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BubR1 and Mad2 regulate adult midgut remodeling in *Drosophila* diapause

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Summary

Diapause is a survival strategy in which growth and aging are temporarily suspended, enabling animals to withstand unfavorable environments. Various insects, including the fruit fly *Drosophila*, enter reproductive diapause, or dormancy, in response to cold temperatures and/or short-day lengths. During reproductive diapause, ovarian development halts, and non-reproductive organs also undergo remodeling at both morphological and metabolic levels: however, the mechanisms underlying this remodeling and its physiological impact remain largely unclear. Here, we show that the *Drosophila* adult midgut undergoes extensive remodeling in diapause, marked by a sustained growth arrest due to the cell cycle arrest of intestinal stem cells (ISCs), reverting to normal upon returning to recovery conditions. During dormancy, BubR1 and Mad2, key regulators of mitosis, are highly expressed and localized in the cytoplasm of ISCs rather than at the kinetochore, and both BubR1 and Mad2 are essential for diapause-specific midgut remodeling. Furthermore, disruption of midgut growth arrest during diapause reduces the resistance to starvation in adult flies. Therefore, our findings identify a novel role for BubR1 and Mad2 in ISCs, promoting proper midgut remodeling during dormancy, and highlight the importance of this process for survival under adverse environments.

Introduction

Wild animals have developed survival strategies to cope with harsh environmental conditions, such as temperature fluctuations, drought, and food shortages. Among these strategies, dormancy programs—including hibernation, torpor, and diapause—are critical adaptations that involve a reduction in metabolic rate and body temperature, which conserves energy, extends lifespan, and increases the probability of survival for the species (Easwaran & Montell, 2023; Staples, 2016; Wilsterman et al., 2021). By temporarily halting growth and delaying organ development under stressful conditions such as starvation and low temperatures, dormancy helps reduce the energy expenditure required for growth and reproduction, and such synchronization of physiological processes with environmental conditions enhances the organism's ability to survive (Denlinger, 2022; Schiesari & O'Connor, 2013). Understanding the underlying mechanisms of dormancy may thus provide valuable insights into the regulation of stress resistance, aging, and reproduction.

Dormancy programs typically comprise three distinct phases: a preparatory phase, in which environmental cues initiate dormancy; a dormancy phase, characterized by reduced metabolism and activity; and a recovery phase, where normal growth and activity resume(Gray et al., 1991; Harsimran Kaur Gill et al., 2017) . To enter and exit dormancy at the appropriate time, animals must detect environmental conditions and coordinate internal physiological processes. As such, dormancy regulation generally requires central control mechanisms involving the brain and endocrine systems (Helfrich-Förster, 2024; Karp, 2021). While hormonal and neural regulation play pivotal roles in these processes, peripheral organs and tissues must undergo significant remodeling during dormancy and revert during recovery. For instance, during hibernation in certain mammals (*e.g.* thirteen-lined ground squirrels, Syrian hamsters) and diapause in insects, structural changes are observed in respiratory and digestive organs, as well as muscles and adipose tissues (Kim et al., 2006; Kim & Denlinger, 2009; Kurtz et al., 2021). Nevertheless, the mechanisms by which cellular compositions within individual organs and tissues are precisely coordinated to adjust dormancy programs remain largely unknown.

83   Various animal species enter dormancy at different life stages, and in
adult insects, dormancy is often referred to as reproductive diapause, a state that
suppresses reproductive organ development, accompanied by reduced
locomotor activity, lower metabolism, increased stress resistance, and extended
lifespan (Denlinger, 2022; Tatar & Yin, 2001). In species like *Drosophila*,
reproductive diapause is triggered by low temperatures and/or short-day
conditions (Hara & Yamamoto, 2022; Lirakis et al., 2018; Ojima et al., 2018;
Saunders et al., 1989). As with other diapausing insects, reduction of juvenile
hormone and insulin signaling are critical for maintaining reproductive diapause
in *Drosophila* (Easwaran et al., 2022; Saunders et al., 1990; Schiesari et al.,
2016). Recent studies have used *D. melanogaster* to explore genetic basis of the
complex biology of dormancy, including identification of circadian neurons
regulating endocrine organs, the mechanism of germline maintenance, and
sleeping behaviors (Easwaran et al., 2022; Kurogi et al., 2023; Meiselman et al.,
2022; Meyerhof et al., 2024; Schiesari et al., 2016). Interestingly, similar to
dormancy programs in other animals, somatic non-reproductive organs such as
the midgut undergo structural changes during reproductive diapause in
Drosophila (Kubrak et al., 2014); however, the mechanism by which dormant
state regulates organ remodeling and its physiological impacts remain unclear.

The *Drosophila* adult midgut, composed of a monolayered epithelium
surrounded by visceral muscles, is a home to resident intestinal stem cells (ISCs)
that self-renew and give rise to committed progenitors, enteroblasts (EBs) and
enteroendocrine progenitor cells (EEPs); these progenitors differentiate into the
absorptive enterocyte (EC) and secretory enteroendocrine cells (EE),
respectively (Hung et al., 2020; Miguel-Aliaga et al., 2018; see also Fig. 2A, 2B).
To achieve adaptive responses to environmental changes at the organ level, the
ISC lineage exhibit characteristic behaviors, allowing tissue homeostasis and
plasticity (Nagai et al., 2022; O'Brien et al., 2011). Furthermore, midgut plays a
central role in regulating organism-level physiology, influencing appetite,
fecundity, immunity, and lifespan (Malita et al., 2022; White et al., 2021; Yoshinari
et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2020). With its relatively simple structure and conserved
cell lineages, the *Drosophila* adult midgut serves an ideal system for dissecting

the mechanisms of organ remodeling associated with environmental challenges
including dormancy.
Here, we investigate the mechanism of organ remodeling during
diapause, using the *Drosophila* adult midgut as a model. Our results show that
intestinal growth halts during dormancy and resumes during recovery,
accompanied by changes in structural and metabolic gene expression. We
identify mitotic regulators BubR1 and Mad2, which are highly expressed in the
cytoplasm of ISCs, as key players in midgut remodeling during diapause, and
disruption of these genes leads to abnormal gut size and a reduced capacity for
starvation resistance. These findings suggest novel roles of BubR1 and Mad2 in
controlling ISCs dynamics and contributing to midgut remodeling in *Drosophila*
diapause.
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Results
The adult midgut of *D. melanogaster* undergoes remodeling in response to
diapause and recovery
In adult females of *D. melanogaster*, reproductive diapause can be induced by
exposing newly-eclosed flies to cold temperatures (below 12°C), halting ovarian
development at an early stage (Anduaga et al., 2018). Following previous studies
(Easwaran et al., 2022; Kubrak et al., 2014; Saunders et al., 1989), we kept
newly-eclosed flies at short-day photoperiods (10L:14D) and 10°C while non-
diapause control flies were kept at 12L:12D and 18°C (Fig. 1A). Under such a
suboptimal condition, females entered reproductive dormancy as no yolk
accumulation was observed in the ovaries (Fig. S1A). To assess changes in
midgut size during diapause, we measured the length and area of the midgut in
the wild-type fly (Canton-S) under diapause and non-diapause conditions for 1 to
5 weeks. Consistent with the previous finding (Kubrak et al., 2014), we confirmed
that the midgut length remained shorter during diapause compared to non-
diapause conditions (Fig. 1B, 1C), while it is similar to that immediately after
eclosion (Fig. 1C). After one week of recovery from diapause, the midgut
significantly increased in size (Fig. 1B, 1D, Fig. S1B, S1C) and fully recovered by
day 4 (Fig. S1D). Of note, after 5 weeks of diapause, no significant midgut growth

occurred upon recovery (Fig. 1D), suggesting the existence of a time limit on the
midgut's ability to regrow. These findings together indicate that the midgut halts
growth during diapause but remains capable of rapid regrowth upon recovery.

The *Drosophila* adult midgut consists of anterior (R1-R2), middle (R3),
and posterior regions (R4-R5) (Buchon et al., 2013; Marianes & Spradling, 2013).
Since these regions respond differently to environmental changes due to the
different nature of ISCs and their progenies (Li & Jasper, 2016; Mattila et al.,
2024; Nagai et al., 2023; O'Brien et al., 2011), we analyzed midgut size changes
in anterior and posterior regions under the 3-week diapause condition where the
difference of the midgut size between diapause and non-diapause is most
significant (Fig. 1C). We found that the posterior midgut exhibited the more
significant difference (Fig. 1E), compared to the anterior midgut. Similar region-
specific gut resizing during diapause and recovery was also observed in the w^{1118}
strain (Fig. 1F), suggesting that the posterior region is preferentially affected
during dormancy. It has been reported that reproductive development is also
suppressed in *Drosophila* adult males under the same conditions where females
enter diapause (Kubrak et al., 2016). We thus measured the midgut size in males
under diapause and non-diapause conditions and found no significant differences
in midgut size between two conditions (Fig. S1G). These observations suggest
that midgut remodeling in diapause is a female-specific characteristic.

To determine whether such midgut remodeling is specific to diapause or
a general response to cold-induced stress, we exposed female flies to the cold
temperature after the midgut had matured in which no diapause was induced
(Ojima et al., 2018). Comparing the midgut size under 3 weeks of cold and
diapause conditions, we found that midgut size was larger under cold conditions
(Fig. S1E, S1F). Furthermore, midgut growth was not observed when flies were
transferred from the cold condition to recovery, unlike the recovery from diapause
(Fig. S1F). Altogether, these results suggest that midgut remodeling is a
diapause-specific response in adult females, with the midgut halting growth in a
regrowth-ready state. In this paper, we referred this midgut remodeling during
diapause as dormancy-dependent midgut remodeling (DDMR) in the following.

Midgut remodeling as a common response in *Drosophila* species

While the model organism *D. melanogaster* has recently been used as a genetic
model to study different aspects of diapause (Easwaran et al., 2022; Easwaran
& Montell, 2024; Meiselman et al., 2022; Ojima et al., 2018), it is still unclear
whether these flies naturally enter diapause in the wild (Lirakis et al., 2018). In
contrast, some species of the genus *Drosophila* are known to undergo a
programmed state of diapause in response to environmental changes, such as
short-day lengths, allowing them to survive through winter (Kimura, 1990;
LAKOVAARA et al., 1972).
To explore whether DDMR is a general organ-level response during
reproductive dormancy, we examined two other *Drosophila* species, *D. bifasciata*
and *D. triauraria* (Fig. 1G), among which inhabit in northern regions halt ovarian
development in short-day seasons (Watabe, 1979; Yamada & Yamamoto, 2011).
We confirmed these species exhibit reproductive diapause under the short-day
condition (SD, 10L: 14D), while such diapause was not induced in the long-day
condition (LD, 16L: 8D) at the same moderate temperature (15°C) (Fig. 1H, S1H).
In SD, the midgut size was significantly smaller compared to LD, and midgut
regrowth was observed during recovery (Fig. 1I-1K). Notably, such growth arrest
of the midgut was not observed in non-diapause strains of *D. triauraria*, originated
from southern regions (Yamada & Yamamoto, 2011) (Fig. S1I, S1J). These
results support the notion that DDMR in *D. melanogaster* represent a general
organ-level response triggered during diapause in the genus *Drosophila*.
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ISCs are in cell cycle arrest and inhibition of mitosis during diapause
In the adult midgut epithelium of *Drosophila*, ISCs serve as resident stem cells,
maintaining the self-renewing population and producing progenitors, EBs and
EEPs, which further differentiate into absorptive ECs and secretory EEs,
respectively (Fig. 2A, 2B; Hung et al., 2020; Miguel-Aliaga et al., 2018).
Previous studies have shown that alterations in cell number via ISC expansion
and reduction contribute to the significant change in midgut size in response to
environmental fluctuations (Christensen et al., 2024; Nagai et al., 2022;
Stojanović et al., 2022). For example, after mating, juvenile hormones stimulate
ISC proliferation, leading to an increase in midgut size (Reiff et al., 2015).
Similarly, upon refeeding following starvation, ISC symmetric division is

promoted in the posterior midgut (O'Brien et al., 2011), resulting in ISC

expansion followed by an increase in total cell number as well as midgut size.

To investigate whether changes in cell number contribute to midgut

remodeling in diapause, we first quantified the cell abundance in the midgut

following 3 weeks of diapause. We observed a significant reduction in total cell

number during diapause compared to non-diapause conditions (Fig. 2C). We

then examined the number of ISC/EB lineage using the protein trap line *esg-*

GFP. The number of *esg+* cells, along with their proportion, was markedly

lower, especially in the posterior midgut during diapause (Fig. 2D, 2E, Fig.

S2A). Consistent with this observation, the ISC marker *Delta* (*Dl*) and the EB

marker *Su(H)* exhibited reduced expression in the diapausing midgut (Fig. S2B-

S2F). Moreover, *esg+* cell number dramatically increased during recovery from

diapause, coinciding with midgut regrowth (Fig. 2E). These findings suggest a

possibility that ISCs remain in a non-proliferative state during diapause and

resume proliferation upon recovery.

To test this possibility, we investigated ISC mitotic activity using the

anti-phospho-Histone H3 (PH3) immunostaining, a marker for mitotic cells.

Unexpectedly, we found that the number of ISCs in the M phase significantly

increased in both the anterior and posterior midgut during diapause (Fig. 2F,

2G). Despite the reduced number of ISCs (Fig. 2E, S2B, S2C), the increase in

mitotic cells suggests that ISCs may arrest the cell cycle in the M phase or

experience prolonged M phase during diapause. In order to directly test ISC

proliferative capacity, we conducted clonal expansion assays using the mosaic

analysis with a repressible cell marker (MARCM) system (Fig. 2H) and found

that clonal size was significantly reduced during diapause, with fewer ISCs

present in the clones (Fig. 2I, 2J). This mitotic arrest was not observed during

recovery from diapause, with the number of mitotic cells returning to non-

diapause levels (Fig. S2G). To further examine the cell cycle state in ISC

lineage, we employed the Fly-FUCCI system (Zielke et al., 2014) in combination

with the *esg-QF* driver during diapause. Using this system that allows

monitoring of cell cycle at cold temperatures, we found that a significantly higher

proportion of *esg+* cells were in the G2/M phase during diapause compared to

non-diapause controls (Fig. 2K, 2L). Additionally, using the *CycB-GFP* line, we

confirmed increased *CycB* expression in ISCs during diapause   (Fig. S2H),

reinforcing the idea that ISCs arrest in the G2/M phase. These results suggest

that ISCs undergo cell cycle arrest in the G2/M phase during dormancy.

Combined, our findings reveal that ISCs undergo drastic behavioral

changes during DDMR where ISCs halt the cell cycle at a recoverable state,

reducing the number of cells produced post-eclosion and allowing for proper

size change during diapause.

Molecular signatures of DDMR

To explore the molecular signature of DDMR, we conducted a transcriptome

analysis of the midgut. Specifically, bulk RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) was

performed using samples of the entire adult midgut from two conditions: 3 weeks

diapause (3wD), 3 weeks non-diapause control (3wC). We identified 3,391 genes

that were differentially expressed during dormancy (Fig. 3A). Gene Ontology

(GO) enrichment analysis and Reactome pathway analyses revealed metabolic

processes, including small molecule, lipid, and carboxylic acid metabolism were

significantly enriched in the 3wD midgut (Fig. S3A, S3B), suggesting that large-

scale metabolic remodeling occurs alongside structural changes in the midgut

during dormancy. Lipid metabolism-related genes such as *bmm* and *pepck*, along

with carbohydrate metabolism-related genes like *tobi*, were differently expressed

(Fig. S3C). Additionally, pathways related to metabolism (e.g., Metabolism of

lipids), translation regulation (e.g., Translation), and circadian gene degradation

(e.g., Degradation of TIM) were among the top processes identified (Fig. S3B).

Notably, circadian genes *per* and *tim*, which are upregulated in the whole body

during diapause (Kučerová et al., 2016), also showed significantly increased

expression in the midgut during dormancy (Fig. S3D). Furthermore, the

expression of the antimicrobial peptide *Drs*, downstream of the Toll pathway,

dramatically increased during dormancy (Fig. S3E), reflecting enhanced innate

immunity, a hallmark of diapause at the organismal level (Kubrak et al., 2014).

Among the differentially expressed genes, a detailed enrichment

analysis was performed by categorizing the genes into two groups: those

upregulated during dormancy and those downregulated. In the upregulated gene

group, GO terms associated with cell adhesion (e.g., cell adhesion) and RNA

processing (e.g., regulation of RNA splicing) were identified as top-ranked
categories (Fig. 3B). Genes associated with RNA processing and RNA
metabolism are also upregulated in the ovaries during diapause, suggesting the
existence of dormancy-specific translational regulation conserved across organs
(DiVito Evans et al., 2023). In contrast, in the downregulated gene group, GO
terms related to metabolic processes (e.g., cellular lipid metabolic process) were
prominently enriched (Fig 3C). During diapause, extensive changes in the
expression of genes involved in metabolic pathways have been observed
throughout the body (Kubrak et al., 2014; Kučerová et al., 2016). These findings
suggest that gene expression changes linked to DDMR globally follow a pattern
similar to that observed in the entire organism and other organs.

Next, to explore the molecular signature of recovery from DDMR, RNA-
seq was performed using samples of the entire adult midgut from two conditions:
3 weeks diapause followed by recovery (3wD+R), and 3 weeks control followed
by recovery (3wC+R). We identified 526 genes with significant expression
changes between the 3wD+R and 3wC+R midguts (Fig. S3G). GO enrichment
and Reactome pathway analyses identified significantly enriched genes
associated with muscle differentiation and smooth muscle contraction (Fig. S3H,
S3I). Given the extensive structural remodeling of muscles during insect
dormancy (Kim et al., 2006; Kim & Denlinger, 2009), these gene expression
changes related to muscle structure during recovery may contribute to the
resizing of the midgut. Consistent with this finding, *dilp3*, which codes the product
secreted by muscles during feeding and promote ISC proliferation (O'Brien et al.,
2011), was significantly upregulated in the 3wD+R midgut (Fig. S3J), suggesting
growth-promoting interactions between muscle and ISCs during recovery. In
addition, neuropeptide genes such as *NPF, Dh31,* and *CCHa2* showed significant
increases in expression (Fig. S3J), indicating that hormone secretion from EEs
may change during recovery, potentially influencing gut growth and inter-organ
communications. Overall, our findings suggest that the midgut undergoes large-
scale structural and metabolic remodeling associated with extensive gene
expression changes.

BubR1 expression increases in the cytoplasm of ISCs during diapause

Since ISC cell cycle are arrested during diapause (Fig. 2), we focused

differentially expressed genes categorized under the GO term "cell cycle

checkpoint signaling" (Fig. 3D). G2/M phase checkpoint regulators such as

mre11, *mei-41* showed significant changes, while *CG15237* and *BubR1* were

differentially expressed as M-phase checkpoint regulators. These gene

expression changes align with ISC behaviors during dormancy such as

prolonged mitotic phases and an increased number of the G2/M phase cells.

Among such genes, *BubR1* is particularly noteworthy due to its classical role as

a mitotic checkpoint regulator and timer during mitosis (Karess et al., 2013), and

its expression in ISCs (Shinoda et al., 2023). Importantly, *BubR1* expression

increased nearly threefold during diapause (Fig. 3E), suggesting its potential

impact on ISC behaviors and midgut remodeling.

To investigate *BubR1* expression at the cellular level, we used fly lines,

which allow detection of endogenous expression pattern of *BubR1*

(*EGFP::BubR1^{WT}* and *GFP-BubR1*) to visualize its expression in midgut cells.

During reproductive dormancy, *BubR1* was strongly expressed in the cytoplasm

of ISCs, primarily in R4 regions (Fig. 3F, 3G, S3F). Such cytoplasmic

localization during diapause contrasts with the localization of BubR1 associated

with typical spindle checkpoint during mitosis, where it accumulates around

kinetochores (Resende et al., 2018). Indeed, colchicine treatment, which

induces mitotic arrest through the spindle assembly checkpoint (SAC), caused

strong BubR1 localization around kinetochores in ISCs under non-diapause

conditions (Fig. 3H, 3I). In contrast, during diapause, despite ISCs being

arrested in mitosis, BubR1 remained cytoplasmic, with minimal signal around

the kinetochores (Fig. 3H, 3I). These findings suggest that the role of BubR1

during DDMR is likely spindle checkpoint-independent and a unique function in

the midgut during the dormancy state.

BubR1 expression in ISCs is essential for DDMR

To explore the function of BubR1 in reproductive dormancy, we examined its

effects on midgut remodeling using two *BubR1* mutant alleles *BubR1^{k06109}* and

BubR1^{k03113}. qPCR analysis revealed that midgut *BubR1* expression in

diapause-inducing condition was significantly reduced in both heterozygous

mutants, with $BubR1^{k03113}$ showing 48%, $BubR1^{k06109}$ showing 57% expression

compared to controls (Fig. 4A). We then measured midgut size during diapause

in these mutants and found a significant increase in midgut size compared to

control flies (Fig. 4B, 4C). This midgut enlargement was accompanied by an

increase in the total cell number and the number of mitotic ISCs as well as the

number of *esg+* cells (Fig. 4D-4F). Importantly, when BubR1 function was

rescued in the *BubR1* trans-heterozygous mutant ($BubR1^{k06109}$/$BubR1^{k03113}$)

with an *EGFP::BubR1^{WT}* transgene (Shinoda et al., 2023), total cell number in

the posterior region and mitotic cell number in the midgut returned to levels

comparable to controls (Fig. 4C-4E). These results strongly suggest that BubR1

is required for proper midgut remodeling during diapause. Notably, no ovarian

development was observed in any of the mutants under dormancy conditions,

confirming successful induction of ovarian dormancy despite impaired midgut

remodeling (data not shown). Furthermore, under non-dormant conditions, no

significant differences in midgut size were detected between these mutant

backgrounds (Fig. S4A), consistent with the result that the number of mitotic

cells did not increase—or even decreased— in *BubR1* mutants (Fig. S4B).

Collectively, these results highlight a critical role for BubR1 in DDMR.

The results obtained from the mutants could potentially reflect non-

autonomous effects of *BubR1* expressed in other tissues. We thus investigated

whether DDMR is influenced by BubR1 activity specifically in adult ISCs. To this

end, we employed somatic tissue-specific CRISPR-mediated depletion (Bier et

al., 2018; Meltzer et al., 2019), combined with the temperature-sensitive Gal80^{ts}

system (McGuire et al., 2003) to induce *BubR1* mutations in ISC lineages

before eclosion (Fig. 4G, S4C). When adult flies were shifted to dormancy

conditions, we observed a significant increase in midgut size in ISC/EB-specific

BubR1 knockout flies (Fig. 4H). Furthermore, the number of total and mitotic

cells also increased in these somatic *BubR1* knockout lines (Fig. 4I, 4J).

Altogether, our results demonstrate that *BubR1* function in ISCs is essential for

midgut remodeling during reproductive diapause.

Intriguingly, in *D. bifasciata* and *D. triauraria,* which undergo

programmed state of diapause in response to short-day length, *BubR1*

expression in the midgut is higher in diapausing flies under SD, compared to

non-diapausing flies under LD (Fig. S4D, S4E). These results suggest a

potential implication of BubR1 in DDMR for the genus *Drosophila*.

The MCC component Mad2 is involved in DDMR

During mitosis, BubR1 forms a complex with Mad2, Bub3, and Cdc20, key

components of the mitotic checkpoint complex (MCC), and they function

cooperatively at the kinetochores (Musacchio, 2015). From our RNA-seq

analysis, we found that, in addition to *BubR1,* the expression levels of *mad2*

significantly increased during dormancy (Fig. 5A) while not identified as a

differentially expressed gene. Intriguingly, among the MCC, Mad2 can interact

with BubR1 in the cytoplasm of mammalian cells to regulate insulin signaling

and metabolism (Choi et al., 2016). This raises a possibility that Mad2 may play

a critical role in DDMR, independently of its role in the MCC.

To test this, we utilized the *GFP-Mad2* line to examine its expression in

the adult midgut and found that *mad2* was highly expressed in the cytoplasm of

ISCs during diapause (Fig. 5B, 5C), reminiscent of the cytosolic localization of

BubR1 (Fig. 3F, S3F). To further investigate the function of Mad2 during DDMR,

we analyzed midgut size using two *mad2* mutant alleles, *mad2$^{\Delta}$* and

mad2^{EY21687}. Our analysis revealed that heterozygous *mad2* mutants had

significantly larger midguts during dormancy compared to controls (Fig. 5D, 5E).

We also found that the number of *esg*+ cells increased in the anterior and

posterior region of the midgut (Fig. 5F). These findings suggest that, during

reproductive diapause, Mad2 is localized in the cytoplasm of ISCs, similar to

BubR1, and that both proteins together regulate DDMR.

DDMR enhances starvation resistance

Halting organ growth during dormancy is thought to conserve energy, thereby

enhancing survival during periods of scarce food availability, such as winter

(Denlinger, 2022). In *Drosophila*, maintaining midgut size during reproductive

diapause may contribute to increased resistance to starvation. To test this

hypothesis, we compared starvation resistance between *BubR1* mutants with

controls in the dormant condition. Although dormancy generally enhances

starvation resistance compared to non-dormant states, *BubR1^{k03113}* mutant flies

significantly reduced starvation resistance during dormancy (Fig. 5G). These

results suggest that BubR1/Mad2-mediated DDMR plays a critical role in

enhancing starvation resistance at the organismal level.

Discussion

In this study, we demonstrate that BubR1 and Mad2 play crucial roles in DDMR

in *Drosophila* by modulating ISC dynamics to achieve diapause-specific states.

While BubR1 and Mad2 are well-known as components of the MCC that localizes

to the kinetochore, we found that in the diapausing midgut, their localization is

predominantly in the cytoplasm of ISCs. Depletion of these proteins causes mis-

regulated midgut growth, leading to a reduction in starvation resistance during

diapause. Based on these findings, we propose that BubR1 and Mad2 act as key

regulators of the ISC cell cycle during diapause, enabling a reversible state that

supports recovery (Fig. 5H).

The *Drosophila* midgut undergoes extensive remodeling in response to

various internal and external stimuli, which directly or indirectly influence ISC

activity (Christensen et al., 2024; Nagai et al., 2022; Stojanović et al., 2022).

During starvation, for instance, the midgut size decreases as ECs undergo

apoptosis, while upon refeeding, ISCs are stimulated by Dilp3 secreted from

visceral muscles, promoting symmetrical ISC division and restoring midgut size

(O'Brien et al., 2011). Similarly, during reproductive diapause—a condition

where food intake is reduced by less than half (Kubrak et al., 2014)—mild

starvation responses may also contribute to midgut size reduction. Indeed,

reproductive arrest can be more readily induced by adding starvation conditions

(Ojima et al., 2018). During recovery, our RNA-seq data revealed increased

dilp3 expression and decreased expression of the FoxO target gene *Thor* (Fig.

S3J), suggesting a possibility that Dilp3 secreted from muscles contributes to

ISC activation like post-starvation refeeding. However, in contrast to a simple

starvation response, midgut cell death is minimal during diapause (Fig.S2I), and

ISC cell cycles are arrested at the G2/M in a recoverable state (Fig. 2).

Furthermore, during reproductive arrest, germline stem cells in ovaries exhibit

behaviors markedly different from those observed during amino acid deficiency

responses (Easwaran et al., 2022). Collectively, these findings suggest that

organ-level responses during diapause are driven by a complex interplay of

environmental factors rather than by a simple starvation-induced mechanism.

Across species, developmental diapause often involves a temporary

halt in the cell cycle, delaying organ growth. For example, during pupal

diapause in the flesh fly brain and embryonic diapause in the turquoise killifish,

the cell cycle primarily arrests at the G0/G1 phase (Meller et al., 2012;

Tammariello & Denlinger, 1998). In contrast, most cells in silkworm embryos are

arrested in the G2 phase during diapause (Nakagaki et al., 1991). In this study,

we observed a significant increase in ISCs arrested at the G2/M phase during

DDMR. Since *Drosophila* oogenesis arrests during diapause due to activation of

the Chk2 DNA damage checkpoint (Easwaran et al., 2022), our findings

suggest that similar mechanisms may govern growth arrest in the midgut.

Indeed, genes such as *mre11* which are differentially expressed in the

diapausing midgut (Fig. 3D) are required for G2/M checkpoint activation (Song,

2005). Notably, ISCs exhibit active cell cycle arrest during diapause via

checkpoint mechanisms, rather than undergoing a passive delay induced by

low temperatures (Fig. S1E-S1F). Such controlled cell cycle arrest in resident

stem cells may contribute to halting organ growth in other diapausing or

hibernating animals and to facilitating rapid recovery once stem cell division

resumes.

BubR1 is a highly conserved eukaryotic protein that functions as a key

component of the SAC, forming the MCC with Mad2, Bub3, and Cdc20 to

prevent premature progression of cell division and ensure accurate

chromosomal segregation; its disruption increases the risk of aneuploidy (Baker

et al., 2013; Karess et al., 2013; Resende et al., 2018). Beyond these canonical

functions, studies across cellular to organismal contexts have uncovered

additional roles for BubR1. For example, in mouse embryonic fibroblasts,

BubR1 heterozygosity reduces *p53* and *p21* expression after DNA damage,

impairing proper G2/M phase arrest (Fang et al., 2006). Additionally, BubR1,

together with Mad2, recruits adaptor protein 2 to the insulin receptor (IR) to

promote IR endocytosis and reduce insulin sensitivity (Choi et al., 2016; Park et

al., 2023; Tang et al., 2020). Consistent with these roles, *BubR1* deficiency in

mice leads to premature aging and reduced lifespan, highlighting its role in
organism-wide responses (Baker et al., 2004). In *Drosophila*, BubR1 in the fat
body negatively regulates *bmm* expression via IMD signaling during starvation,
suppressing lipid breakdown and enhancing lifespan (Liu et al., 2024). These
findings underscore a complex regulatory network involving BubR1 and
associated proteins across different biological contexts. Although the regulation
and interacting partners of BubR1 and Mad2 during diapause remain unclear,
the observed changes in their expression in ISCs likely contribute to organism-
level responses, including enhanced starvation resistance mediated by
structural and metabolic changes in the midgut. Future investigations into the
non-canonical role of BubR1 and Mad2 will lead to a better understanding of
organ remodeling in dormant programs and provide new insights into the
control of resident stem cells.
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Declaration of interests

519   The authors declare no competing interests.

Materials and methods

Drosophila stock and maintenance

All stocks were maintained on a standard diet containing 4% cornmeal, 6%

baker's yeast (Saf Yeast), 6% glucose (Wako, 049-31177), and 0.8% agar

(Kishida chemical, 260-01705) with 0.3% propionic acid (Tokyo Chemical

Industry, P0500) and 0.05% nipagin (Wako, 132-02635).

Canton-S was utilized as the wild-type strain. Transgenic fly lines were

obtained from the Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center (BDSC), NIG-Fly and

the Kyoto Stock Center. Unless otherwise indicated, strain descriptions can be

found at Flybase (http://flybase.bio.indiana.edu): *Dl-lacZ* (Röttgen et al.,

1998) (BDSC 11651), *esg-QF2* (Nagai et al., 2023)*, QUAS-Fly-FUCCI* (Zielke et

al., 2014) (BDSC 55108), *BubR1^{k03113}* (Kyoto 102258), *BubR1^{k06109}* (Kyoto

102444), *mad2^{EY}* (Bellen et al., 2011) (BDSC 22495), *tub-Gal80^{ts}* (BDSC 7017,

7019, described in Flybase and BDSC), *esg-Gal4* (Goto & Hayashi, 1999)

(Kyoto 109126), *UAS-GFP* (BDSC 1521), *UAS-Cas9.T2A.eGFP* (Trivedi et al.,

2020) (BDSC 94298), *FRT40A* (originated from BDSC 5074), *attP40{U6-gRNA}*

(NIG 2RG-1578). Following lines are gifts from fly community: *esg-*

GFP[P01986] (Le Bras & Van Doren, 2006), *Su(H)GBE-lacZ* (Furriols & Bray,

2001), *yw hs-flp; tub-Gal80 FRT40A; tub-Gal4 UAS-dsRed /TM6B* (Guo et al.,

2013)*, EGFP::BubR1^{WT}* (Shinoda et al., 2023)*, GFP-BubR1, GFP-Mad2* (Buffin

et al., 2005)*, mad2^{Δ}* (Buffin et al., 2007)*, CycB-GFP* (Huang & Raff, 1999).

Following other *Drosophila* species were obtained from KYORIN-Fly: *D.*

bifasciata (JZK3), *D. triauraria* (TM15-92), *D. triauraria* (KMJ1), *D. triauraria*

(OEB12)*.* See Additional file: Table S1 for genotypes in each figure. We used

female flies unless otherwise noted in the figures.

Diapause and recovery induction

To assess the effects of diapause on midgut growth using *D. melanogaster*, we

subjected less than 6 h old virgin females to 10°C and 8 L:16D photoperiods

(Diapause condition), 18°C at 12L:12D photoperiod (Control condition) for 1-5

week. We then allowed the flies to recover by transferring them into vials with

fresh food with dry yeast for 7 days at 25°C and 12L:12D photoperiod (Recovery

condition).

To assess the effects of cold condition on midgut size, we allowed the

flies to grow in 18°C for 4 days after eclosion, and then subjected them to 10°C

and 8 L:16D photoperiods for 3 weeks (Cold condition).

To assess the effects of diapause state on midgut growth in other

Drosophila species, we subjected less than 6 h old virgin females to 10 L:14D

photoperiods (SD, diapause), 16L:8D photoperiod (LD, control) for 16 days.

Rearing temperature was always fixed at 15°C. We then allowed the flies to

recover by transferring them into 16L:8D photoperiod condition.

MARCM clone induction scheme

For the mosaic analysis with a repressible cell marker (MARCM) analysis,

MARCM-ready flies (*hsFLP; tub-Gal80,FRT40A/FRT40A; tub-Gal4,UAS-dsRed*)

were cultured at 25°C during all of pupal development (except during heat shock

induction). When female larvae began metamorphosis, white pupae were placed

into an empty vial at 25°C and designated as being at 0 h after puparium

formation (APF). MARCM labels one of the two daughter cells after mitotic

division. To label dividing ISCs, MARCM-ready flies were heat shocked at 48 h

APF for 1 h (time when ISCs are undergoing asymmetric divisions (Guo &

Ohlstein, 2015)). After eclosion, the size of the growing ISC clones was observed

with anti-Pros immunofluorescence staining under 1 week diapause or 1 week

control conditions. EE-only clones, which can be induced by labeling daughter

EE during asymmetric division were excluded by immunostaining against the EE

marker Pros, and the size of clones containing two or more ISCs was quantified.

Tissue-specific somatic mutation of BubR1

Transgenic flies expressing BubR1-sgRNA (GGTGACGCCAGTTACTATTG)

obtained from NIG gRNA stock collections were crossed to flies

expressing esg^{ts}>Cas9 (*esg-Gal4 tubGal80^{ts} / CyO; UAS-Cas9 / TM3, Act-GFP*).

Experimental crosses were maintained at 18°C to utilize Gal80^{ts} for suppressing

Gal4 activity. When female larvae began metamorphosis, white pupae were

placed into an empty vial at 18°C. After 6 days, the time when ISC division was

completed, pupae were transferred to 29°C and reared for 1 day to introduce

somatic mutations. These pupae were then transferred back to 18°C, reared

under diapause or control conditions for 3 weeks after eclosion.

Immunofluorescence

Adult midgut samples were dissected in 1 × PBS and fixed in 4% PFA for 30–

45 min at room temperature (RT). The following primary antibodies were used

with indicated dilution into 1 × PBS containing 0.5% BSA and 0.1% Triton X-100:

rabbit anti-PH3 (Millipore 06–570, 1:1000), mouse anti-Prospero (DSHB MR1A,

1:100), rat anti-GFP (Nacalai tesque 04404–26, 1:400), rabbit anti-cDcp1 (Cell

Signaling Technology 9578, 1:200), chicken anti-β-galactosidase (Abcam ab9361,

1:500), mouse anti-Delta (DSHB C594.9B, 1:100). After overnight incubation with

primary antibodies at 4°C, samples were incubated with fluorescent secondary

antibodies (Jackson ImmunoResearch and Invitrogen, 1:500) for 1 h at RT.

Hoechst 33,342 (Invitrogen, final concentration: 10 µg/ml) was used to visualize

DNA. Samples were mounted in Slowfade Diamond (ThermoFisher, S36963) and

imaged with the confocal microscope Zeiss LSM880.

RT-qPCR

Total RNA was purified from 7-10 midguts using the ReliaPrep RNA Tissue

Miniprep System (Promega). cDNA was made from 100 or 200 ng of RNA using

PrimeScript RT Reagent Kit (TaKaRa). Quantitative PCR was performed using
TB Green Premix Ex Taq II (TaKaRa) and the QuantStudio 6 Flex Real-Time PCR
System (ThermoFisher). *RpL32* was used as an internal control. Primers for *D.*
bifasciata and *D. triauraria* were designed based on the sequence homology to
D. melanogaster transcripts. Primer sequences are listed in Additional file: Table
S2.

Bulk RNA-seq

Total RNA was purified from 10 to 15 midguts using the ReliaPrep RNA Tissue
Miniprep System (Promega). The NanoDrop (ThermoFisher) was used to
measure the concentration of each RNA sample, and the integrity of RNA
samples was checked using Bioanalyzer. Total 300 ng RNA for each sample was
used for cDNA library preparation and the subsequent sequencing was
performed on an DNB sequencing system with single reads of 50 base pairs. The
sequencing reads were aligned against the *Drosophila melanogaster* genome
(ENSEMBL, BDGP6.22) using Salmon (Patro et al., 2017) for transcript
quantification. The quantification data of each transcript was converted into gene-
level counts using Tximport (Soneson et al., 2015). Differential expression
analysis of two conditions/groups (four biological replicates per condition) was
performed using the DESeq2 R package (ver 3.20). Genes with an adjusted *P*-
value < 0.1 were assigned as differentially expressed. For functional cluster
analysis of DEGs, GO BP enrichment analysis and Reactome pathway analysis
were performed by the ClusterProfiler R package.

Colchicine treatment

631 0.2 mM Colchicine were dissolved in 5% (w/v) sucrose solution. Filter paper
632 (Whatman 3MM) was soaked with 300 μL of reagents and placed into empty vials.
633 Newly-eclosed flies were transferred into these vials and fed with 5% sucrose
634 only (control) or colchicine solutions for 1 day.

Starvation resistance

638 To assay the starvation resistance, flies were fed with agar only food. For the
639 survival assay, dead flies (determined by immobility and showing no response to

640 tapping) were counted every day.

Quantification of midgut size

643 The central line length and area of the midgut were quantified using the
644 Fiji/ImageJ free hand tool on images obtained Zeiss AXIO Zoom.V16
645 stereomicroscopy.

Quantification of cell number

Cell number was quantified using Fiji/ImageJ. To count the total cell and *esg-*
GFP⁺ cell number, Hoechst and GFP signal was processed as following: (1)
despeckle, (2) binarization, (3) watershed, (4) analyze particle. The following cell
number was manually counted using the cell counter function: PH3⁺ cells,
Su(H)GBE-lacZ⁺ cells, and Fly-Fucci⁺ cells.

For size quantification of MARCM clones, clones containing two or more
ISCs were selected, and the number of cells in the clone was counted manually.

Quantification of signal intensity

657 The signal intensity of reporter lines (*EGFP::BubR1^{WT}, GFP-Mad2*) was
658 quantified using Fiji/ImageJ. The signal areas were selected as ROIs using the
659 polygon selection tool. The reporter intensity in each ROI was quantified using
660 the Measure command.

Statistics

Statistical analyses were performed using Excel and RStudio. Two tailed *t* tests
were used for comparisons between two groups. One-way ANOVAs with post hoc
Tukey tests were performed when comparing three or more groups. Log-rank
tests were used for comparison of survival curve. Significance is indicated in the
figures as follows: *$P \le 0.05$, **$P \le 0.01$, ***$P \le 0.001$, not significant
(N.S.): $P > 0.05$. Bar graphs show mean ± standard error. Boxplots show median
(thick line in the box), first and third quartiles (bottom and top of the box),
minimum value (lower whisker), and maximum value (upper whisker). Dots in bar
graphs and boxplots indicate individual values. Violin plots portray the distribution
of individual values.

Figure legends

Figure 1. The adult midgut of *Drosophila* undergoes remodeling in response to diapause and recovery

(A) Schematic of diapause and its recovery in *D. melanogaster*. LD = Light : Dark.

(B) Representative images of the midgut under the 3 weeks diapause (3wD) and recovery (3wD+R) condition. The two orange lines indicate anterior and posterior end of the midgut. Scale bars: 1 mm.

(C, D) Quantification of the midgut length of the wild-type flies (Canton-S) under diapause and control conditions (C) and their recovery conditions (D). *n*=10-15 midguts for each condition. The same diapause samples are quantified in (C) and (D).

(E) Quantification of the midgut length and area in the anterior and posterior region. Canton-S was analyzed. *n*=6 (3wC), 9 (3wD), and 21 (3wD+R) midguts for length measurements and *n*=15 (3wC), 20 (3wD), 17(3wD+R) midguts for area measurements.

(F) Quantification of the midgut length and area in the anterior and posterior region. *w^{1118}* was analyzed. *n*=10 (3wC), 10 (3wD), 15 (3wD+R) midguts for length measurements and *n*=10 (3wC), 11 (3wD), 15 (3wD+R) midguts for area measurements.

(G) Female adult of *D. bifasciata* (JZK3) and *D. triauraria* (TM15-92). Scale bars: 1 mm.

(H) Schematic of diapause and its recover conditions in *D. bifasciata* and *D. triauraria.* Light: Dark= 16 : 8 (hours) for long day (LD) condition, 10 : 14 (hours) for short day (SD) condition.

(I) Representative images of the midgut in *D. bifasciata* (JZK3) under control (LD), diapause (SD), and recover conditions. Scale bars: 1 mm.

(J, K) Quantification of the midgut length in *D. bifasciata* (J) and *D. triauraria* (K). *n*=7-12 midguts for each condition.

Figure 2. ISCs are in cell cycle arrest and inhibition of mitosis during diapause

(A, B) Schematics of the structure (A) and cell types (B) of the adult midgut of

D. melanogaster. Intestinal stem cell (ISC) generates an enteroblast (EB) or an

enteroendocrine progenitor (EEP), which differentiates into an enterocyte (EC)

or an enteroendocrine cell (EE).

(C) Total cell number in the adult midgut of wild-type flies under 3 weeks control

(3wC), 3 weeks diapause (3wD), and recovery after 3 weeks diapause (3wD+R).

n=7 (3wC), 8 (3wD), 8 (3wD+R) midguts.

(D) Representative images of *esg-GFP*⁺ cells in the posterior midgut under 3wC

and 3wD conditions. Scale bars: 100 µm.

(E) Quantification of *esg-GFP*⁺ cell number. *n*=11 (3wC),12 (3wD),10 (3wD+R)

midguts.

(F) Representative images of anti-PH3 staining in 3wC and 3wD wild-type flies.

Scale bars: 100 µm.

(G) PH3+ cell number in the anterior and posterior regions of 3wC and 3wD flies.

n=6 (3wC), 8 (3wD) midguts.

(H) Schematics of MARCM clone induction. ISC was labeled before eclosion, and

clonal expansion was examined at 1 week after eclosion.

(I) Representative images of MARCM clones in 1wC and 1wD conditions. A single

clone derived from an ISC is enclosed within the orange lines. Scale bars: 50 µm.

(J) Quantification of clone size. *n*=21 (1wC),10 (1wD) clones.

(K)(L) Representative images of the Fly-Fucci signals in the progenitor (esg+)

cells. Scale bars: 100 µm. The proportion of G2/M (GFP+ and RFP+ cells) is

higher under the 3wD condition. *n*=7 (3wC), 5 (3wD) midguts.

Figure 3. BubR1 expression increases in the cytoplasm of ISCs during

diapause

(A) MA plot of differentially expressed genes in a pair-wise comparison of

between 3wC and 3wD conditions.

(B, C) Gene ontology (GO) enrichment for upregulated genes (B) and

downregulated genes (C) in 3wD.

(D) Cell-cycle-related GO terms (biological process, BP) enriched in 3wD (left)

and heat map of "cell cycle checkpoint signaling" genes (right). These GO terms

were identified through enrichment analysis of all differentially expressed genes.

(E) Expression level of *BubR1* in 3wC and 3wD midguts. RNA-seq data were

used to examine the expression level. Count data was normalized with RLE

(Relative Log Expression). *n*=4 (3wC), 4 (3wD) RNA samples.

(F) Representative images of EGFP::BubR1 in the midgut under 3wC and 3wD

conditions. Scale bars: 50 μm.

(G) Quantification of the EGFP::BubR1 signal intensity of (F). 30 cells from 4

midguts (3wC), 41 cells from 4 midguts (3wD).

(H) Representative images of BubR1 localization in ISCs. BubR1 is localized in

the cytosol under the 3wD condition while BubR1 is accumulated at the

kinetochore (KT) after colchicine treatment. Scale bars: 10 μm.

(I) The proportion of BubR1 localization in mitotic (PH3+) cells. 215 cells from 6

midguts (3wD), 31 cells from 4 midguts (Colchicine feeding fly).

Figure 4. BubR1 expression in ISCs is essential for DDMR

(A) RT-qPCR of *BubR1* in control and *BubR1* heterozygous mutant flies under

the 3wC and 3wD condition. *n*=4 (3wC, w^{1118}), 3 (3wC, *BubR1^{k06109}*/+), 4 (3wC,

BubR1^{k03113}/+), 4 (3wD, w^{1118}), 4 (3wD, *BubR1^{k06109}*/+), 4 (3wD, *BubR1^{k03113}*/+)

RNA samples.

(B) Representative images of the midgut in control and *BubR1* heterozygous

mutant flies under the 3wD conditions. Scale bars: 1 mm.

(C) Quantification of the midgut length in control, *BubR1* heterozygous mutant,

and *EGFP::BubR1^{WT}* flies under 3wD. In *EGFP::BubR1^{WT}* flies, wild-type form of

BubR1 is BAC rescued in the *BubR1* trans-heterozygous mutant background.

n=27 (w^{1118}), 22 (*BubR1^{k06109}*/+), 18 (*BubR1^{k03113}*/+), 23 (*EGFP::BubR1^{WT}*)

midguts.

(D) Total cell number in control, *BubR1* heterozygous mutants, and

EGFP::BubR1^{WT} rescue flies under 3wD. *n*=10 (w^{1118}), 10 (*BubR1^{k06109}*/+), 15

(*BubR1^{k03113}*/+), 23 (*EGFP::BubR1^{WT}*) midguts.

(E) PH3+ cell number in control, *BubR1* heterozygous mutants, and

EGFP::BubR1^{WT} rescue flies under 3wD. *n*=16 (w^{1118}), 10 (*BubR1^{k06109}*/+), 15

(*BubR1^{k03113}*/+), 22 (*EGFP::BubR1^{WT}*) midguts.

(F) Quantification of *esg+* cell number in control, *BubR1* heterozygous mutants

under 3wD. n=23 (w^{1118}), 11 ($BubR1^{k06109}$/+), 16 ($BubR1^{k03113}$/+) midguts.

(G) Schematic of CRISPR-mediated *BubR1* knockout in *esg*+ cells.

(H) Quantification of the midgut length in control and *esg*+-specific *BubR1*

knockout flies. n=10 (esg^{Cas9}>+),10 (esg^{Cas9}>$BubR1^{CRISPR}$) midguts.

(I) Total cell number in control and *esg*+-specific *BubR1* knockout flies. n=9

(esg^{Cas9}>+),9 (esg^{Cas9}>$BubR1^{CRISPR}$) midguts.

(J) PH3+ cell number in control and *esg*+-specific *BubR1* knockout flies. n=10

(esg^{Cas9}>+),10 (esg^{Cas9}>$BubR1^{CRISPR}$) midguts.

Figure 5. The MCC component Mad2 is involved in DDMR

(A) Expression level of *mad2* in 3wC and 3wD midguts. RNA-seq data were used

to examine the expression level. Count data was normalized with RLE.

(B) Representative images of *GFP-Mad2* midguts under 3wC and 3wD conditions.

(C) Quantification of GFP-Mad2 signal intensity of (B). 40 cells from 4 midguts

(3wC), 52 cells from 4 midguts (3wD).

(D) Representative images of the midgut in control and *mad2* heterozygous

mutant flies under 3wD. Scale bars: 1 mm.

(E) Quantification of the midgut length in control and *mad2* heterozygous mutant

flies under 3wD. n=12 (w^{1118}), 9 ($mad2^{\Delta}$/+), 7 ($mad2^{EY}$/+) midguts. Same w^{1118}

control samples were used in Figure 5E and Figure 4C.

(F) Quantification of *esg*+ cell number in control and *mad2* heterozygous mutant

flies under 3wD. n=23 (w^{1118}), 10 ($mad2^{\Delta}$/+), 6 ($mad2^{EY}$/+) midguts. The w^{1118}

control are same sample with Figure 4E.

(G) Starvation resistance in control and *BubR1* heterozygous mutant flies. n=128

(w^{1118}), 114 ($BubR1^{k06109}$/+), 103 ($BubR1^{k03113}$/+) flies.

(H) Graphical summary of midgut remodeling in diapause and recovery

conditions.

Figure S1. Midgut remodeling in coordination with *Drosophila* reproductive

diapause

(A) Representative picture of ovary growth arrest in *D. melanogaster* diapause.

Scale bar: 1 mm.

(B) Schematic of control and its recovery in *D. melanogaster*. LD = Light : Dark.

(C) Quantification of the midgut length of the wild-type flies (Canton-S) under

control conditions and their recovery conditions. *n*=6-13 midguts for each

condition. The control samples are same with Figure 1C.

(D) Quantification of the midgut length in recovery condition for 1-7 days. *n*=8-21

midguts for each condition.

(E) Schematic of diapause and cold condition in *D. melanogaster*. LD = Light :

Dark. To set up cold condition, we allowed the flies to grow in 18°C for 4 days

after eclosion, and then subjected them to 10 °C and 8 L:16D photoperiods for 3

weeks.

(F) Quantification of the midgut length under diapause and cold condition in 3

weeks. *n*=9-21 midguts for each condition. The 3 weeks diapause samples are

same with Figure 1C.

(G) Quantification of the midgut length and area in wild-type male flies (Canton-

S) under 3wC and 3wD condition. *n*=7 (3wC), 7 (3wD) midguts.

(H) Representative pictures of ovaries in *D. bifasciata* (JZK3) and *D. triauraria*

(TM15-92) under the long day (LD) and short day (SD) conditions. In SD, ovarian

growth arrest was induced. Scale bars: 1 mm.

(I, J) Quantification of the midgut length of non-diapause strains of *D. triauraria*

(KMJ1 and OEB12) under LD and SD conditions. *n*=11 (KMJ1, LD), 11 (KMJ1,

SD), 8 (OEB12, LD), 13 (OEB12, SD) midguts. KMJ1 and OEB12 female flies do

not enter diapause state in SD condition (Yamada & Yamamoto, 2011).

Figure S2. ISCs remain in a non-proliferative state during diapause

(A) The proportion of esg+ cells in total cells. *n*=11 (3wC), 12 (3wD), 10 (3wD+R)

midguts.

(B) Representative images of the posterior midgut under 3wC and 3wD

conditions in *Dl-lacZ* flies. Scale bars: 100 μm.

(C) Representative images of anti-Dl staining in 3wC and 3wD wild-type flies.

Scale bars: 100 μm.

(D) Representative images of the posterior midgut under 3wC and 3wD

conditions in *Su(H)GBE-lacZ* flies. Scale bars: 100 μm.

(E) Quantification of the Su(H)+ cell number. *n*=8 (3wC), 6 (3wD) midguts.

(F) The proportion of Su(H)+ cells in total cells. *n*=8 (3wC), 6 (3wD) midguts.

(G) PH3+ cell number in the midgut of 3wC, 3wD, and 3wD+R flies. n=6 (3wC),

8 (3wD), 6 (3wD+R) midguts. The 3wC and 3wD samples are same with Figure

2F.

(H) Representative images of the posterior midgut under 3wC and 3wD

conditions in *CycB-GFP* flies. Scale bars: 100 µm.

(I) Representative images of anti-cDcp1 staining in 3wC and 3wD wild-type flies.

Scale bars: 50 µm.

Figure S3. Molecular signatures identified by RNA-seq analysis in DDMR

(A) Gene ontology (GO) enrichment of transcriptome in 3wD compared to 3wC..

All differentially expressed genes in 3wD are used for enrichment analysis.

(B) Reactome Pathway Enrichment in 3wD compared to 3wC. All differentially

expressed genes in 3wD are used for enrichment analysis.

(C) Expression level of *bmm, pepck, tobi* from RNA-seq data. *n*=4 (3wC), 4 (3wD)

RNA samples. Count data was normalized with RLE.

(D) Expression level of *per, tim* from RNA-seq data. *n*=4 (3wC), 4 (3wD) RNA

samples. Count data was normalized with RLE.

(E) Expression level of *Drs* from RNA-seq data. *n*=4 (3wC), 4 (3wD) RNA samples.

Count data was normalized with RLE.

(F) Representative images of GFP-BubR1 of the posterior midgut under 3wC and

3wD. Scale bar: 100 µm.

(G) MA plot of differentially expressed genes in a pair-wise comparison of

3wC+R and 3wD+R condition.

(H) Gene ontology (GO) enrichment in 3wD+R compared to 3wC+R. All

differentially expressed genes in 3wD+R are used for enrichment analysis.

(I) Reactome Pathway Enrichment in 3wD+R compared to 3wC+R. All

differentially expressed genes in 3wD+R are used for enrichment analysis.

(J) Expression level of *CCHa2, Dh31, dilp3, NPF, Thor* from RNA-seq data. *n*=4

(3wC+R), 4 (3wD+R) RNA samples. Count data was normalized with RLE.

Figure S4. BubR1 functions in the midgut in coordination with *Drosophila*

reproductive diapause

(A) Quantification of the midgut length in control and *BubR1* heterozygous mutant

under 3wC. n=10 (w^{1118}), 8 ($BubR1^{k06109}$/+), 8 ($BubR1^{k03113}$/+) midguts.

(B) PH3+ cell number in control, $BubR1$ heterozygous mutants, and

$EGFP::BubR1^{WT}$ flies under 3wC. n=10 (w^{1118}), 8 ($BubR1^{k06109}$/+), 8

($BubR1^{k03113}$/+) midguts.

(C) RT-qPCR of $BubR1$ in control and CRISPR-mediated $BubR1$ knockout flies

under the 3wD condition. n=9 (esg^{Cas9}>+), 9 (esg^{Cas9}>$BubR1^{CRISPR}$) RNA

samples.

(D) RT-qPCR of $BubR1$ in $D.\ bifasciata$ (JZK3) midgut under the control (LD) and

diapause (SD) condition. n=8 (LD), 9 (SD) RNA samples.

(E) RT-qPCR of $BubR1$ in $D.\ triauraria$ (TM15-92) midgut under the control (LD)

and diapause (SD) condition. n=6 (LD), 8 (SD) RNA samples.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5