binds to the membrane-bound Toll receptor [49]. Spatzle

Processing Enzyme (SPE), a serine protease that cleaves Spz to activate Toll, was later

identified and characterized [50] The intracellular Toll/Interleukin-1 receptor domain of the Toll

receptor then binds to the adapter protein MyD88, which subsequently forms a complex with

kinase Pelle and adapter protein Tube, leading to the phosphorylation and degradation of the

Drosophila IκB factor Cactus [51,52]. This allows the translocation of the NF-κB family

transcription factors Dif and Dorsal, ultimately activating the expression of genes encoding

several antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) such as *Drosomycin* (*Drs*) and *AttacinA* (*AttA*) to combat

infection [53]. When the cascade is triggered, the AMPs produced are embedded in the cell

envelopes of pathogens, subsequently destabilizing and killing the pathogen [53]. Loss of *SPE*

has been shown to impair *Drs* induction in response to microbial infection [50]. The Spz-Toll

pathway also plays a role in development, and these pathways have also been shown to

promote neurodegeneration, so their roles extend beyond pathogen response.

Our analysis of the translatome revealed that SFCs upregulated not only the upstream

peptidoglycan recognition molecules *PGRP-LC* (1x LFC*)* and *PGRP-SD* (1.5x LFC*)*, but also

the protease *SPE* (1x LFC) and AMP *Drs* (2.8x LFC). Furthermore, we observed several other

known and predicted NF-κB/Toll regulators and AMP genes upregulated in the SFC

translatome (Fig 5A). To investigate the role of NF-κB/Toll signaling components in

phagoptosis, we performed RNAi against *PGRP-SD, PGRP-LC*, *SPE*, *Drs*, and *Drsl4* and

overexpressed *Listericin* using the GR1 driver. All of the transgenic lines, except *SPE*

demonstrated a moderate or weak PNCN phenotype (Fig 5B). Surprisingly, we found that loss

of *SPE* caused significant, widespread egg chamber degeneration in mid-oogenesis, resulting

in near-complete loss of late-stage vitellogenic egg chambers. Almost all ovarioles in GR1 >

SPE RNAi mutants demonstrated an intact germarium and healthy early-stage egg chambers

which began degenerating around stage 6 (Fig 5C-5D). Antibody staining against Discs large

(Dlg), a scaffolding protein that stains plasma membranes, showed that unlike starvation-

induced degeneration of wildtype egg chambers in mid-oogenesis, GR1 > *SPE* RNAi egg

chambers neither demonstrated enlargement of MBFCs nor engulfment and clearance of NCs.

MBFCs in GR1 > *SPE* RNAi egg chambers instead were partially or completely missing in

younger egg chambers, indicating that MBFCs are affected prior to NC degradation due to loss

of *SPE*. Further, NC chromatin in GR1 > *SPE* RNAi mutants appeared highly condensed, with

some NC nuclei also undergoing fragmentation. Of note, the anterior-posterior polarity of egg

chambers was also affected, with some dying NCs encroaching into the posterior end,

displacing the oocyte. Several degenerating egg chambers did not show any detectable oocyte

(Fig 5E-5G). While our experiments show that *SPE* is required for proper oogenesis, it is

unknown whether the canonical Toll pathway is activated in follicle cells. While our

bioinformatics analysis identified multiple components of the Toll pathway, including AMPs

upregulated in the SFC translatome it remains to be determined if *SPE* acts in the canonical

pathway to cleave *Spz* and if the AMPs upregulated have an immunogenic role in phagoptosis

of NCs.

In contrast to *Drs* upregulation in phagoptosis, we found AMP gene *Attacin D (AttD)* to

be upregulated in the starved MBFC translatome. This was particularly intriguing as some

Attacin genes encode glycine-rich AMPs, typically expressed in response to Gram-negative

bacterial liposaccharides, regulated by the Imd pathway. Unlike the Toll pathway, which leads

to the nuclear localization of Dif and Dorsal, the Imd pathway leads to the nuclear translocation

of NF-κB transcription factor *Relish (Rel),* which results from the phosphorylation of the N-

terminus, as well as cleavage of C-terminus of Rel [48,54,55]. We wondered whether *AttD*

functions as an AMP in starved MBFCs to destabilize and promote apoptosis of NCs and if

loss of *AttD* would attenuate egg chamber degeneration in response to starvation. Surprisingly,

we found that RNAi knockdown of *AttD* in starved MBFCs resulted in an increase in the number

of mid-oogenesis deaths per ovariole. Additionally, our analyses showed that *AttD* RNAi in

follicle cells did not cause increased mid-stage death in well-fed flies, indicating that the

transgenic construct is not sufficiently lethal to the egg chamber by itself (Figure 5H-5J). This

indicates an alternative role for *AttD* during starvation stress. One possibility is that *AttD* from

MBFCs of degenerating egg chambers functions as negative feedback, preventing or limiting

apoptosis to preserve younger egg chambers. It was previously reported that overexpressing

imd did not activate pro-apoptotic genes *hid* and *reaper* [56]. Further, activating the Imd

pathway upregulated the inhibitor of apoptosis *Diap1* in the larval epidermis and fat body,

indicating that Imd activation could serve multifarious functions. While *AttD* showed 2.8x LFC

upregulation in the starved MBFC translatome, we did not find upstream regulators of Imd or

other Imd-associated AMPs to indicate the activation of the canonical Imd pathway (S3 Table).

Interestingly *PGRP-LC*, which is typically associated with Imd activation was instead found

upregulated in fed SFCs along with Toll regulators.

in vivo RNAi screening of candidates

In addition to previously described gene families, we performed *in vivo* validation for a

number of candidates identified across the 3 datasets presented herein (Table 1). A majority

of the candidates we elected to follow up with were known secreted or transmembrane

proteins, in order to identify any key components that may be involved in cell-cell

communication in both death modalities. We also identified other candidates involved in major

Drosophila signaling pathways to be differentially regulated exclusively in phagoptosis (Fig 6A).

Specifically, we found *Dad* (*Daughters against dpp*) a component of the TGF-β/BMP signaling

pathway to be enriched in SFCs in both the integrated scRNAseq data and the translatome.

Other genes in this pathway such as *cv-2* and *dpp* have been previously shown to be

expressed in SFCs [16]. RNAi against *Dad* in follicle cells resulted in a weak PNCN phenotype,

instead exhibiting a strong "dumpless" phenotype, in which NCs fail to dump their contents into

the oocyte while the dorsal appendage continues to form (Fig 6B). We also observed several

morphological defects, ranging from fused egg chambers and distended SFC membranes, to

stunted dorsal appendages, indicating that *Dad* and the TGF-β/BMP pathway might also play

a role in SFC differentiation and patterning in late-oogenesis. RNAi against several other

candidates such as *Tm1*, *LBR* (Fig 6C), and *magu* also presented a dumpless phenotype

(Table 1). Of all the candidates we tested, GR1 > *prosα3 (proteasome α3 subunit)* RNAi stage

14 egg chambers had the strongest persisting NC nuclei phenotype (Fig 6E, 6H), with some

egg chambers retaining all 15 NC nuclei. In addition, this genotype also had egg chambers

with several morphological defects, including stunted dorsal appendages, and increased mid-

stage death even when fed a protein-rich diet. When starved, this genotype presented the

same morphological defects and strong PNCN phenotype, in addition to increased midstage

death. One of the most interesting mutant phenotypes we observed was in GR1 > *wat* RNAi,

which presented abnormal NC nuclei, starting around stage 8. NC nuclei in GR1 > *wat* RNAi

egg chambers had large areas devoid of DAPI staining, when compared to CantonS controls

(Fig 6F, 6G). However, they did not appear to be pyknotic nor strongly persist in stage 14 egg

chambers (Fig 6H). For all of the candidates tested, we qualitatively and quantitatively

summarized mutant phenotypes, broadly categorized into 4 classes – NC clearance defects,

NC dumping defects, egg chamber morphological and patterning defects, and excessive

degeneration of egg chambers in mid-oogenesis (Fig 6H, Table 1).

Similarly, we investigated a number of genes differentially regulated in starved MBFCs.

We found that ovaries from mutants for DNA binding gene *His2B,* heatshock protein *Hsp23*,

and predicted triglyceride lipase *CG10163* had higher mid-stage death per ovariole than the

starved matched control, while other knockdown lines had no significant detectable phenotype.

(Fig 7A-7G, Table 1). Because *CG10163* is highly homologous to human lipases which have

been associated with metabolic disorders such as type 2 diabetes, familial hyperlipidemia, and

obesity, this candidate presents a unique opportunity to investigate crosstalk between

metabolic, endocrine, and reproductive systems. In addition to observing egg chamber health

in starved mutants, we investigated whether the knockdown of the candidate genes was

sufficient to induce egg chamber degeneration even in well-fed flies. We found that loss of

His2B resulted in increased mid-oogenesis death per ovariole even in well-fed flies (Fig 7G).

423
424   **Table 1. Summary of results from the *in vivo* validation of candidates identified from**

425   **the translatome, secretome, and the integrated scRNA-seq datasets.**

426   For each candidate, the rationale for additional follow-up, RNAi or overexpression stocks

427   used, summary of phenotypes observed in well-fed and starved experiments are listed.

428   Stocks are RNAi lines unless otherwise indicated (*=OE, #=CRISPR/Cas9 deletion)

Gene Symbol	Enriched in	Support	Gene-Ontology Annotation	Stock	Phenotype summary
Nach	fed MBFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	27262	Weak PNCN
to	fed SFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	27646*	Moderate PNCN
CG33470 & IMPPP	fed SFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	28540	Weak PNCN
Listericin	fed SFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	33058*	Moderate PNCN
Listericin	fed SFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	33056*	Moderate PNCN
CG13998	fed MBFCs	scRNAseq, translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	34599	Moderate PNCN
Drsl4	fed SFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	57186	Dumpless, Weak PNCN
CG31659	fed MBFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	57203	None
CG13618	fed SFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	57749	Dumpless, Weak PNCN
CG14645	fed SFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	60068	Weak PNCN
CG31999	fed SFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	31587	Weak PNCN, Dumpless
LysB-Pdelta	fed MBFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	[57]#	several Dumpless
TotC	fed MBFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	62159	Weak PNCN
magu	fed SFCs	scRNAseq, translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	51169	Dumpless
magu	fed SFCs	scRNAseq, translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	41641	Dumpless
alphaTry	fed MBFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	51824	Dumpless
thetaTry	fed MBFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	53362	None
Mur18B	fed SFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	56957	Dumpless, constricted egg chambers
CG14259	fed SFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	57196	Moderate PNCN, Dumpless
CG31997	fed SFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	57517	Moderate PNCN, Dumpless, Shriveled unhealthy stage 14 egg chambers
wat	fed SFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	67801	Dumpless, abnormal nuclear morphology

Bandyadka S. et al. 2024 | Multi-modal comparison of molecular programs driving nurse cell death and clearance in *Drosophila melanogaster* oogenesis

LBR	fed SFCs	translatome, secretome - NS	Secreted/ Transmem	53269	Weak PNCN, severe Dumpless, midstage death
Prip	fed SFCs	translatome, secretome - NS	Secreted/ Transmem	50695	Moderate mid-stage death, Dumpless
AttD	starved MBFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	55979	None in fed, Higher mid-stage death in starved
CG10163	starved MBFCs	translatome - NS	Secreted/ Transmem	32959	Higher mid-stage death in fed
CG31926	starved MBFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	64664	None in fed, none in starved
Lsp1beta	starved MBFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	27042	None in fed, none in starved
Drs	fed SFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	55391	Weak PNCN, Dumpless
CG17192	starved MBFCs	translatome	Secreted/ Transmem	56042	None in fed, none in starved
CG11600	fed MBFCs	translatome	Metabolic	66927	None
CG3397	fed MBFCs	translatome	Metabolic	44115	Weak PNCN, Dumpless
Cyp6a17	fed SFCs	translatome	Metabolic	33887	None
GstD10	fed MBFCs	translatome	Metabolic	64678	Weak PNCN
GstD7	fed MBFCs	translatome	Metabolic	65961	Weak PNCN
GstD1	fed MBFCs	translatome	Metabolic	77338	Moderate PNCN, Dumpless
GstD2	fed MBFCs	translatome	Metabolic	77361	Weak PNCN, Dumpless
CG12398	fed MBFCs	scRNAseq, translatome, and secretome	Metabolic	62837	Weak PNCN
Prosalpha3	fed SFCs	scRNA & translatome, but enriched in Fed MBFCs in secretome	Metabolic	77145	Strong PNCN, stunted dorsal appendages, weak to moderate midstage death, severe arrested development, displaced and pyknotic NC nuclei, NCs in corpus luteum in fed. Severe midstage death and other previously listed phenotypes in starved
CG6277	starved MBFCs	translatome	Metabolic	33958	None in fed, none in starved
CG6277	starved MBFCs	translatome	Metabolic	51030	None in fed, none in starved
CG17633	starved MBFCs	translatome	Metabolic	60043	None in fed, none in starved
CG6508	starved MBFCs	translatome	Metabolic	64953	None in fed, none in starved

Jon25Bii	starved MBFCs	translatome	Metabolic	55344	None in fed, none in starved
Vps25	fed MBFCs	translatome	Metabolic	26286	Strong PNCN
Vps25	fed MBFCs	translatome	Metabolic	54831	None
Not1	fed SFCs	scRNA & translatome	Metabolic	32836	Moderate mid-stage death, stunted dorsal appendages
PGRP-LC	fed SFCs	translatome	NF-KB/Imd pathway	33383	Moderate PNCN, constricted or fused egg chambers, distended oocyte, premature dorsal appendage formation, dumpless
SPE	fed SFCs	translatome	NF-KB/Toll pathway	33926	Severe mid-stage death in fed, severe morphological defects
PGRP-SD	fed SFCs	translatome	NF-KB/Toll pathway	60904	Moderate PNCN, dumpless
numb	fed SFCs	translatome	notch pathway	35045	several midstage dying, distended or fused egg chambers, dumpless, stunted dorsal appendages, excessive stage 14 egg chambers (egg retention)
wgn	fed SFCs	translatome	TNF-a pathway	55275	None [58]
Dad	fed SFCs	scRNA & translatome	TGF-b pathway	33759	Dumpless, midstage death, fused egg chambers and distended SFC membranes
Act79B	fed SFCs	translatome	cytoskeletal	36857	None
Unc-115b	fed SFCs	translatome	cytoskeletal	40839	Moderate PNCN
cue	fed SFCs	translatome	cytoskeletal	36875	Strong PNCN
Scp1	fed SFCs	translatome	cytoskeletal	31957	Moderate PNCN
tpnC41C	fed SFCs	scRNA & translatome	cytoskeletal	80889	Moderate PNCN
Tm1	fed SFCs	scRNA & translatome	cytoskeletal	43542	Dumpless
Hsp23	fed SFCs & starved MBFCs	scRNA & translatome	Chaperone and heat shock proteins	44029	None in fed, none in starved
Hsp23	fed SFCs & starved MBFCs	scRNA & translatome	Chaperone and heat shock proteins	82961	None in fed, none in starved
Hsp23	fed SFCs & starved MBFCs	scRNA & translatome	Chaperone and heat shock proteins	30541*	Moderate PNCN in fed, none in starved
Npc2c	starved MBFCs	translatome	transport/binding	61315	None in fed, none in starved
His2B	starved MBFCs	translatome	DNA binding	41881	Higher mid-stage death in fed and starved
CG6403	fed MBFCs	translatome	Unknown	55983	None

Bandyadka S. et al. 2024 | Multi-modal comparison of molecular programs driving nurse cell death and clearance in *Drosophila melanogaster* oogenesis

Discussion

The role of epithelial cells as non-professional phagocytes is well established. Previous

studies have focused on singular models of apoptotic cell clearance. To understand how the

same cellular populations can participate in two distinct death paradigms, one apoptotic, and

the other non-apoptotic, we characterized the multiple levels of gene regulation required to

promote these events during *Drosophila* oogenesis. Despite the shared genetic lineage and

spatiotemporal proximity of well-fed MBFCs, starved MBFCs, and SFCs, we show that their

translatomes and secretomes are sufficient to delineate them into distinct cellular species. We

hypothesized that instantaneous cellular responses in clearance, specifically during

physiological insults such as nutrient-deprivation, would be orchestrated by translational

bursts, rather than by energetically expensive transcriptional responses [59]. With the

availability of single-cell gene expression profiles of MBFCs and SFCs [24,25,40,60], we

identified the sets of genes that are post-transcriptionally controlled. Furthermore, whole-cell

RNA sequencing data from phagocytic cells often contain contaminating mRNAs from the

payload of engulfed cell corpses. By combining TRAP-seq and LC-MS/MS with the GAL4-UAS

system, we afford finer control over both the cell types, as well as the mRNA species or

peptides being profiled. By sequencing only those mRNAs that are bound to ribosomes, we

could also disregard mRNAs that are primed for degradation and discover genes that are more

likely to play a causal role in promoting clearance.

With this comprehensive resource, we first recapitulated that the egg chamber matrisome

is disrupted in both SFCs and starved MBFCs. This is accomplished by downregulating several

components of the vitelline membrane, the chorion, and the yolk, which was captured in all

three datasets. We also showed that glucose and lipid homeostasis is disrupted in the ovaries

in response to nutrient deprivation, evidenced by the translational upregulation of *pepck1* and

FASN2 by starved MBFCs. These results also reassured us that we were capturing the right

cell populations. Several genes with functions in cytoskeletal remodeling were identified in both

death modalities, however only *Act88F* was common to them. A subset of the genes identified

exclusively in the SFC translatome are known or predicted to encode proteins that bind calcium

to promote myofibril assembly. *In vivo* validation of some of these candidates by RNAi revealed

a strong PNCN phenotype, which supports the hypothesis that nonprofessional phagocytes,

like professional phagocytes, utilize calcium signaling during cell corpse clearance [61]. We

also showed for the first time that different AMPs are preferentially induced during phagoptosis

and starvation-death of NCs, *Drs* in the former and *AttD* in the latter. Moreover, SFCs

upregulated the translation of multiple upstream regulators of the canonical Toll signaling

pathway, including PGRP-LC, PGRP-SD, and SPE. However, it remains to be known if the Toll

pathway has an immunogenic role in phagoptosis. Overall, we validated 64 transgenic lines *in*

*vivo (*Table1)*.* Interestingly, several RNAi candidates with the GR1 driver affected NC survival

rather than MBFCs. Because GR1 is not known to be active in NCs, it suggests that NC survival

is determined by the health of the surrounding follicle cells.

The results presented herein also raise multiple questions. For example, we discovered

that *AttD* translation is upregulated by starved MBFCs and that loss of *AttD* exacerbates egg

chamber degeneration. But what role does *AttD* play during starvation-stress and what factors

are required upstream to activate *AttD*? Neither the translatome nor the secretome revealed a

role for canonical members of the Imd cascade in the activation of *AttD* in starved MBFCs. It

would be worthwhile to test *in vivo* whether Imd pathway mutants, specifically in the

transcription factor *Relish*, affect *AttD* induction during starvation-stress. Because the *AttD*

genetic and amino acid sequences are a phylogenetic outgroup among *Drosophila* Attacins, it

is possible that *AttD* induction has a non-immunogenic role or even results from a heretofore

unknown mechanism [62]. Hedengren et al. also noted that *AttD* lacks signal peptides and

hypothesize that it could have a role in intracellular defense response to pathogenic challenge

[59]. Moreover, there is evidence that suggests that the vast repertoire of *Drosophila* AMPs are

used combinatorially, and that their specificity is determined by the source of the infection [63].

Taken together, we hypothesize that pathogenic and non-pathogenic insults may elicit diverse

AMP responses. Characterizing the substrates required for preferential AMP induction in

oogenesis would have implications beyond understanding how discriminatory immune

responses are regulated. Nutrient availability is a key evolutionary selective pressure that

influences life-history trade-offs between survival and reproduction at the individual level.

Resource allocation constraints affect not only maternal health and fecundity, but also

determine the offspring size and fitness. Ultimately, the molecular differences and similarities

between the two death paradigms in oogenesis highlighted in this report takes us a step closer

to understanding and appreciating how cell death shapes and sustains life.

While this study is a valuable resource to generate several new hypotheses, our findings

are constrained by the limited availability of samples. SFCs make up a small fraction of the egg

chamber cellular demographic. In addition to low abundance of cells, capturing specific subsets

of mRNAs and proteins might underrepresent species that are lowly abundant or those that

occupy spatiotemporal niches, as well as those that undergo alternative modes of post-

transcriptional regulation. For example, *drpr,* which has been established to be essential for

engulfment and has been shown to increase in engulfing FCs by immunostaining, was not

reported to be upregulated by SFCs or starved MBFCs in any of the datasets. Therefore,

exploration of other means of regulation that explain the mechanism by which these notable

genes are involved is warranted. Furthermore, our *in vivo* validation of the findings is

constrained by the limited availability and potential imprecise targeting effects of RNAi

constructs. While we expected our *in vivo* RNAi candidates to yield severe clearance defects

leading to strong persistence of NCs, we only observed weak to moderate clearance defects

in most candidates, in addition to a plethora of morphological defects (Table1). This could also

be attributed to epistatic effects or could further indicate the presence of redundancy in

clearance pathways. Additional confounding may result from the non-specificity of GR1 and

PG150, as they are known to be weakly expressed in the gut and Malpighian tubules

respectively and a known issue with the GAL4 system. Further experiments beyond RNAi and

overexpression are required to disentangle the specific contributions of these genes and their

complex interactions to promote NC death and clearance.

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Materials and Methods

Fly husbandry

All flies were obtained from Bloomington Stock Center, or other laboratories in the Drosophila

community (Table 1). *GR1-GAL4* (gift from Dr. Trudi Schüpbach) was utilized to drive

expression in follicle cells, *PG150-GAL4* (gift from Dr. Ellen LeMosy) was used to drive

expression in stretch follicle cells [64,65]. *GR1* is expressed in all FCs beginning in stage 3 egg

chambers [6]. *PG150* is expressed in the SFCs and centripetal cells. *UAS-Luciferase RNAi*

(Bloomington stock #31603) or *UAS-LexA RNAi* (Bloomington stock #67946) was used as a

control   for   all   RNAi   experiments   [66].   All   flies   were   raised   on   standard

molasses/yeast/agar/cornmeal food. Long term fly stocks were stored at 18 ℃. Active stocks

were raised at 25 ℃. Crosses were performed at 25 ℃.

Translatome library preparation and bulk RNA-Seq

Fly abdomen collection

To collect enough ovaries for RNA sequencing and prevent RNA degradation, whole fly thorax

and abdomens were collected from samples containing approximately 100 flies. Flies of the

appropriate genotype were transferred to a 15 mL conical tube and submerged in liquid N_2 for

1 min. The conical tube was then vortexed vigorously for 20 s to break flies apart and tissues

were collected over a set of sifters to obtain thoraxes and abdomens. Once samples were

processed, they were transferred to a 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube and stored in a -80°C

freezer for up to one month.

Immunoprecipitation of ribosome-bound mRNAs

Ribosome immunoprecipitation was performed as per [67]. Fresh magnetic beads were

prepared from the Dynabeads antibody coupling kit (Life Technologies) and conjugated to

the19C8 anti-EGFP antibody (Memorial Sloan Kettering). Abdomens of 100 flies were

homogenized on ice in 400 µl of homogenization buffer (9.1 mL nuclease free H_2O (Ambion),

200 μL 1M HEPES-KOH pH 7.4 (USB), 750 μL 2M KCl (Ambion), 50 μL 1M $MgCl_2$ (Ambion),

1 Complete Mini EDTA-Free Protease Inhibitor Cocktail Tablet (Roche), 5 μL 1M DTT (Sigma),

10 μL Super RNasin (Ambion), and 10 μL of freshly prepared 1000 mg/mL cycloheximide

(Sigma)). Homogenized fly samples were then centrifuged for 30 min at 20,000g at 4 °C. The

supernatant was transferred to new pre-chilled 1.5 mL tubes. A 1:1 mixture of 300 mM 1,2-

diheptanoyl-sn-glycero-3- phosphocholine (DHPC, Avanti) and 10% Igepal (USB) was added

to the to the supernatant in a ratio of 1 part mixture: 4 parts supernatant. The solutions were

mixed by inversion, incubated on ice for 5 min, then centrifuged for 5 min at >20,000g at 4 °C.

Cleared lysate was added to an aliquot of the bead suspension and incubated for 1 hr at 4 °C

with end over end rotation. The mixture was briefly centrifuged then magnetized for 2 min. After

removing the buffer, beads were rinsed 6 times in 1 mL 0.35M KCl Wash Buffer (7.1 mL

nuclease-free H_2O (Ambion), 200 μL 1M HEPES-KOH pH 7.4 (USB), 1.75 mL 2M KCl

(Ambion), 50 μL 1M $MgCl_2$ (Ambion), 1 mL 10% Igepal (USB), 5 μL 1M DTT (Sigma), and 50

μL of freshly prepared 1000 mg/mL cycloheximide (Sigma)). After final rinse, beads were

resuspended in 200 µl of nuclease-free water (Ambion) and RNA was extracted with TRIzol

(Invitrogen). RNA quality was assessed with an Agilent RNA 6000 Bioanalyzer.

cDNA library production and sequencing

The Illumina TruSeq RNA Sample Preparation v2 was used to convert 0.1 – 4 μg of precipitated

mRNA to cDNA in preparation for RNAseq. Poly-T oligo-attached magnetic beads were used

to isolate mRNA and the mRNA was fragmented and primed with random hexamers for cDNA

synthesis using SuperScript II. Second strand cDNA synthesis was performed and in

preparation for attaching the Illumina adaptor sequences, a single A nucleotide was added to

the 3' ends of the blunt fragments. Samples were run on an Agilent BioAnalyzer (BU Microarray

core). Once the samples were validated by the core, they normalized, pooled, and sequenced

on an Illumina NextSeq500. The sequencer was instructed to run 400 million 75bp single end

reads.

575   TRAP-seq QC, differential expression analysis, and functional enrichment

RNA-seq data from biological triplicates corresponding to well-fed and starved MBFCs (*GR1-*

GAL4 > UAS-RpL10a-GFP), and well-fed SFCs (*PG150-GAL4 > UAS- RpL10a-GFP*) were

assessed for sequence quality using FastQC v0.11.7. Illumina sequencing adapters were

computationally removed by the Boston University microarray sequencing core facility, where

the sequencing was performed. Samples were evaluated for per-base Phred score and for

overrepresented sequences. Reads that passed QC evaluation were aligned to the *Drosophila*

melanogaster reference genome BDGP6.32 release 104 using Salmon v1.1.0 in the quasi-

mapping mode. This step was parameterized to automatically infer sequence library type using

the -l A flag, correct for fragment-level gc-bias, as well as perform selective alignment using –

validatemappings.

The aligned reads in the salmon quant file format were then imported into DESeq2 to

identify differentially translated genes. Genotype (MBFC vs. SFC) and treatment (well-fed vs.

starved) were both used as factors in the DESeq2 linear model design [68]. Log fold change

estimates were obtained after applying the ApeGLM method for effect size shrinkage [69].

ClusterProfiler v4.2.2 and PANGEA were used to identify the pathways and gene ontology

terms enriched in both comparisons [70,71]. GLAD webtool was used to obtain additional

functional annotations [72].

593   Secretome Sample Preparation and Liquid Chromatography-Tandem Mass

594   Spectrometry

595   Molecular cloning of *UAS-ss-HRP-KDEL-V5*

pDisplay-ss-V5-HRPKDEL was obtained from Dr. Alice Ting [30].The insert was PCR-amplified

and cloned into the pENTR/D-TOPO cloning kit (Invitrogen) and pTW vector (*Drosophila*

Genome Resource Center, RRID:DGRC_1129)) using Gateway cloning (Invitrogen). The

plasmid was purified by Qiagen Midiprep kit, confirmed by sequencing and sent to BestGene

(Chino Hills, CA) for injection into *Drosophila* embryos.

Protein biotinylation using HRP-KDEL

Freshly dissected ovaries were incubated in 300 µL of 500 uM biotin phenol for 30 minutes at

room temperature rotating. Samples were then rinsed with 1X PBS twice and the biotinylation

reaction was initiated by adding 1 mM H_2O_2 in PBS to the samples for 1 minute and rotating at

room temperature. Ovaries were quickly washed with quencher solution (10 mM sodium

ascorbate, 5 mM Trolox (Sigma-Aldrich), 10 mM sodium azide, then lysed in 100 µL RIPA

buffer with quencher solution for 5 min on ice. RIPA buffer was composed of: 50 µL 1M Tris-

HCl, 150 µL 5M NaCl, 50 µL of 10% SDS, 250 µL of 10% Sodium Deoxycholate, 500 µL of

10% TritonX-100, 50 µL of 100X Protease Inhibitor (Sigma-Aldrich – P8849), 50 µL of 100 mM

PMSF, 3.550 mL of diH20. Tissue was homogenized by motorized pestle and centrifuged at

16.1g for 10 min at 4°C. Clarified sample (clear middle layer) was transferred to a new tube

and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen. This protocol was adapted from [73,74].

Biotinylated protein pull-down

Frozen protein samples were thawed on ice. Meanwhile, 50 µL streptavidin magnetic beads

(Pierce 88817) were washed with 1 mL of RIPA lysis buffer twice. The beads were

subsequently incubated with 90 µL of protein lysate (about 550 µg of protein) and an additional

500 µL of RIPA buffer was added to facilitate rotation for 1 hour at room temperature. Beads

were pelleted on a magnetic rack and the supernatant (flow-through) was collected on ice.

After each wash, the magnetic beads were transferred into new tubes and washed twice with

1 mL RIPA buffer, once with 1 mL KCl, once with 1 mL 0.1 M Na_2CO_3, once with 1 mL 2 M

Urea in 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8), and twice with 1 mL RIPA buffer. For the proteomic analysis,

RIPA buffer was removed, and the beads snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

Otherwise, protein was eluted by boiling each sample in 30 µL of 3X protein loading buffer

(containing DTT, Pierce) supplemented with 2 mM biotin (Sigma-Aldrich) for 10 min. After

boiling, the beads were pelleted with the magnetic rack and the eluate collected for analysis

by Western blot. Biotinylated proteins were probed on western blot with streptavidin-HRP

(Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Western blotting

Protein was isolated by lysing whole ovaries in 100 µL fresh ice-cold RIPA buffer for 5 minutes.

After the 5-minute incubation, tissue was disrupted by using a motorized pestle until clumps

were broken down (about 30 seconds). Samples were centrifuged for 10 minutes at 4°C at

16.1 relative centrifugal force (RCF). The clarified sample (clear middle layer only) was

transferred to a new tube. Protein that was to be analyzed later was snap frozen in liquid

nitrogen and stored at -80°C. Laemmli loading buffer with 2-mercaptoethanol (BME, Bio-Rad)

was added to the protein samples (1:3), boiled at 95°C and then immediately stored on ice.

Samples were run on a 10% resolving gel, transferred to nitrocellulose and protein was

detected by enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL, Thermo Fisher Scientific).

On-bead trypsin digestion and LC-MS/MS

Beads from biotinylated protein pull-down were washed with 100 mM triethylammonium

bicarbonate. Peptides were eluted from beads by on-bead trypsin digestion with 1µg Trypsin

(Pierce) in 100 mM triethylammonium bicarbonate overnight rotating at 37 °C. Peptides were

desalted using C18 ZipTip (Millipore) and subjected liquid chromatography coupled to tandem

mass spectrometry on a Q Exactive HF-X (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Data-dependent

fragmentation used collision-induced dissociation. RAW files were searched using MaxQuant

under standard settings using the UniProt *Drosophila melanogaster* database, allowing for two

missed trypsin cleavage sites, variable modifications for N-terminal acetylation, and methionine

oxidation. Candidate peptides and protein identifications were filtered on the basis of a 1%

false discovery rate.

Secretome QC, differential abundance estimation, and functional enrichment

Raw intensities from the MaxQuant spectral database search engine were imported into R for

downstream analysis. QC metrics such as number of unique peptides identified, percent of

contaminants and reverse decoys detected, and total sum of intensities at the replicate level

and condition level were computed and visualized using artMS v1.12.0. Spurious hits such as

reverse decoys and potential contaminants were removed. R package DEP v1.16.0 was used

to remove proteins not identified in both replicates simultaneously and variance stabilizing

transformation was applied to normalize the intensities. Missing values were imputed using the

k-nearest neighbors imputation method, followed by differential abundance estimation and

multiple hypothesis testing correction in limma, all of which were implemented in DEP.

Single cell RNA-seq data integration

Integration of Rust et. al. 2020 and Jevitt et. al. 2020

Previously published single cell RNA-sequencing datasets of the *Drosophila melanogaster*

ovary from Rust et. al. and Jevitt et. al. aligned using CellRanger were obtained from the Gene

Expression Omnibus database (GEO: GSE136162 and GSE146040 respectively). Seurat

v4.1.1 was used to perform quality control, pre-processing, data integration, and differential

expression analysis. Low quality cells were removed from individual datasets as described in

the original publications prior to integration. The datasets were then individually normalized

using sctransform implemented in Seurat using the glmGamPoi estimator for features that are

present in at least 1 cell. Seurat RPCA (Reciprocal PCA) was used to integrate the two

normalized datasets using an augmented feature list containing 3000 top ranking features from

SelectIntegrationFeatures (Seurat) and a list of known MBFC and SFC marker genes. 100

neighbors (*k.anchors*) were used to achieve sufficient strength of integration in the

FindIntegrationAnchors (Seurat) step [31].   Principal components were estimated for the

integrated dataset and the top 30 dimensions were used to obtain the UMAP embeddings.

New clusters were identified using the Louvain algorithm implemented in Seurat with the

resolution set to 5. Cell identity labels from the original publications were retained in the

integrated dataset to verify that clusters in the integrated dataset contain cells from analogous

tissues in the original datasets.

Single Cell RNA-seq SFC and MBFC module score estimation, reclustering, and

differential expression analysis

Seurat *AddModuleScore* was used to identify MBFC and SFC populations equivalent to those

in the translatome and secretome datasets. To identify SFCs, previously published SFC-

enriched genes *cv-2, dpp, eya, Past1, peb, drpr, puc, trol, kay*, *Vha16-1, Vha100-2* were used

to compute an "SFCScore". Similarly, to identify MBFCs, we scored cells using canonical

markers such as *Yp1*, *Sox14*, and *br*. Cells with SFCScore >1 were designated as SFCs and

cells with MBFCScore > 2 were designated as MBFCs. The integrated dataset was then subset

to MBFC and SFC cells and reclustered. Differentially expressed genes between MBFC and

SFC cells were identified using Seurat functions *PrepSCTFindMarkers* and *FindMarkers*, using

the DESeq2 test with logfc.threshold parameter set to 0.25.

DAPI and antibody staining

For the well-fed experimental condition, flies were aged 3 days at 25 °C on standard cornmeal,

molasses, and agar mixture, and then fed fresh yeast paste every 24 hours for 2 consecutive

days before abdomens were dissected. For the protein starvation condition, flies were

transferred for an additional day to apple juice agar lacking yeast. Ovaries were harvested in

fresh 1X PBS and fixed at room temperature for 20 minutes in a solution of 4%

paraformaldehyde (less than a week old), and 1X PBS, followed by two successive rinses in

1X PBT (1X PBS with 0.1% Triton X-100). The tissues were then washed 3 times in 1X PBT,

each wash lasting 20 minutes. Following a rinse with 1X PBS, the tissues were incubated

overnight at 4 °C in 2 drops of Vectashield + 4',6- diamidino-2-phenylindole dihydrochloride

(DAPI) (Vector Laboratories) prior to mounting on slides.

Antibody staining was performed on ovaries following fixation and washing in PBT, as

described above. Tissues were blocked in PBTG (PBT containing 1.5% normal goat serum)

for 1 hour and then incubated in Discs large antibody (43F, DHSB), diluted 1/500 in PBTG,

overnight at 4 °C with agitation. The tissues were then washed in 4 times in PBT over 2

hours. The secondary antibody was Goat anti-mouse-Cy3 (Jackson Labs) diluted in PBTG

(1:200) and incubated for 2 hours at room temperature. The tissues were then washed 4

times in PBT and mounted in DAPI (Vector Labs).

Imaging, quantification of mutant phenotypes, and statistics

DAPI stained tissues were imaged on the Olympus BX60 upright fluorescence microscope or

on the Olympus FV10i confocal microscope or the Nikon C2si confocal microscope. Image

stacks were processed in FIJI and Adobe Illustrator. Stage 14 egg chambers were identified

by the presence of a pair of fully formed dorsal appendages. The effect of disruption of

phagoptosis of NCs resulting from RNAi perturbation of specific genes was quantified by the

persistence of NC nuclei in stage 14 egg chambers. Persisting NC nuclei (PNCN) were visually

identified and scored by binning the number of PNCN in each stage 14 egg chamber into 6

classes of phenotype severity, starting from egg chambers with 0 PNCN, and subsequently 1-

3, 4-6, 7-9, 10-12, 13-15 PNCN. Egg chambers undergoing midstage death were identified by

NC nuclear condensation and fragmentation as well as FC membrane enlargement (utilizing

α-DLG staining). Midstage dying egg chambers were visually identified and quantified along

with the number of germaria present per slide. The percentage of midstage death per ovariole

was calculated by dividing the number of midstage dying eggs by the number of germaria and

multiplied by 100. Two-way ANOVA was used to calculate the statistical difference between

both starved samples to the starved control and fed samples to the fed control. Those that had

a p-value of < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Code and Data Availability

733   All scripts used for data quality control, analysis, and visualization can be accessed via GitHub

734   https://github.com/McCallLabBU/multimodal_nurse_cell_clearance

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Figure Legends

Fig 1. Nurse cell (NC) clearance is regulated apoptotically or non-apoptotically

depending on environmental cues

(A) Schematic illustrating the different fates of egg chambers. A stage egg 8 chamber is

completely surrounded by main body follicle cells (shown in teal). When the milieu is optimal

and sufficient dietary protein is available, oogenesis proceeds through 14 stages. A subset of

the main body follicle cells (MBFCs) differentiates into stretch follicle cells (SFCs, blue) and

express the phagocytic receptor Draper and the proton pump Vacuolar-ATPase on their

plasma membrane, ultimately acidifying the germline sister Nurse Cells (NCs, black nuclei)

externally to clear them. In contrast, when the organism is deprived of nutrition, MBFCs enlarge

in place (orange) and engulf the NCs, also by expressing Draper on their surfaces. In both

death modalities, FCs clear NCs, albeit using different morphological configurations and

biochemical pathways, providing a unique opportunity to study diverse cell death modalities in

the same system (B) Venn diagram illustrating that developmental phagoptosis (blue) and

starvation-induced death of NCs (orange) share key features such as the expression of Draper

on the surface of the follicle cells and the activation of JNK signaling.

Fig 2. Establishing the translatome, secretome, and transcriptome of MBFCs and SFCs

(A) Schematic illustrating the experimental design for identification of the translatome and

secretome from 3 conditions/cell types. *GAL4* drivers *GR1* and *PG150* were used to drive

expression of *Rpl10a-GFP* in MBFCs (fed or protein-starved) and SFCs. The resulting GFP-

conjugated ribosomes were immunoprecipitated and the mRNAs bound to the ribosomes were

sequenced to produce the translatome. Similarly, to generate the secretome, *GR1* and *PG150*

were used to drive the expression of *ss-HRP-KDEL-V5* in MBFCs and SFCs. HRP-KDEL

expressed in cells localizes to the endoplasmic reticulum and biotinylated when incubated with

biotin-phenol and H_2O_2. The tagged proteins were subsequently isolated using streptavidin

beads and analyzed via LC-MS/MS to produce the secretome. (B) PCA Dimension reduction

of aggregated gene-level transcript counts in translatome bioreplicates. (C) PCA of peptide

intensity values of secretome bioreplicates. (D) UMAP embedding of Seurat RPCA integrated

cells from publicly available single-cell RNA-seq atlases of the *Drosophila melanogaster*

ovaries [24,25]. Cells are colored by the dataset of origin. (E) UMAP embedding of the

integrated ovary datasets colored by SFC module score. To identify cells most likely to be

stretch follicle cells in the integrated dataset, an aggregate score comprising the expression

values of canonical SFC markers used in the published individual datasets were computed and

projected on to the UMAP. (F) UMAP embedding of the integrated ovary datasets colored by

mid/late MBFC module score. To identify cells most likely to be mid/late MBFCs in the

integrated dataset, an aggregate score comprising the expression values of canonical mid/late

MBFC markers used in the published individual datasets were computed and projected on to

the UMAP. (G) Cells with a high SFC score (>1) and high mid/late MBFC score (>2x) were

extracted from the integrated dataset and subject to reclustering. Updated PCA and UMAP

embeddings were computed for the MFBC and SFC subset and clusters containing MBFCs

and SFCs were identified after normalizing read counts in the new subset.

Fig 3. Functional enrichment of candidates identified in the translatome and secretome

reveals pathways common and unique to phagoptosis and starvation-death of NCs.

(A) Scatterplot of differentially translated gene candidates in phagoptosis (Fed SFCs / Fed

MBFCs – x-axis) and starvation-death (Starved MBFCs / Fed MBFCs – y-axis) obtained using

DESeq2. LFC differentials and FDR adjusted p-values from both analyses were compared to

find genes congruently or uniquely regulated in both death modalities. Quadrants 1 and 3

indicate genes congruently up and down-regulated in phagoptosis and starvation-death

respectively. Congruency was determined if the direction of LFC was the same and if the

adjusted p-value was less than 0.05 in both. (B) Scatterplot of differentially abundant

candidates in phagoptosis and starvation-death in the secretome. Proteins common to both

death modalities were not found. UniProt identifiers along with gene symbols of detected

proteins are specified. (C) Counts of genes regulated congruently and uniquely in phagoptosis

and starvation-death of NCs in the translatome. Figure color legend same as in (A). (D) Dot

plot of GO-terms enriched in the categories of differentially translated genes identified in (A

and C). (E) Dot plot of GO-terms enriched in the secretome of fed SFCs and starved MBFCs.

Fig 4. RNAi knockdown of Ca2+ associated cytoskeleton regulators leads to

developmental NC clearance defects

(A-B) Representative images of anterior regions of stage 14 egg chambers from control (GR1

> *Luciferase* RNAi) and mutant (GR1 > *cue* RNAi) flies. DNA is labelled with DAPI (cyan).

Stage 14 egg chambers are distinguished by two fully developed dorsal appendages (DA),

indicated by white arrows. Persisting NC nuclei (PNCN) indicating a disruption to phagoptosis

resulting from RNAi are marked by yellow arrows. Scale bars = 50µ. (C) Quantification of PNCN

in stage 14 egg chambers. GR1 > *cue* RNAi demonstrates a strong PNCN phenotype, while

the other mutants demonstrate a moderate to weak PNCN phenotype. At least 10 flies (20

ovaries) were used for each genotype. (*** $p <= 5e-04$, **** $p <= 5e-05$, ns $p>0.05$, one-sided

independent t-test)

Fig 5. The role of innate immune signaling in NC clearance

(A) Heatmap of scaled read counts of NF-κB regulators and antimicrobial peptide genes

upregulated by fed SFCs or starved MBFCs in the translatome. (B) Quantification of PNCN in

stage 14 egg chambers from NF-κB or AMP knockdowns. (*** $p <= 5e-04$, **** $p <= 5e-05$, ns

$p>0.05$, one-sided independent t-test). Significance levels are indicated for samples that have

at least 3 replicates. (C) Egg chambers from wild-type fly ovaries stained with DAPI (cyan) and

anti-Dlg (magenta) to label FC membranes. Scale bars= 200µ. (D) Egg chambers from *GR1 >*

SPE RNAi fly ovaries stained with DAPI and anti-Dlg. *GR1 > SPE RNAi* ovarioles contain intact

germaria and healthy early egg chambers but show wide-spread degeneration beginning

around stage 6. Scale bars= 200µ. (E-G) Images of individual healthy and mid-stage dying egg

chambers from wild-type ovaries and a mid-stage dying egg chamber from *GR1 > SPE RNAi*

stained with DAPI and anti-Dlg. The *GR1 > SPE RNAi* degenerating egg chamber is lacking

most of the MBFC layer, indicated by white arrows. NC DNA in *GR1 > SPE RNAi* is highly

condensed and few are fragmented. Anterior-posterior polarity of the egg chamber is lost, with

NCs extending into the posterior end, displacing the oocyte. Scale bars= 50μ. (H) *GR1 >LexA*

RNAi starved control shows sporadically degenerating egg chambers, Scale bars= 200μ. (I)

GR1 >AttD RNAi starved shows increased degeneration of egg chambers Scale bars= 200μ.

(J) Quantitative analysis of midstage degenerating egg chambers with one-way ANOVA.

Fig 6. *in vivo* RNAi screening under fed condition

(A) Heatmap of scaled read counts of major signaling pathway genes that are significantly

differentially regulated in SFCs. (B,C) *GR1 > Dad RNAi* and *GR1 > LBR RNAi* result in a

"dumpless" phenotype (outlined in magenta), in addition to increased mid-stage death (orange

arrows). Scale bar=100μ. (D) *GR1 > numb RNAi* results in mid-stage death accompanied by

abnormal egg chamber morphology (yellow arrows). Scale bar=100μ. (E) *GR1 > prosα3 RNAi*

ovaries have a strong PNCN phenotype. Scale bar=50μ. (F-G) GR1 > *wat* RNAi results in

extensive NC nuclei vacuolization. (F) NC nuclei in a stage 9 egg chamber from CantonS ovary.

Scale bar = 50μ. (F', F'') 3D surface plot of individual nuclei in stage 9 egg chamber from

CantonS ovary after z-projection (max-intensity across stacks). Colors of peaks represent pixel

intensity across z-stacks, with darker colors representing lower pixel intensity in the area (low

DAPI staining) and lighter colors representing higher pixel intensity (robust DAPI staining). (G)

NC nuclei in a stage 9 egg chamber from *GR1 > wat RNAi* ovary. Scale bar = 50μ. (G', G'') 3D

surface plot of individual nuclei in stage 9 egg chamber from *GR1 > wat RNAi* ovary after z-

projection (max-intensity across stacks) reveals increased vacuolization. (H) Quantification of

PNCN in stage 14 egg chambers of candidates from Table 1. (* $p < 5e-02$, ** $p <= 5e-03$, *** p

$<= 5e-04$, **** $p <= 5e-05$, ns $p>0.05$, one-sided independent t-test). Significance levels are

indicated for samples that have at least 3 replicates.

Fig 7. *in vivo* RNAi screening under protein-starved condition

melanogaster oogenesis

1035   (A-F) Egg chambers stained with DAPI (cyan) from the indicated genotypes under protein

1036   starvation. (A) *GR1>LexA RNAi* starved control shows sporadically degenerating egg

1037   chambers. (B-F) RNAi knockdowns of genes enriched in starved MBFCs. (G) Quantitative

1038   analysis of midstage degenerating egg chambers with one-way ANOVA.

S1 Fig. Characterization of the Rpl10a-GFP construct for TRAP-seq

1040   (A-D) Egg chambers of indicated genotypes stained with DAPI.   (A) Expression of *GR1 >*

1041   *Rpl10A-GFP* in MBFCs. Scale bars= 200µ (B) Expression of *GR1 > Rpl10A-GFP* in MBFCs.

1042   Scale bars= 50µ (C) Expression of *PG150 > Rpl10A-GFP* in SFCs. Scale bars= 200µ (D)

1043   Expression of *PG150 > Rpl10A-GFP* in SFCs. Scale bars= 50µ.

S2 Fig. Characterization of the HRP-KDEL construct for LC-MS/MS

(A-B) Egg chambers of indicated genotypes stained for DAPI (cyan) and anti-V5 (magenta) to

detect HRP-KDEL. (A) *GR1 > UAS-HRP*-KDEL-V5 stage 8 egg chamber shows HRP-KDEL in

all follicle cells. (B) *PG150 > UAS-HRP-KDEL-V5* stage 10 egg chamber shows HRP-KDEL in

stretch follicle cells only. (C-F) *PG150 > UAS-HRP-KDEL-V5* stage 11 egg chamber with (C)

DAPI, (D) biotinylated proteins (streptavidin-488, green), and (E) HRP-KDEL (anti-V5,

magenta). (F) Protein biotinylation pattern is restricted to cells expressing HRP-KDEL. (G)

(Top) Western blot analysis of lysate (30 µg per lane) from ovaries of indicated genotypes

(GR1 – *GR1-GAL4*, HRP-KDEL – *UAS-HRP-KDEL-V5*, GR1>HRP-KDEL – *GR1-GAL4; UAS-*

HRP-KDEL-V5, and PG150>HRP-KDEL – *PG150-GAL4; UAS-HRP-KDEL-V5*) incubated with

or without substrate (biotin-phenol) and H_2O_2. *GR1>HRP-KDEL* and *PG150>HRP-KDEL*

sample with both substrate and H_2O_2 have many biotinylated proteins as detected by

streptavidin-HRP. (Bottom) α-V5 staining confirms HRP-KDEL expression in ovary tissue. (H)

Western blot probed with streptavidin-HRP. Biotinylated proteins before (I- input, 30 µg) and

after (B-beads, all of eluted protein) streptavidin enrichment. Genotypes as in G. (I) Scatterplot

of peptide log2 intensity values of one replicate against another in each condition. (J)

Distribution of log2 peptide intensity values in each replicate for all conditions.

S3 Fig. Integration of scRNAseq and comparison to the translatome.

(A-D) Expression levels of canonical MBFC and SFC markers (E) Dot plot showing average

expression and the percent of cells expressing each canonical marker in SFCs and MBFCs

(F) Scatterplot of Log2 Fold Change values of differentially translated genes in the translatome

(x-axis) and Log2 Fold Change values of differentially expressed genes in the integrated single

cell RNAseq MBFC-SFC subset (y-axis). Positive values on both axes indicate upregulation in

SFCs, when compared to the MBFC baseline (denominator, negative values on both axes).

The points are colored by whether the L2FC differential is significant at the adjusted p-value

threshold of 0.05 in both, either, or neither comparison. (G) Summary of total number of genes

in each category grouped by the direction of L2FC differential in scRNA-seq and translatome

datasets. (H) Distribution of absolute value of differences in L2FC in translatome and

scRNAseq.

Supplemental Tables

1074
1075   **S1 Table. GO-terms enriched in phagoptosis and starvation-death identified in the**

1076   **translatome.**

1077   Summary of the number of genes congruently (up or down) and uniquely regulated between

1078   SFCs and starved MBFCs and the GO terms enriched in each category, along with the

1079   adjusted p-value.

1080

1081   **S2 Table. Differentially regulated candidates (Log fold change and FDR adjusted p-**

1082   **values) in phagoptosis across the translatome, secretome, and the integrated scRNA-**

1083   **seq datasets.**

1084   Log fold change and FDR adjusted p-values obtained from DESeq2 (translatome, scRNA-

1085   seq) or DEP (secretome) are summarized for the SFC vs. fed MBFC comparison.

1086

1087   **S3 Table. Differentially regulated candidates in starvation-death across the**

1088   **translatome, secretome, and the integrated scRNA-seq datasets.**

1089   Log fold change and FDR adjusted p-values obtained from DESeq2 (translatome, scRNA-

1090   seq) or DEP (secretome) are summarized for the starved MBFC vs. fed MBFC comparison.

1091

S4 Table. Consolidated summary of candidates differentially expressed in the

translatome in both phagoptosis and starvation-death.

Log fold change and FDR adjusted p-values obtained from DESeq2 are summarized for each

gene in both SFC vs fed MBFC comparison and starved MBFC vs. fed MBFC comparison.

Genes are categorized as congruently up or down-regulated or as uniquely regulated in

phagoptosis or starvation based on the fold change and FDR adjusted p-values across both

comparisons.

Fig 1

A Nurse-cell death modalities
stage 8 egg chamber

Main Body Follicle Cells (MBFCs)

nutrient-poor diet
starvation-induced death
stage 8 egg chamber

nutrient-rich diet
developmental phagoptosis
stage 11 egg chamber

Starved Main Body Follicle Cells

Stretch Follicle Cells (SFCs)

H+

Vacuolar-ATPases

Draper

B

Enlarged cuboidal morphology of follicle cells

Dcp-1 upregulation

Autophagy signaling

Nurse-cell blebbing

JNK signaling
Cell-surface expression of Draper

Squamous morphology of follicle cells

Cell-surface expression of Vacuolar-ATPases

H+ and Cathepsin release

Fig 2

A Experimental design

Main Body Follicle Cells (MBFCs) — GR1-GAL4 — Well-fed

Main Body Follicle Cells (MBFCs) — GR1-GAL4 — Starved

Stretch Follicle Cells (SFCs) — PG150-GAL4 — Well-fed

Condition

Genotype

Treatment

UAS — **Rpl10A-GFP**

UAS — **ss-HRP-KDEL-V5**

Experiment

B Bulk RNA-seq "Translatome"

PC2 / PC1

C Label-free MS/MS "Secretome"

PC2 / PC1

Dataset

Samples
GR1-GAL4 / Fed
GR1-GAL4 / Starved
PG150-GAL4 / Fed

Batches
● Batch 1
■ Batch 2

Integration of single-cell RNA-seq atlases
of the D. melanogaster ovary

D ● Jevitt2020 ● Rust2020 — UMAP

E UMAP

F UMAP

G ● MBFC ● SFC — UMAP

Fig 3

Fig 4

A GR1>*Luciferase*^RNAi — DNA, Phase contrast, DA

B GR1>*cue*^RNAi — PNCN, DA

C

Mean persisting NC nuclei

- GR1>*Luciferase*^RNAi
- GR1>*cue*^RNAi ****
- GR1>*tpnC41C*^RNAi ****
- GR1>*Scp1*^RNAi ****
- GR1>*Unc-115b*^RNAi ***
- GR1>*Tm1*^RNAi ****
- GR1>*Act79B*^RNAi ns

Fig 5

Fig 6

Fig 7

A GR1>*LexA*^RNAi DNA

B GR1>*His2B*^RNAi

C GR1>*Hsp23*^OE

D GR1>*Lsp1β*^RNAi

E GR1>*CG6277*^RNAi

F GR1>*CG10163*^RNAi

G

S1 Fig

S2 Fig

S3 Fig

● Adj.p < 0.05 in both scRNAseq and translatome   ● Adj.p < 0.05 in translatome only
● Adj.p < 0.05 in scRNAseq only   ● Adj.p >= 0.05 in both scRNAseq and translatome