1   **Title: Drosophila's sensory responses to bacterial peptidoglycan integrates positive and**

2   **negative signals**

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Abstract

Interactions between animals, including humans, and surrounding microbes are governed by a delicate balance, crucial for survival. Animals must distinguish and respond adequately to beneficial and harmful microbes to maintain homeostasis. Recent research suggests that bacterial components such as lipopolysaccharide and peptidoglycan (PGN) influence host behavior by modulating neuronal activity. PGN detection by specific neurons can prompt infected female flies to reduce oviposition or trigger avoidance behaviors via gustatory neurons. Using behavioral assays and calcium imaging, we found that PGNs can also act as attractants, activating the sweet taste circuit in a concentration-dependent manner. Our findings demonstrate that flies integrate PGN-derived positive and negative signals to make ad hoc decisions. This dual response underlines the need for *Drosophila* to distinguish between different concentrations of compounds in their environment, integrating sensory data to navigate efficiently in microbe-co-inhabited environments.

Highlights

- Bacterial PGN is attractive to flies at high concentrations

- Gr5a sweet gustatory neurons are activated by PGN in an NF-kB independent manner

- PER to high PGN concentrations remains in axenic flies

- Fly gustatory response to PGN integrates both attractive and aversive signals

Introduction

The interactions between animals, including humans, and the microbes surrounding them are governed by a subtle balance. To understand the mechanisms underlying this equilibrium, the insect *Drosophila melanogaster* serves as a powerful model, as microorganisms are essential for the host's development, survival, nutrient s, or making certain food sources digestible (Storelli et al., 2011). Some beneficial microbes occupy ecological niches that would otherwise be filled by harmful microorganisms if they were absent (Kim et al., 2010). Conversely, certain pathogenic species must be detected, avoided, or even actively combated by animals (Charroux et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2024; Tleiss et al., 2024). The ability of animals to detect, identify, and respond appropriately to the microbial world is therefore essential for their homeostasis and sustainability.

Recent studies have begun to explore the hypothesis that essential bacterial cell wall components, such as lipopolysaccharides (LPS) and peptidoglycan (PGN), which are well-characterized ligands for receptors expressed by immune cells, might also modulate host neuronal activity. Such molecular dialogue could allow the host to "sample" its surroundings via its sensory system and adopt behaviors that limit contact with pathogenic microbes or, in case of infection, reduce its impact on the host and its offspring (Kobler et al., 2020; Yanagawa et al., 2017). For instance, PGN detection by a few specific neurons can modulate oviposition behavior in infected females (Kurz et al., 2017; Masuzzo et al., 2022). In this case, the detection of a universal bacterial cell wall component by certain neurons in the brain acts as a molecular alarm, triggering a behavioral change in infected females, reducing their oviposition rate, and potentially conserving energy for the energy-demanding immune response. Other studies demonstrate that bacterial molecular patterns are directly detected by the fly's gustatory system. The detection of LPS by esophageal bitter sensing neurons enables flies to avoid LPS

in feeding and oviposition assays (Soldano et al., 2016). We previously reported that by

activating the bitter gustatory network, bacterial PGN can suppress the appetitive effect of a

sucrose solution, demonstrating that PGN can be perceived as a bitter substance by flies

(Montanari et al., 2024). As microbes are important cues for flies, which feed and reproduce

on rotting fruits, we wonder whether they are also detected by the sensory system as positive

cues.

In this study, we used the proboscis extension reflex assay (Shiraiwa and Carlson, 2007) and

calcium imaging to assess whether a PGN solution could also activate the sweet taste circuit

in flies. Our data reveal that PGN can elicits Gr5a+ neuron-dependent activation within the

sweet taste network, demonstrating a dual response of the fly's taste system to PGN. This

response is repulsive at low concentrations and attractive at higher concentrations, differing

from the dual response to salt or hexanoic acid observed in other gustatory neurons (Jaeger

et al., 2018; McDowell et al., 2022; Pradhan et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2013). This dichotomous

response suggests that *Drosophila* shares a need to detect and differentiate between high and

low concentrations of specific compounds present in food substrates, engaging different

receptors and neuronal cells with distinct coding logic. Furthermore, the detection of bacteria

by flies requires integrating inputs from multiple subsets of sensory neurons to generate

appropriate responses to bacterial PGN.

Results

Bacterial PGN is Attractive to Flies at High Concentrations

We have previously shown that Diaminopimelic-type peptidoglycan (Dap-type PGN), which

forms the cell wall of all Gram-negative bacteria (specifically *Escherichia coli* PGN in our study),

activates neurons responsible for aversive behaviors in flies (Montanari et al., 2024).

Specifically, Gr66a+ (Wang et al., 2004) and ppk23+ (Jaeger et al., 2018) neurons located on

the proboscis respond to PGN (Masuzzo et al., 2022; Montanari et al., 2024). Moreover,

overexpression of IMD pathway components in Gr66a+ cells alters fly behavior (Masuzzo et

al., 2022). Finally, using the Proboscis Extension Reflex (PER) assay, which quantifies gustatory

reflexes in immobilized animals (Shiraiwa and Carlson, 2007), we showed that *E. coli* PGN can

evoke an aversive response in flies (Montanari et al., 2024).

In the present study, since bacteria might also be perceived as beneficial by the adult fly, we

investigated the potential attractive effect of PGN. To assess whether brief contact with PGN

could trigger an attractive response, we focused on the proboscis extension response (PER),

part of the sensorimotor taste circuit in adult flies (Figure 1A) (Schwarz et al., 2017; Shiraiwa

and Carlson, 2007). To measure the attractiveness of a compound, we tested the molecule

without mixing it with anything other than its solvent. When the fly's labellum (analogous to

the tongue) is stimulated by a molecule like sucrose, it immediately extends its proboscis

towards the food (Video 1). A chemical is considered more or less attractive based on its

response relative to the reference solvent and a prototypical attractive substance, sucrose.

To determine if PGN could be attractive to flies, we tested this bacterial molecule alone,

diluted in water at various concentrations. When the labellum was exposed to 1 mM sucrose,

approximately 70% of flies extended their proboscis in an attempt to feed, illustrating the

appetitive value of sucrose (Video 1 and Figure 1B). Water alone triggered a PER in 20% of

flies, and since the animals were allowed to drink to satiety before the test, we considered

this response to water to be neutral, likely due to mechanical stimulation (Video 2 and Figure

1B). We then tested the fly's response to *E. coli* DAP-type PGN. At concentrations of 10 µg/ml

(E.c.10) and 100 µg/ml (E.c.100), only 20% of flies extended their proboscis, similar to the

response to water, suggesting that PGN is not palatable at these concentrations (Figure 1B).

However, exposure to PGN at 200 µg/ml (*E.c.200*) showed a trend toward increased response,

with around 40% of flies performing a PER (Figure 1B). At 500 µg/ml (*E.c.500*), 70% of flies

extended their proboscis, a response similar to that seen with 1 mM sucrose (Video 3, Video

4 and Figure 1B). Thus, PGN at 500 µg/ml is as attractive to flies as 1 mM sucrose.

When DAP-type PGN from the Gram-positive bacterium *Bacillus subtilis* (*B.s.500*) and Lysine-

type PGNs from *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S.a.500*), *Micrococcus luteus* (*M.l.500*), and *E. coli* at

an OD of 100 (OD100) were used as elicitors, the response was comparable to that of sucrose

or *E. coli* PGN at 500 µg/ml (Figure 1B). Moreover, when we exposed animals to the bacterium

E. coli at an OD of 100, we observed an attractive response, recapitulating the phenotype

observed with PGN (Figure 1B).The attractive effect of *E. coli* PGN at 500 µg/ml (*E.c.500*) was

observed in flies from different genetic backgrounds, including *w-, yw,* and *CantonS* strains, as

well as in *w-* flies reared on either protein-rich (prot+) or sugar-rich (suc+) media,

demonstrating the robustness of the phenotype (Figure 1C and 1D).

These findings demonstrate that, at high concentrations, both Lysine- and DAP-type PGNs are

attractive to the fly's gustatory system.

Axenic flies are still capable of triggering the PER response to PGN.

Given that both larvae and adults live in a non-sterile environment, and that we recently

reported that larval cohabitation with bacteria is crucial for adults to perceive DAP-type PGN

as aversive, we tested whether the palatability of PGN *E.c.500* in adult flies was also

dependent on the presence of larval microbiota (Montanari et al., 2024). When flies were

reared on antibiotic-containing medium throughout their lifespan (axenic), the PER response

to DAP-type PGN *E.c.500* solutions was similar to that observed with sucrose and

indistinguishable from the response measured in non-axenic animals (==Figure 1E==). Thus,

contrary to our findings regarding aversion to DAP-type PGN (Montanari et al., 2024), neither

larval cohabitation with bacteria nor adult life in a non-aseptic medium influenced attractive

behavior toward high concentrations of DAP-type PGN.

PGN Detection by the Gustatory System Involves Gr5a Neurons

To identify which neurons respond to PGN *E.c.500*, attractive proboscis extension reflexes

(PER) were performed in flies where specific neurons were inactivated by overexpressing the

Kir2.1 potassium channel (UAS-Kir2.1), which blocks the generation of action potentials. The

expression of the Gr5a receptor is characteristic of neurons involved in the detection of sweet

molecules (==Figure 2A==), and these Gr5a+ neurons play a role in attractive behaviors (Dahanukar

et al., 2001). Importantly, inactivation of Gr5a+ neurons using the cell-specific driver Gr5a-

Gal4 (Gr5a-Gal4/UAS-Kir2.1) abolished the attractive response to both 1mM sucrose and DAP-

type PGN (Figure. 2B). Thus, sweet neurons are essential for triggering a PER response to high

concentrations of PGN in adult flies. Notably, the PER response of Gr5a-Gal4/UAS-Kir2.1 flies

to PGN *E.c.500* was significantly lower than the baseline response to water, with less than 10%

of flies showing PER (==Figure 2B==). This suggests that in the absence of sweet neuron activity

(Gr5a-Gal4/UAS-Kir2.1), PGN *E.c.500* is perceived as aversive by the flies. This finding is

consistent with our previous observation that DAP-type PGNs can induce ppk23+ neuron-

dependent aversion (Montanari et al., 2024). A possible explanation is that, in the absence of

attractive PGN perception (Gr5a-Gal4/UAS-Kir2.1), the aversion to this molecule becomes

apparent. These results suggest an integration of positive and negative inputs that influence

the fly's decision-making process regarding the taste of different DAP-type PGN

concentrations.

Gr5a Neurons Are Required in Adults to Detect PGN *E.c.500*

In a previous study, we showed that Gr66a+ larval neurons are essential for priming the adult

behavioral response to DAP-type PGN (Montanari et al., 2024). Despite the fact that Gr5a+

neurons do not seem to be present in larvae (Kwon et al., 2011), we wished to test in an

unbiased way whether putative larval Gr5a+ cells could influence adult attraction to PGN

E.c.500. We used the Gal4/Gal80ts binary system, which allows spatial and temporal control

of neuron inactivation (Figure 2C). When 1mM sucrose or PGN *E.c.500* solutions were used as

stimuli, conditional inactivation of Gr5a+ neurons only in adults was as effective as lifelong

inactivation of these neurons. In contrast, inactivating Gr5a+ neurons only during the larval

stage had no impact on the fly's ability to respond to sucrose or PGN *E.c.500* (Figure 2D).

Therefore, adult PER behavior towards PGN *E.c.500* requires functional Gr5a+ neurons in the

adult stage.

DAP-type PGN Directly Activates Gr5a Sweet Neurons

The observation that Gr5a+ neurons are required for the PER response to PGN stimulation led

us to investigate whether these cells could be directly activated by DAP-type PGN. Using in

vivo GCaMP imaging, we monitored the neuronal activity of Gr5a+ axonal projections in the

suboesophageal zone (SEZ) of the brain in Gr5a-Gal4/UAS-GCaMP6s flies, which were exposed

to either water (Video 5), sucrose 1mM or (Video 6) or a drop of PGN. Exposure of the labellum

of *Gr5a-Gal4/UAS-GCaMP6s* flies to DAP-type PGN at 100µg/ml (Video 7) and 500µg/ml led

to an increase in intracellular calcium levels in axonal projections in the SEZ (Figure 3A and

3B). These results were confirmed with another pan-sweet taste neuron driver, Gr64f-Gal4

(Jiao et al., 2008) (Videos 8-10 and Figure S1). These findings demonstrate that PGN can

directly activate sweet taste neurons at high concentrations.

Sweet Neurons Mediating Attraction to PGN E.c.500 Require Gr5a and Gr64 Receptors but

Are Independent of the IMD Pathway

Having identified the neurons that respond to PGN and are required for the PER, we next

investigated the receptors and pathways involved. Previous studies have shown that the Gr5a

and Gr64a-f family proteins are receptors expressed in sweet neurons and are involved in

detecting sweet molecules such as sucrose and fructose (Dahanukar et al., 2001; Jiao et al.,

2008). To identify the receptors involved in PGN sensing, we used mutants lacking both Gr5a

and the Gr64a-f family receptors (Gr5a-Gr64a-fCRISPR). The PER response of these mutants

to sucrose and PGN *E.c.500* was comparable to the response to water (Figure 4A). Since these

mutant animals no longer respond to sweet molecules, we used a low salt concentration

(50mM NaCl) as a positive attractive control to ensure proper selection of responsive animals.

The lack of increased PER upon exposure to PGN *E.c.500*, compared to the baseline water

response, indicates that the tested sugar receptors are involved in PGN *E.c.500* perception.

Regarding the immune response, DAP-type PGN has been shown to be a major inducer of the

PGRP/NF-kB-IMD pathway, leading to the production of immune effectors and regulators

(Leulier et al., 2003) (Figure 4B). Our previous data indicated that elements of the IMD

pathway are required for DAP-type PGN signal transduction in adult bitter taste neurons

(Gr66a+ cells) (Masuzzo et al., 2022). To explore the role of the IMD pathway in PGN *E.c.500*

response, we used RNA interference to downregulate components of the IMD pathway. Flies

with downregulated PGRP-LC receptor and the IMD transducer FADD specifically in Gr5a+

neurons (*Gr5a-Gal4/UAS-pgrp-LC_RNAi* and *Gr5a-Gal4/UAS-Fadd_RNAi*) showed sensitivity

to PGN E.c.500 similar to that of control flies, indicating that neither PGRP-LC nor FADD is

required for the PER response to PGN *E.c.500* (Figure 4C).

Integration of Attractive and Aversive Signals from PGN Exposure Modulates the PER

Our data show that PGN E.c.500 elicits a Gr5a+ neuron-dependent PER response, comparable

to that induced by 1mM sucrose. We also demonstrated that DAP-type PGN at concentrations

of 100µg/ml and 500µg/ml are capable of activating Gr5a+ neurons (Figure 3A-C and Video 7).

We previously reported that DAP-type PGN at 200µg/ml antagonizes the PER response to

1mM sucrose by activating adult *ppk23+* neurons (Montanari et al., 2024). Taken together,

these data suggest that DAP-type PGN concentrations ranging from 100µg/ml to 200µg/ml

can activate both attractive and aversive neurons. Thus, depending on its concentration,

E. coli-derived DAP-type PGN can either trigger or inhibit a PER via the activation of two

independent sets of neurons (Figure 5A).

Therefore, when exposed to PGN, opposing signals from different neurons can be integrated

by the fly, and the resulting PER will be the outcome of this integration. In this context, the

PER to PGN E.c.500 is likely the sum of inputs from Gr5a+ neurons (attraction) as well as from

Gr66a+ or ppk23+ neurons (aversion). Blocking the input from sweet neurons using Gr5a-

Gal4/UAS-Kir2.1 should abolish the attraction to PGN and may reveal an aversion.

Consistently, the PER to PGN *E.c.500* was lower than the water baseline in Gr5a-Gal4/UAS-

Kir2.1 flies (Figure 2B). This observation was further confirmed by performing the opposite

experiment, where blocking the activity of aversive neurons led to an increase in attraction.

While the attractive PER to DAP-type PGN at 100 μg/mL or 200 μg/mL in wild-type flies was

not statistically different from the solvent control (Figure 1B and 5B), blocking the activity of

Gr66a+ or ppk23+ neurons (Gr66a-Gal4/UAS-Kir2.1 and ppk23-Gal4/UAS-Kir2.1) resulted in a

significantly higher PER to PGN compared to the water baseline (Figure 5A and 5B).

We previously reported that aversion to PGN requires the activity of adult ppk23+ neurons,

and that these neurons' ability to respond to PGN is dependent on developmental diet, and in

particular to larval cohabitation with bacteria (Montanari et al., 2024). Based on this, we

hypothesized that rearing animals in axenic conditions would impair PGN aversion in adults,

making them more attracted to PGN. While the PER to water or 1mM sucrose was not

influenced by rearing conditions, axenic animals exposed to DAP-type PGN at 200μg/ml

exhibited an increased PER compared to controls, regardless of whether the axenic period

lasted throughout their lives or was restricted to the larval stage (Figure 5C). This result

supports a model in which the PER to PGN is determined by an integration of attractive and

aversive signals from independent neuronal networks.

Discussion

Our results demonstrate that at concentrations above 200 μg/ml, both DAP-type and Lys-type

PGN, essentially the majority of PGNs, are capable of stimulating sweet neurons through the

activation of receptors previously identified as sugar receptors. This activation is likely due to

the sugar components of PGN, specifically the long polymers of the disaccharides N-

acetylmuramic acid and N-acetylglucosamine. Since these sugar components are common to

all PGNs, it is logical that both Lys- and DAP-type PGNs are able to activate sugar neurons, as

observed in this study (Vollmer et al., 2008). PGN can be modified by enzymes like amidases

and lysozymes, which fragment the polymer into smaller units called muropeptides. Previous

studies in insects and mammals have shown that different muropeptides can activate specific

receptors with varying degrees of efficacy (Fioriti et al., 2024; Leulier et al., 2003; Tosoni et al.,

2019).

What remains to be determined is the minimum structural unit of PGN capable of activating

sugar neurons, and whether the level of neuronal activation depends on the specific structure

of the muropeptides. Interestingly, the activation we observed appears to be independent of

the IMD pathway, as the proboscis extension responses (PER) to PGN were similar in both

control flies and those mutant for certain components of the IMD/NF-kB pathway. This

response contrasts with previous findings where PGN, at concentrations near 200 µg/ml, was

shown to activate bitter sensing Gr66a+ neurons via part of the IMD pathway, though not

involving the Relish transcription factor (Masuzzo et al., 2022). It is also worth noting that the

ability to perceive PGN as a bitter molecule has only been observed with DAP-type PGNs,

which are typically found in Gram-negative bacteria, making this response specific to a subset

of bacterial species, unlike the response observed in our study.

In contrast, the sweet neuron response we report here more closely resembles the response

observed in ppk23+ neurons, which is also independent of the IMD pathway (Montanari et al.,

2024). However, there is a notable difference between the attractive response mediated by

Gr5a+ neurons and the aversive response mediated by ppk23+ neurons. The aversive

response to PGN requires bacterial priming during the larval phase and is absent in axenic

flies, while the Gr5a+ neuron-mediated attraction to PGN occurs even in flies reared in the

complete absence of bacteria. These findings suggest that the detection and response to PGN

by Gr5a+ neurons in adults are not dependent on prior exposure to bacteria.

By measuring PERs in flies with blocked bitter or sweet circuits, we show that the fly's taste

system integrates signals from at least three distinct types of neurons—Gr66a+, ppk23+, and

Gr5a+—to determine how to respond to PGN. Notably, the activation of these neurons is not

triggered by the same concentrations of PGN. Similar dose-dependent behavioral responses

have been described for other compounds. For example, NaCl is attractive at 50 mM through

the Gr5a+ network, but aversive at 250 mM via ppk23+ neurons (Zhang et al., 2013; Jaeger et

al., 2018; McDowell et al., 2022). Likewise, hexanoic acid is attractive at low concentrations

via Gr5a+ cells, but aversive at higher concentrations through the bitter network (Pradhan et

al., 2023). These examples support the idea that different concentrations of the same

compound can trigger opposite behaviors, depending on the involved neuronal circuits.

Some studies suggest a more complex scenario, where a molecule can be attractive as an odor

but aversive as a tastant. A prime example of this is acetic acid, which is attractive when

detected by the gustatory system but repulsive when sensed by the olfactory system (Devineni

et al., 2019; Joseph et al., 2009). Additionally, systems that integrate opposite inputs from

both sweet and bitter signals have been identified, such as the inhibition of sweet neurons by

bitter neurons through GABA signaling (Chu et al., 2014) or by the OBP49a protein, which

attenuates sweet neuron firing when bitter chemicals are combined (Jeong et al., 2013). These

mechanisms help facilitate the avoidance of harmful compounds when sweet molecules are

present in mixtures. In our case, the concentration that triggers aversion (200 µg/ml) is lower

than the one that triggers attraction (500 µg/ml), suggesting a unique pattern of integration

for PGN.

Our findings also highlight the fact that PGN concentrations at 100 µg/ml can activate Gr5a+

neurons and, in the absence of the aversive response (i.e., in Gr66a-Gal4/UAS-Kir2.1 flies),

trigger attraction. This suggests that sweet neurons are tuned to respond to PGN

concentrations lower than those that elicit aversion, and that the integration of bitter signals

can override the attraction. In a more complex, physiological context where both sweet and

bitter molecules are present, the overall influence of microbial molecules like PGN may be

balanced by the other chemicals present.

Finally, it remains to be explored what these PGN concentrations represent in terms of

bacterial populations in natural environments, and whether the physiological state of the

bacteria influences their ability to release PGN and if so, in which forms and at what

concentrations. This information would be critical for understanding the role of PGN detection

systems in nature.

This task is further complicated by the fact that PGN perception is just one small piece of the

sensory information that flies use to navigate and make decisions in an environment teeming

with bacteria and other microorganisms. This complex sensory integration is key to the fly's

ability to balance the need for food, reproduction, and immunity in an ever-changing microbial

landscape.

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Data availability statement

Genotypes, raw data and statistics are available at:

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429

Material and methods

Fly husbandry

Flies were grown at 25°C on a yeast/cornmeal medium in 12h/12h light/dark cycle-controlled

incubators. For 1 L of food, 8.2 g of agar (VWR, cat. #20768.361), 80 g of cornmeal flour

(Westhove, Farigel maize H1) and 80 g of yeast extract (VWR, cat. #24979.413) were cooked

for 10 min in boiling water. 5.2 g of Methylparaben sodium salt (MERCK, cat. #106756) and 4

mL of 99% propionic acid (CARLOERBA, cat. #409553) were added when the food had cooled

down (prot+ media).

suc+ media: for 1 L of food, 11 g of agar (VWR, cat. #20768.361), 80 g of cornmeal flour

(Westhove, Farigel maize H1), 20 g of yeast extract (VWR, cat. #24979.413) and 30g of Sucrose

were cooked for 10 min in boiling water. 2.5g of Moldex and 5 mL of 99% propionic acid

(CARLOERBA, cat. #409553) were added when the food had cooled down.

Fly stocks

The reference strain in this study is noted w^- and corresponds to $w^{[1118]}$ (Bloomington #5905).

Canton S (Bloomington #64349) and $y^{[1]}$, $w^{[1118]}$ and $Gr5A^-$; $Gr64a$-f^- (gift from Bernard

Charroux) and *Gr5a-Gal4* (Bloomington #57992) and *Gr64f-Gal4* (Bloomington #57669) and

UAS-GCaMP6S (Bloomington #42746) and *UAS-Kir2.1* (Bloomington #6595) and *Tub-Gal80ts*

(Bloomington #7016) and *UAS-GFP* (Bloomington #32195) and *UAS-pgrp-LC_RNAi* (VDRC

#101636) and *UAS-Fadd_RNAi* (Leulier et al., 2002) and *ppk23-Gal4* (Bloomington #93026) and

Gr66a-Gal4 (Bloomington #28801).

PER assay

All flies used for the test were females between 5 and 7 days old. Unless experimental

conditions require it, the flies are kept and staged at 25°C to avoid any temperature changes

once they are put into starvation. The day before, the tested flies are starved in an empty tube

with water-soaked plug for 24h at 25°C.

Eighteen flies are tested in one assay, 6 flies are mounted on one slide and in pairs under each

coverslip. To prepare the slide, three pieces of double-sided tape are regularly spaced on a

slide. Two spacers are created on the sides of each piece of tape by shaping two thin cylinders

of UHT paste. To avoid the use of carbon dioxide flies are anesthetized on ice. Under the

microscope, two flies are stuck on their backs, side by side, on same piece of tape so that their

wings adhere to the tape. A coverslip is then placed on top of the two flies and pressed onto

the UHT paste, blocking their front legs and immobilizing them.

Once all slides are prepared, they are transferred to a humid chamber and kept at 25°C for 1.5

hours to allow the flies to recover before the assay.

Flies are tested in pairs, the test is carried out until completion on a pair of flies (under the

same coverslip), and then move on to the next pair.

Before the test, water is given to each pair of flies to ensure that the flies are not thirsty and

do not respond with a PER to the water in which the solutions are prepared. Stimulation with

the test solution is always followed by a control stimulation with a sweet solution, to assess

the fly's condition and its suitability for the test. During the test small strips of filter paper are

soaked in the test solution and used to contact the fly's labellum (three consecutive times per

control and test phase). Contact with the fly's proboscis should be as gentle as possible. Ideally

the head should not move. A stronger touch may prevent the fly from responding to

subsequent stimulation. Based on the protocol needed the test is done following the sequence

and the timing in the table below.

Tab.1 Attraction protocol

Water To satiety	Wait 1 min	TEST Repeated 3 times	Wait 1 min	Water one time	Wait 1 min	CONTROL Sucrose 500mM Repeated 3 times

All solutions to be tested are prepared the test day and stored at room temperature. The

control stimulation is performed with 500mM sucrose (D(+)-sucrose ≥99.5 %, p.a. Carl Roth

GmbH + Co. KG). After each control or test stimulation, a water-soaked strip is used to tap the

proboscis and clean it.

The response of the fly to each stimulation is recorded and averaged. Flies that respond

positively (PER) to at least one of the control stimulations are considered for further analysis,

the others are discarded. The PER index is calculated as the percentage of flies tested that

responded with a PER to the TEST stimulation and represented as ± 95% CI. In case of stage

dependent experiments, flies are shifted from one condition to another upon hatching.

Microscopy

No immunostaining was performed with proboscises. Proboscises of adult females were

dissected in PBS, rinsed with PBS, and directly mounted on slides using Vectashield fluorescent

mounting medium. The tissues were visualized directly after. Images were captured with a

LSM 780 Zeiss confocal microscope (20 air objective was used).

In vivo calcium imaging

In vivo adult calcium imaging experiments were performed on 5-7 day-old starved mated

females. Animals were raised on conventional media with males at 25°C. Flies were starved

for 20-24 h in a tube containing a filter paper soaked in water prior to experiments. Flies of

the appropriate genotype were anesthetized on ice for 1 h. Female flies were suspended by

the neck on a plexiglass block (2 x 2 x 2.5 cm), with the proboscis facing the center of the block.

Flies were immobilized using an insect pin (0.1 mm diameter) placed on the neck. The ends of

the pin were fixed on the block with beeswax (Deiberit 502, Siladent, 1345 209212). The head

was then glued on the block with a drop of rosin (Gum rosin, Sigma-Aldrich 1346 -60895-,

dissolved in ethanol at 70 %) to avoid any movements. The anterior part of the head was thus

oriented towards the objective of the microscope. Flies were placed in a humidified box for 1

h to allow the rosin to harden without damaging the living tissues. A plastic coverslip with a

hole corresponding to the width of the space between the two eyes was placed on top of the

head and fixed on the block with beeswax. The plastic coverslip was sealed on the cuticle with

two-component silicon (Kwik-Sil, World Precision Instruments) leaving the proboscis exposed

to the air. Ringer's saline (130 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 2 mM MgCl2, 2 mM CaCl2, 36 mM

saccharose, 5 mM HEPES, pH 7.3) was placed on the head. The antenna area, air sacs, and the

fat body was removed. The esophagus was cut without damaging the brain and taste nerves

to allow visual access to the anterior ventral part of the sub-esophageal zone (SEZ). The exposed brain was rinsed twice with Ringer's saline. GCaMP6s fluorescence was viewed with a Leica DM600B microscope under a 40x water objective. Stimulation was performed manually using a pipette with gel loading tip by applying 140 μL of tastant solution diluted in water on the proboscis. The gustatory stimulation was continuous as the tastant is in the drop contacting the proboscis. The recording started before the addition of the tastant and the calcium response could be observed immediately following the contact with the sensilla. For each condition, n=7 to 9.

GCaMP6s was excited using a Lumencor diode light source at 482 nm ± 25. Emitted light was collected through a 505-530 nm band-pass filter. Images were collected every 500ms using a Hamamatsu/HPF-ORCA Flash 4.0 camera and processed using Leica MM AF 2.2.9. Each experiment consisted of a recording of 70-100 images before stimulation and 160 images after stimulation. Data were analyzed as previously described [38] by using FIJI (https://fiji.sc/).

Different PGN used

E. coli K12: Invivogen, catalog code #tlrl-kipgn

Staphylococcus aureus : Invivogen, catalog code #tlrl-kipgn

Micrococcus luteus : Sigma Aldrich, catalog #53243

Bacillus subtilis: Sigma Aldrich, catalog #SMB00288

Bacterial strains and maintenance

For this study, the following bacterial strain was used: *E. coli* K12 ATCC

Grown in LB liquid, in aerobic conditions, 37°C, shaking at 200 rpm.

Statistics and data representation

The Prism software was used for statistical analyses.

For *in vivo* calcium imaging, 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.

For PER datasets. As the values obtained from one fly are categorical data with a *Yes* or *No* value, we used the 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 PER assays, at least 2 independent experiments were performed. The results from all the experiments were gathered and the total amount of flies tested is indicated in the graph. 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. However, each open circle represents the average PER of 1 experiment.

Detailed lines, conditions and statistics for the figure section

All these data are downloadable with the source data file.

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https://figshare.com/ndownloader/files/50813955

 Figure Legends

 Figure 1 *Dose-dependent attraction to PGN*

 (A) Drosophila feeding behavior is characterized by a sequence of distinct behavioral modules.

 A starved fly initiates a search for food, and the detection of food odors stops this search. The

 initial gustatory cues are acquired by sampling food using the proboscis. If the fly encounters

 a potentially appetizing stimulus, it will begin feeding; if the stimulus is aversive, the fly will

 retract its proboscis.

 (B) PER index of w- flies to control solutions of 1mM sucrose, water, and increasing

 concentrations of PGN from *E. coli* K12 (E.c.), *S. aureus* (S.a.), *M. luteus* (M.l.), and *B. subtilis*

 (B.s.), or an *E. coli* culture at OD100. The numbers below the x-axis represent the final PGN

 concentrations in µg/mL and the OD value for the *E. coli* culture.

 (C) Attraction to PGN is independent of genetic background. PER index of yw- and CantonS

 flies to control solutions of water, 1mM sucrose, and PGN from *E. coli* K12 at 500µg/mL.

 (D) Raising medium has no effect on attraction to PGN. PER index of w- flies raised on protein-

 enriched (prot+) or sucrose-enriched (suc+) media, to control solutions of water, 1mM

 sucrose, and PGN from *E. coli* K12 at 500µg/mL. Data for w- prot+ flies are the same as in panel

 1A.

 (E) Germ-free status does not affect attraction to PGN. PER index of w- germ-free (GF) and

 conventionally raised (CR) flies to control solutions of water, 1mM sucrose, and PGN from *E.*

 coli K12 at 500µg/mL. Data for w- CR flies are the same as in panel 1A. The PER index is

 calculated as the percentage of flies that responded with a PER to the stimulation ± 95%

 confidence interval (CI). A PER value of 1 indicates that 100% of the tested flies extended their

 proboscis in response to the stimulus, while a value of 0.2 indicates that 20% of the flies

 responded. The number of flies tested (n) is shown above each bar. For each condition, at

 least three groups of 10 flies each were tested. "ns" indicates $p > 0.05$, * indicates $p < 0.05$, **

 indicates $p < 0.01$, *** indicates $p < 0.001$, **** indicates $p < 0.0001$, Fisher Exact Test.

 Further details are available in the figure section on lines, conditions, and statistics.

 Figure 2 Gr5a+ neurons are required for attraction to PGN

 (A) Confocal image of the proboscis of Gr5a-Gal4/UAS-GFP flies showing gustatory neurons in

 the fly proboscis. LP refers to Labellum-Proboscis, CB to cellular body; A denotes axons

emanating from neurons in the proboscis. D, V, P, and A stand for Dorsal, Ventral, Posterior,

and   Anterior.

(B) Impairing the activity of Gr5a+ neurons via UAS-Kir2.1 eliminates the attraction to PGN.

PER index of flies to control solutions of water, 1mM sucrose, and PGN from *E. coli* at

500µg/mL.

(C) Graph showing the life periods during which flies are shifted from 18°C (green) to 29°C

(red).

(D) Gr5a+ neurons are functionally required for PGN attraction in adults but are not needed

during the larval stage. PER index of flies to 1mM sucrose and PGN from *E. coli* K12 at

500µg/mL. The ubiquitously expressed Tub-Gal80ts inhibits the activity of Gal4 at 18°C and is

inactivated at 29°C, allowing the expression of UAS-Kir2.1 and the inhibition of Gr5a+ neuron

activity. The PER index is calculated as the percentage of flies responding with a PER to the

stimulus ± 95% CI. The number of flies tested (n) is shown above each bar. "ns" indicates

$p > 0.05$, * indicates $p < 0.05$, ** indicates $p < 0.01$, *** indicates $p < 0.001$, **** indicates

$p < 0.0001$, Fisher Exact Test.

Further details on conditions and statistics are provided in the figure section.

Figure 3 Real-time calcium imaging with GCaMP6s reflects the *in vivo* neuronal activity of

Gr5a+ neurons

(A) Representative images showing the GCaMP6s intensity before and after the addition of

control water, 100mM sucrose, or PGN from *E. coli* K12 at 100µg/mL. Scale bar is 10µm.

(B) Averaged fluorescence intensity of negative peaks ± SEM for Gr5a+ neurons in response

to water (n=7), 100mM sucrose (n=16), or PGN from *E. coli* K12 at 100µg/mL (n=7) or

500µg/mL (n=7). In (B), ** indicates $p < 0.01$, *** indicates $p < 0.001$, **** indicates $p < 0.0001$,

non-parametric t-test, Mann-Whitney test.

Further details on conditions and statistics can be found in the figure section.

Figure 4 Sugar receptors are involved in PGN attraction

(A) PER index of mutant flies lacking the Gr5a receptor as well as the Gr64a-f family to water,

1mM sucrose, and PGN from *E. coli* K12 at 500µg/mL, compared to w- flies. Data for w- flies

are the same as in Fig. 1A.

(B) Diagram of the IMD pathway.

(C) RNAi-mediated inactivation of PGRP-LC (UAS-pgrp-LC RNAi) or Fadd (UAS-Fadd RNAi) in

Gr5a+ cells does not affect attraction to PGN. PER index of flies to water, 1mM sucrose, and

PGN from *E. coli* K12 at 500μg/mL. For (A) and (C), the PER index is calculated as the

percentage of flies responding with a PER to the stimulus ± 95% CI. The number of flies tested

(n) is shown above each bar. "ns" indicates $p > 0.05$, * indicates $p < 0.05$, ** indicates $p < 0.01$,

*** indicates $p < 0.001$, **** indicates $p < 0.0001$, Fisher Exact Test.

Further details on conditions and statistics are available in the figure section.

Figure 5 Integration of Attractive and Aversive Signals from PGN Exposure Modulates the

PER

(A) Schematic illustrating the balance between attraction and aversion to PGN and the effects

of genetic manipulations in Gr66a+ and ppk23 neurons on this balance. Our previous work

showed that Gr66a+ neurons are not required during adulthood for PGN aversion, but their

activity during the larval stage is necessary for ppk23+ neurons to recognize and show aversion

to PGN in adulthood. At a PGN concentration of 500μg/mL, input from Gr5a+ neurons shifts

the balance from aversion to attraction. Impairing Gr66a+ or ppk23+ neuron activity (Gr66a-

Gal4/UAS-Kir2.1 and ppk23-Gal4/UAS-Kir2.1) abolishes their input, leading to increased

attraction to PGN.

(B) Impairing the activity of Gr66a+ or ppk23+ neurons with UAS-Kir2.1 increases attraction to

PGN at 200μg/mL. PER index of flies to control solutions of water and PGN from *E. coli* K12 at

100μg/mL or 200μg/mL.

(C) PER index of flies raised as conventional (CR), germ-free (GF), or germ-free only during the

larval stage (GF larvae CR adult) to control solutions of water and PGN from *E. coli* K12 at

200μg/mL. Data for w- CR flies are the same as in Fig. 1A. For (B) and (C), the PER index is

calculated as the percentage of flies responding with a PER to the stimulus ± 95% CI. The

number of flies tested (n) is shown above each bar. "ns" indicates $p > 0.05$, * indicates $p < 0.05$,

** indicates $p < 0.01$, *** indicates $p < 0.001$, **** indicates $p < 0.0001$, Fisher Exact Test.

Further details on conditions and statistics are available in the figure section.

Figure S1 Real-time calcium imaging with GCaMP6s reflects the *in vivo* neuronal activity of

Gr64f+ neurons

Averaged fluorescence intensity of negative peaks ± SEM for Gr64f+ neurons in response to

water (n=7), 100mM sucrose (n=6), or PGN from *E. coli* K12 at 100µg/mL (n=6). ** indicates

p<0.01, *** indicates p<0.001, **** indicates p<0.0001, non-parametric t-test, Mann-

Whitney test. Further details on conditions and statistics can be found in the figure section.

Video 1 PER is triggered following exposure to sucrose 1mM

DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.27929532

https://figshare.com/articles/media/Video_1_PER_suc_1mM/27929532?file=50876001

Response following proboscis contact with a stripe of paper soaked in a 1mM solution (water

as solvent). 7-days old females starved 15h prior to the assay.

Video 2 PER is not triggered following exposure to water

DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.27929517

https://figshare.com/articles/media/Video_2_PER_water/27929517?file=50875968

Absence of response following proboscis contact with a stripe of paper soaked in water. 7-

days old females starved 15h prior to the assay.

Video 3 PER is triggered following exposure to PGN of *E. coli* at 500µg/ml

DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.27929547

https://figshare.com/articles/media/Video_3_PER_PGN500/27929547?file=50876025

Response following proboscis contact with a stripe of paper soaked in an *E. coli* PGN solution

at 500µg/ml (water as solvent). 7-days old females starved 15h prior to the assay.

Video 4 Comparison of Behavioral Response to Water and E. coli PGN in the Same Fly

DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.27929553

https://figshare.com/articles/media/Video_4_water_then_PGN500/27929553?file=50876

226

Using the same fly, this experiment compares the absence of response to a proboscis

contact with a paper strip soaked in water, versus a clear response to a paper strip soaked in

an *E. coli* PGN solution (500 µg/ml, with water as the solvent). The test was conducted on 7-
day-old females, starved for 15 hours prior to the assay.
690
Video 5 Gr5a+ neurons do not respond to water
DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.27908901
https://figshare.com/articles/media/Video_5_Gr5a_GCaMP6s_vs_water/27908901?file=5
0814009
Real-time calcium imaging in the SEZ of adult females using the calcium indicator GCaMP6s
under the control of the Gr5a-Gal4 driver to assess the in vivo neuronal activity of labellar
Gr5a+ neurons following exposure to water. The water was added at t+ 2 seconds.
698
Video 6 Gr5a+ neurons respond to sucrose
DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.27908928
https://figshare.com/articles/media/Video_6_Gr5a_GCaMP6s_vs_sucrose_100mM/27908
928?file=50814042
Real-time calcium imaging in the SEZ of adult females using the calcium indicator GCaMP6s
under the control of the Gr5a-Gal4 driver to assess the in vivo neuronal activity of labellar
Gr5a+ neurons following exposure to sucrose 100mM. The sucrose was added at t+2 seconds.
706
Video 7 Gr5a+ neurons respond to DAP-type peptidoglycan
DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.27908949
https://figshare.com/articles/media/Video_7_Gr5a_GCaMP6s_vs_PGN_100/27908949?fil
e=50814069
Real-time calcium imaging in the SEZ of adult females using the calcium indicator GCaMP6s
under the control of the Gr5a-Gal4 driver to assess the in vivo neuronal activity of labellar
Gr5a+ neurons following exposure to *E. coli* PGN solution at 100µg/mL. The PGN was added
at t+2 seconds.
715
Video 8 Gr64f+ neurons do not respond to water
DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.27908979
https://figshare.com/articles/media/Video_8_Gr64f_GCaMP6s_vs_water/27908979?file=
50814099

Real-time calcium imaging in the SEZ of adult females using the calcium indicator GCaMP6s

under the control of the Gr64f-Gal4 driver to assess the in vivo neuronal activity of labellar

Gr64f+ neurons following exposure to water. The water was added at t+2 seconds.

Video 9 Gr64f+ neurons respond to sucrose

DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.27908991

https://figshare.com/articles/media/Video_9_Gr64f_GCaMP6s_vs_Sucrose_100mM/2790

8991?file=50814126

Real-time calcium imaging in the SEZ of adult females using the calcium indicator GCaMP6s

under the control of the Gr64f-Gal4 driver to assess the in vivo neuronal activity of labellar

Gr64f+ neurons following exposure to sucrose 100mM. The sucrose was added at t+2 seconds.

Video 10 Gr64f+ neurons respond to DAP-type peptidoglycan

DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.27909015

https://figshare.com/articles/media/Video_10_Gr64f_GCaMP6s_vs_PGN_100/27909015?f

ile=50814165

Real-time calcium imaging in the SEZ of adult females using the calcium indicator GCaMP6s

under the control of the Gr64f-Gal4 driver to assess the in vivo neuronal activity of labellar

Gr64f+ neurons following exposure to *E. coli* PGN solution at 100μg/mL. The PGN was added

at t+2 seconds.

742
743

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

Water
Before · After

Suc100mM
Before · After

PGN100µg/ml
Before · After

B

Gr5a-Gal4/UAS-GCamp6S

$\Delta F/F_0\ (\%)$

****
***
**

16
7
7
7

- Water
- Suc
- PGN E.c.

100µg/ml
500µg/ml

Figure 4

A

B

C

Figure 5

Figure S1

Gr64f-Gal4/UAS-GCamp6S