1   *Drosophila* Toll links systemic immunity to long-term intestinal epithelial integrity.

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The intestine is an organ where immune, metabolic and neuroendocrine regulation is coordinated

with the rapid renewal of the tissue via progenitor somatic stem cells (PSSCs). However, how

these cells are influenced by each of the different physiological activities of the intestine is still

unclear. We report here that in *Drosophila*, systemic infection significantly increased PSSC

numbers, which was mimicked by expressing a constitutive form of the immune receptor Toll in

PSSCs and blocked when Toll was silenced via RNAi. Toll was important for the transition of

Intestinal Stem Cells (ISCs) to Enteroblasts (EBs) and Toll silencing in either in the absence of

infection resulted in the long-term reduction of PSSC numbers. This phenotype was also observed

in mutants of the Peptidoglycan Recognition Protein-SA (PGRP-SA), acting upstream of Toll. PGRP-

SA mutations or Toll-RNAi in progenitor cells led to a marked decrease in gut microbiota, implying

that a regularly renewed intestine was crucial for maintenance of normal numbers of commensal

bacteria. Infection or constitutive Toll signalling in progenitor cells triggered FOXO-dependent

transcription in enterocytes. Our results show that PGRP-SA-Toll immunity is crucial for gut

homeostasis.

Introduction: Innate immunity is the first-line host defence conserved in all metazoans (reviewed in

Akira and Takeda 2004). In this context, Toll-like receptor (TLR) signalling is one of the most

important mechanisms by which the innate immune system senses the invasion of pathogenic

microorganisms in both mammals and *Drosophila.* Unlike its mammalian counterparts however, the

fly Toll is activated by an endogenous cytokine-like ligand, the Nerve Growth Factor homologue, Spz

(Weber *et al,* 2003). The latter is processed to its active form by the Spz-processing enzyme (SPE)

(Jiang *et al*, 2006). Two serine protease cascades converge on SPE: one triggered by bacterial or

fungal serine proteases and a second activated by host proteins that recognise bacterial or fungal

cell wall. Prominent among these host proteins is Peptidoglycan Recognition Protein-SA (PGRP-SA)

(Michel *et al,* 2001). When transduction of the recognition signal reaches the Toll receptor, it is

communicated to the nucleus through a receptor-adaptor complex including Myd88 and IRAK4-

homologues and culminates in the phosphorylation of the IκB homologue, Cactus (reviewed in

Kounatidis and Ligoxygakis, 2012). This modification targets Cactus for degradation, leaving the NF-

κB homologue DIF to move to the nucleus and regulate hundreds of target genes including a battery

of powerful antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) (de Gregorio *et al*, 2002).

As in mammals, the high capacity of intestinal epithelial regeneration in flies depends on

intestinal stem cells (ISCs). As in mammals, tissue homeostasis in the fly gut is maintained by

multipotent ISCs, which are distributed along the basement membrane of the posterior midgut

(Ohlstein and Spradling 2006; Ohlstein and Spradling 2007, reviewed in Lemaitre and Miguel-Aliaga,

2013). There*,* an ISC divides to produce itself and an enteroblast (EB), which will undergo terminal

differentiation into an enterocyte (EC) or an enteroendocrine cell (EE). Progenitor cells (ISCs and EBs)

express a transcription factor called Escargot (*esg*) (Ohlstein and Spradling 2006; Ohlstein and

Spradling 2007; Amcheslavsky *et al* 2009). Thus, expression of *esg* is often used as a surrogate

marker for studying both ISCs and EBs in the anterior midgut (Fig. 1A). In the present work, we

investigated how systemic infection triggering Toll may be linked to long-term intestinal

homeostasis.

Results and discussion: Systemic infection of 20-day old adults expressing GFP under the *esg*

promoter, with the opportunistic fungal pathogen *Candida albicans* (*C. albicans*), resulted in a

statistically significant increase of GFP-positive cells (Fig. 1B). This result indicated that systemic

immunity regulated progenitor cell numbers. Since Toll is the pathway primarily responding to fungal

infections in *Drosophila,* we attempted to reproduce the result by mimicking Toll triggering by

infection. To this end, we expressed a constitutively active form of Toll (Toll10B) in *esg*-expressing

cells with the GAL4-UAS system. Indeed, this resulted again in a significant increase of large GFP

positive cells reminiscent of EBs (Fig. 1C). To identify if this was indeed an increase in EBs we

expressed UAS-Toll10B with Su(H)-GAL4 (an EB-specific GAL4; Ohlstein and Spradling 2006; Ohlstein

and Spradling 2007). We observed a significant rise in the numbers of EBs [Su(H)-GAL4] (Fig. 1C).

Taken together, the above data indicated that Toll signalling was sufficient in influencing the pool of

progenitor cells towards the EB fate or expanding the numbers of existing EB cells.

We next asked whether, in addition to being sufficient, Toll was also necessary for

controlling intestinal epithelial renewal following fungal infection using the GAL4/GAL80^{ts} system

(Suster *et al*, 2004). We silenced Toll in progenitor cells using *esg-GAL4, UAS-GFP GAL80^{ts}; UAS-*

Toll^{RNAi} (*esg^{ts}>Toll^{RNAi}*). The whole of development proceeded at the permissive temperature of 18°C

(GAL80 ON, GAL4 OFF, Toll ON). Then, one-day old adults were transferred to the restrictive

temperature of 30°C (GAL80 OFF, GAL4 ON, Toll OFF) and infected with *C. albicans* 20 days later.

After infection we examined the number of GFP-positive cells 36h post-infection. Following the same

protocol we used as a control for the RNAi mechanism a line from the VDRC collection (UAS-

CG7923^{RNAi}) that did not compromise host survival when infected with *C. albicans* and exhibited a

normal lifespan compared to its genetic background in the absence of infection (data not shown;

based on a targeted genetic screen using host survival after *C. albicans* infection as read-out,

Glittenberg *et al* in preparation). In these control flies, there was a statistically significant increase in

GFP-positive cells comparing sterile injury (PBS) with septic injury (*C. albicans*) as seen in Fig. 2A (and

quantified in Fig. 2B). In contrast, silencing Toll prevented this increase in progenitor cells as GFP-

positive cells were statistically inseparable following PBS injection vs. *C. albicans* infection (Fig. 2C;

quantified in Fig. 2B). Moreover, we noted that the number of GFP positive cells in *esg^{ts}>UAS-*

CG7923^{RNAi} flies was higher than in *esg^{ts}>UAS-Toll^{RNAi}* after PBS treatment, raising the possibility that

the *esg^{ts}>UAS-Toll^{RNAi}* had less progenitor cells in the steady state of 20-day old adults (Fig. 2B).

To test long-term renewal of the intestinal epithelium in the absence of infection, we

assayed guts from 6-day old and 20-day old *esg^{ts}>UAS-Toll^{RNAi}* flies and compared them to

chronologically age-matched *esg^{ts}>UAS-CG7923^{RNAi}* controls. We found that compared to *esg^{ts}>UAS-*

CG7923^RNAi, the shape of GFP positive progenitor cells in guts of *esg^ts^>UAS-Toll^RNAi* adults was

significantly altered with cells becoming smaller and more rounded at 20 days (Fig. 3A). They were

also significantly reduced in numbers (Fig. 3B), with the guts becoming extremely fragile to handle

(hence the slightly lower total number of *esg^ts^>UAS-Toll^RNAi* guts in the graph). Moreover, cultivable

intestinal microbiota were significantly lower at 20-days as measured by CFUs (Fig. 3C). The same

effect in cell shape at 20 days was also observed when Toll was silenced using the EB-specific Su(H)-

GAL4 in a *Su(H)^ts^>UAS-Toll^RNAi* configuration (Fig. S1). Taken together, results in Figs 1-3 showed that

Toll was both necessary and sufficient for regulating the long-term regeneration potential of the

intestine after an immune challenge but also in the absence of infection.

Flies mutant for the upstream Toll pathway component namely, *PGRP-SA^seml^* (Michel *et al*,

2001) also showed a reduction in ISCs dividing to EBs (Fig 4A) and a significant reduction in the

numbers of both ISCs in particular and progenitor cells in general (Fig. 4B). However, expression of

Toll10B in *PGRP-SA^seml^* progenitor cells was able to reconstitute ISCs in the anterior midgut (Fig. S2A)

in numbers statistically indistinguishable from the *yw,* genetic background (Fig. S2B). Notably, *PGRP-*

*SA^seml^* mutants had a markedly reduced intestinal microbiota in the cultivable component as

measured by Colony Forming Units (CFUs) (Fig. 5). Reduction in CFUs was independent of the genetic

background of the PGRP-SA mutation as it was observed when the *PGRP-SA^seml^* mutation was

transferred to one of the DGRP (*Drosophila* Genetics Reference Panel) lines (strain 25174) (Fig 5). Of

note that in *dif* mutants, CFU reduction was more pronounced with age underlying the long-term

influence of the loss of Toll signalling (Fig. 5).

This brought forward the possibility that maintenance of the regenerative potential of the

gut through the PGRP-SA-Toll-DIF signal was important to preserve a normal load of intestinal

microbiota. Of course, the reverse was also a valid hypothesis: loss of PGRP-SA could cause

microbiota reduction that in turn provoked intestinal progenitor. To distinguish between these two

alternative scenarios we based our reasoning on two recent reports establishing that rapamycin was

able to maintain the long-term regenerative potential of the intestine through inhibition of the

Target of Rapamycin Complex 1 (mTORC1) (Fan *et al,* 2015; Haller *et al*, 2017). Indeed,

administration of 200µM rapamycin to 20-day old *ywPGRP-SA^seml^* mutant flies, was able to expand

the presence of progenitor cells in the anterior midgut (Fig. 6A) with a significant increase in

numbers compared to the vehicle control (Fig. 6B). Moreover, rapamycin was able to restore

microbiota density to the levels of the *yw* genetic background (Fig. 6C). In turn, this strongly

suggested that loss of PGRP-SA-Toll signalling led to an increase in mTORC1 activity, which generated

an intestinal metabolic environment leading to an age-dependent microbiota decrease.

Given the above, we wanted to analyse further how Toll signalling in progenitor cells may

provoke metabolic changes in the gut. In this context, a major determinant of metabolic status and

an antagonist for some of mTORC1-mediated outcomes is the *Drosophila* Fork Head Box O (FOXO)

transcription factor (Puig *et al,* 2003; Jia *et al,* 2004; Chen *et al* 2010; Artoni *et al*, 2017). Using

quantitative real time PCR, we tested the effects of *esg-GAL4*-mediated overexpression of *UAS-*

*Toll^RNAi^* or *UAS-Toll10B* on FOXO dependent transcription. Comparing to expression of a *UAS-RFP*

control, Toll knock down in progenitor cells significantly increased expression of the insulin receptor

(*InR*) and the *Drosophila* insulin peptide-3 (*dilp3*) as well as FOXO itself (Fig. S3A). Conversely,

constitutive expression of Toll significantly downregulated expression of *InR, dilp3* and FOXO (Fig.

S3A). We reckoned that these changes would not be a result of difference in progenitor cells (since

there are too few and our method was not sensitive enough to detect them) but in ECs. A marker of

FOXO transcription under stress conditions (starvation, oxidative stress) is *Thor* the fruit fly

homologue of the eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4 (4E-BP) (Tettweller *et al*, 2005). Indeed, *C.*

albicans-infected flies increased *thor* transcription (measured by qPCR) but not when subjected to

FOXO RNAi with the enterocyte- specific *NP1-GAL4* (Fig. S3B). At the tissue level, systemic infection

of *C. albicans*, had a *Thor-lacZ* construct upregulated in their ECs (Fig. 7A, quantification in Fig. 7B).

This upregulation in ECs could be reproduced when *UAS-Toll10B* expression was driven by *esg-GAL4*

in progenitor cells (Fig. 8A, quantification in Fig. 8D). Effects on FOXO-dependent transcription in

esg^{ts}>UAS-Toll10B were microbiota-independent since germ-free flies showed a similar activation of

Thor-LacZ (our unpublished observations), reinforcing the idea that the effects observed when Toll

was constitutively active in progenitor cells were intrinsic to the tissue and these then influenced the

gut microbiota.

Long-term intestinal regeneration is important for preserving organ function. In mice, the

presence of TLR4 has been linked to increased proliferation of ISCs (Neal *et al*, 2012). However, the

effect of the absence of TLRs has been less clear. Our results show that following infection as well as

under homeostatic conditions, absence of Toll signalling blocked ISC-to-EB transition and reduced

the load of gut microbiota. These phenotypes were alleviated by using rapamycin, which targets

mTORC1 (reviewed in Laplante and Sabatini, 2012). This result showed that absence of Toll signalling

triggered mTORC1. It has been shown that an increase in mTORC1 signalling elevates glycolytic flux

and energy consumption, promoting anabolic processes and thus changing the cellular metabolic

profile forcing an "anabolic state" (Laplante and Sabatini, 2012). We speculate that this altered the

metabolic profile of the gut, starving bacteria from catabolic products (and thus reducing microbiota

density) as well as halting ISC division. One component of the Toll pathway important for its function

to preserve long-term intestinal progenitor numbers was the bacterial receptor PGRP-SA. It is

tempting to speculate that PGRP-SA recognises parts of the flora and as such activates the pathway,

which in turn keeps mTORC1 low and thus preserves a catabolic state favourable for normal

microbiota density. In this context, PGRP-SA function resembles intestinal TLR-2, Myd88-mediated

responses in the T-cell compartment of the mouse gut (Kubinak *et al,* 2015). More work is needed to

pinpoint, which constituent(s) of the microbiota PGRP-SA may recognise.

Toll signalling either in constitutive form or through *C. albicans* infection activated FOXO-

dependent transcription in ECs including *InR, dilp3* and *Thor*. Insulin pathway activity has been

shown to suppress FOXO-mediated transcription. DiAngelo *et al*, 2009 described how the activation

of the Toll pathway in the fat body leads to a suppression of insulin signalling as a mechanism to

preserve energy during infection. Since *Thor* is activated following infection as well as Toll

constitutive signalling, our results would suggest the mechanism may well be conserved in other

organs, such as the gut as the balance between nutrient availability and infection is necessary in any

part of the organism. Nevertheless, more work is needed to determine the signal by which Toll

signalling is communicated from the progenitor cells to ECs.

Our data support a model where systemic immunity to infection is directly linked to

epithelial renewal through the evolutionary conserved Toll receptor, which in this manner ties

together the immune and metabolic aspects of intestinal physiology with long-term epithelial

homeostasis.

Materials and Methods: *Fly strains* we used the *yw* and 25174 DGRP strain as genetic background

controls. We incorporated the PGRP-SA^{seml} mutation in 25174 and *esg^{ts}>GAL4* (Buchon *et al*, 2009).

We also incorporated UAS-CG7923^{RNAi}, UAS-9080^{RNAi} and UAS-Toll^{RNAi} in *esg^{ts}>GAL4.* All RNAi strains

were obtained from the Vienna Stock Centre (Dietzl *et al*, 2007). *Thor-lacZ* (y',w*; p{lacW}Thor^{K13517})

was obtained from Bloomington Stock Centre IN USA. For Toll constitutive expression we used *UAS-*

Toll10B (Shia *et al*, 2009).

Infection To infect flies, *Candida albicans (C. albicans)* strain was cultured in Sabouraud's glucose

broth (SGB; Oxoid) for 18 hours; cells were harvested by centrifugation (3200 rpm for 5 minutes) and

washed in sterile phosphate buffered saline (PBS). Washed fungal cells were again centrifuged and

re-suspended in PBS to an optical density of approximately 0.95-1.05 (Thermo Scientific NanoDrop

1000 spectrophotometer). The inoculant containing *C. albicans strain* was further diluted 4 fold in

PBS. Anaesthetized female flies (aged 10-12 days) were infected with 13.2nl of yeast cells suspension

(or with PBS control), directly injected into the haemolymph through the dorsolateral region of the

thorax, using a micro-injector (Drummond Scientific Nanoinject II). The number of viable yeast cells

injected per fly was approximately 600, as calculated from plating homogenates of six injected flies,

previously ground in SGB medium. Flies were kept at 30°C post-infection for 36 hours and then

dissected.

Gut dissection and immunostaining For gut imaging, guts from anesthetized flies were dissected in

Schneider's medium and fixed for 30-40 min in 4% paraformaldehyde (in PBS), rinsed in PBS and

then three times (5 min each) in wash solution, 0.1% Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich) in PBS. The tissue

was blocked overnight at 4°C in blocking solution (0.1% Triton X-100, 2% BSA (Sigma-Aldrich) in PBS.

For immunofluorescence, the guts were incubated with primary antibody dilution 1:100 mice anti-β-

galactosidase (40-1a-S, Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, Iowa, USA) and then washed 4x in

wash solution 15 min each. The primary antibody was revealed with 1:250 donkey anti-mouse Alexa-

568 antibody (Invitrogen), and nuclei were stained with DAPI 1:1000 (Sigma-Aldrich). Washed guts

were mounted in slides with vectorshield mounting media (Vector Laboratories). Guts were then

scanned with in an Axioplot imager (Zeiss) and analysed using the ImageJ program.

X-GAL (LacZ) staining of the gut Following dissection in Schneider solution tissue was fixed in

paraformaldehyde, 4%, (diluted from 16% stock, VWR) and left for 45 minutes. Tissue was washed

three times with wash solution (2mM $MgCl_2$ in PBS), 15 minutes each. X-Gal reaction buffer

containing: 35mM potassium ferrocyanide (Sigma-Aldrich), 35mM potassium ferricyanide (Sigma-

Aldrich), 2mM $MgCl_2$ (Sigma-Aldrich), 0.1% Triton and X-Gal (1mg/ml) in PBS was then added to the

tissue and incubated overnight with gentle agitation. Finally the tissue was rinsed several times with

PBS until the solution no long turned yellow (approximately five times). Tissue was then mounted as

mentioned before and viewed under bright field optics.

RNA extraction and quantitative real-time PCR Flies were dissected as described above but then the

crop and hindgut were removed and the guts were placed in an Eppendorf tube. Fifteen guts were

dissected for each condition/strain. The total RNA was isolated using the Norden Biotek Corp. Total

RNA isolation kit. This involved removing the Schneider solution from the tube and replacing it with

lysis buffer (300ul) provide by the kit. The guts were then homogenised using a needle attached to a

homogeniser to burst all the guts. The remaining protocol was performed according to the

manufacturer's instructions. The purity and the concentration of the RNA samples were checked

using the NanoDrop 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific), and 500ng of RNA was reverse

transcribed into cDNA with the Maxima First Strand cDNA Synthesis kit (ThermoFisher Scientific)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. The reaction conditions involved a step at 25°C for 10

min followed by a 15 minute step at 65°C and ending with a 5 min step at 85° C. For the quantitative

PCR (qPCR) the levels of the cDNA for InR, Drs, Foxo, Rheb, Dilp3, AMPK were measured, as were the

levels of the cDNA for the TATA binding protein (TBP). The TBP measurement was used as a control

to normalise the expression of the genes of interest. qPCR reactions (SensiFast SYBR No-ROX Kit,

Bioline, UK) were carried out using 2 microliters of cDNA template diluted tenfold and 400nM of

each primer (see supplementary table for primer sequence) in a Rotor-Gene Q real-time PCR cycler

with a 72-well rotor (Qiagen). The gene expression was calculated according to the comparative

threshold cycle (CT) value.

Microbiota analysis at the indicated age-points (Fig. 3C, Fig. 5 and Fig. S2), six female flies from each

of three different vials, each containing approximately 20 flies, were assayed for total microbiota

load. The microbiota load was determined both by plating fly extracts and by PCR amplification of

the 16S ribosomal RNA gene from DNA obtained from dissected guts. The remaining flies were

transferred to fresh vials every two days. Flies were first washed with cold ethanol (70%) and then

rinsed in PBS. Flies were homogenized in M.R.S broth, the extract dilutions were then spread on

M.R.S agar and the plates were incubated at 30°C. After 48 hours, colonies were counted. For PCR

assay, total DNA was extracted from dissected midguts (crop and hindgut were removed) using a 21-

G hypodermic needle attached to a homogenizer and the Cells and Tissue DNA Isolation Kit

(NORGEN). The 16S region PCR amplification was carried out for 10 nanograms of each DNA sample,

using 50-μl reaction mixtures. Each reaction mixture contained 0.5μM of each primer (see

supplementary table for primer sequence), a 200 μM concentration of each deoxynucleoside

triphosphate (dNTP), and 1μM Phusion *Taq* polymerase (New England Biolabs). The PCR conditions

involved an initial denaturation step at 98°C for 30 sec followed by 35 cycles of 95°C for 30 sec, 65°C

for 30 sec, and 72°C for 1 min and ended with an extension step at 72°C for 5 min in a thermocycler

(T100 thermal cycler, Bio-Rad). PCR samples were run in a 0.8% agarose gel. The gel was stained

with ethidium bromide, visualized and digitally photographed by Alphalimager HP Gel (Alpha

Innotech) imaging system. The bands intensities were analysed in Image J (Grigoryan, Grigoryan

2013).

Germ free flies for collecting embryos, male and female flies were placed in a fly cage and were

allowed to lay eggs on apple juice agar plates over 3 hours. To ensure complete removal of

extracellular bacteria from the eggs, an ethanol–based protocol was chosen. Embryos were

collected and dechorionated for 2 min in 2.7% sodium hypochlorite solution, then washed twice

in 70% ethanol and then twice with sterile, distilled water as was described by (Bouchon *et al*,

2009). Embryos were then moved to sterile food without antibiotics and allowed to develop. The

bleach, ethanol and water steps were avoided in the control experiments to exclude the

possibility that it might influence the number of microbiota on the eggs. All manipulations of the

axenic flies (bacterial depleted) were performed near a flame to prevent contamination.

Furthermore, vials and bottles containing dechorionated flies were monitored for the

characteristic developmental delay phenotypes of bacterial-depleted flies and the depletion of

bacteria from emerged axenic flies were assayed by plating cell extracts.

Statistical analysis Data was analysed using GraphPad Prism 6 or R. First a D' Agostino and Pearson

omnibus Normality test was conducted. If the data was found to fit a normal distribution, parametric

tests were used, first a 2 was ANNOVA and then a Tukey's multiple comparisons test. The data did

not fit the normal distribution in the cases of the Thor-LacZ and the GFP count data. GraphPad was

used to conduct a Kruskal-Wallis test for the Thor-LacZ data followed by the Dunn's multiple

comparisons test to clarify the significance these tests used the median and the interquartile range.

R was used to analyse the GFP count data, it was fitted to a generalised linear model using a quasi-

Poisson regression and then ANNOVA and Tukey's multiple comparisons tests were employed to

look for significance.

Acknowledgements: We would like to thank the Vienna and Bloomington Stock Centres, as well as

Bruno Lemaitre for fly stocks and the Iowa Hybridoma Bank for antibodies. This work was funded by

ERC Consolidator Grant 310912 and BBSRC Responsive Mode Grant BB/P005691/1 (both to PL).

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FIGURE 1: Progenitor cells respond to systemic *C. albicans* infection. Focusing on an area of the

anterior midgut close to the border with the middle midgut **(A)** we found a significant increase in

large GFP-positive cells (green) found in *esg>GFP* intestines following injection of *C. albicans* in the

thorax compared to sterile injury with PBS **(B).** This was mimicked in the absence of infection or

injury by the expression of a constitutively active form of the Toll receptor (Toll10B) when expressed

in progenitor cells (esg-GAL4) or just in EBs [Su(H)-GAL4] and compared to expression of nlsGFP **(C).**

This implied that the large GFP cells seen in (B) were EBs. All nuclei were stained with DAPI (grey). In

the plots, each dot represents the counted area from a single gut; 95% confidence interval is

displayed (***p<0.001, *p<0.1, ns=non-significant).

FIGURE 2

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Figure 2: Silencing Toll in intestinal progenitor cells prevents their increase during systemic

infection 36 hours following **(A)** PBS injection or **(B)** systemic *C. albicans* infection, the number of

ISCs / EBs (marked with GFP, green) increases (UAS-CG7923[RNAi]), but not when the function of Toll is

reduced (UAS-Toll[RNAi]) specifically in these cells (esg > Gal4) **(C)**. Systemic infection may also induce

enhanced clustering (yellow asterisks) and morphological changes (compare white asterisks) to the

ISCs / EBs, which are diminished when Toll receptor activity is reduced. All nuclei stained with DAPI

(grey). Each diamond represents a counted area for a single gut taken from 3 biological repeats.

     FIGURE 3

Figure 3: The Toll receptor influences the long-term renewal of gut progenitor cells (A) RNAi

knockdown of the *UAS-CG7923* was randomly chosen from the VDRC collection as a control for the

RNAi effect. **(B)** Using *UAS-Toll^{RNAi}* (from the same collection as *UAS-CG7923^{RNAi}*), Toll was knocked-

down specifically in ISCs and EBs *(esg^{ts} > Gal4)* of the adult gut. This led to altered morphology of

progenitors, where the cells generally remained rounded, rarely adopting the characteristic

elongated and irregular shape often observed with ISCs / EBs [compare cells marked with white

asterisks; ISCs / EBs are marked with GFP (green) and all nuclei stained with DAPI (grey)]. **(C)** There

was also a significant reduction in numbers of progenitor cells (day20 compared to all others

***p<0.001, all other comparisons non-significant. **(D)** Finally, Toll knocked-down resulted in the

significant reduction of cultivable intestinal microbiota (CFUs) (***p<0.001) in 20-day old flies. Each

dot in the graphs represents a counted area for a single gut taken from 3 biological repeats. 95%

confidence intervals are displayed.

 FIGURE 4

Figure 4: PGRP-SA *seml* mutant flies have less progenitor cells. (A) In the absence of infection, ISCs

(Dl positive, GFP positive) divide to produce EBs (Dl negative, GFP positive). However, in 20-day old

flies that were deficient for PGRP-SA this division was not observed (see also insets). **(B)**

Quantification of progenitor cells and ISCs showed that these were significantly reduced (**p<0.01;

error bars display 95% confidence interval, n=12 guts from each genotype). GFP expression was

directed by the UAS dependent mCD8GFP transgene, which marked the cell membranes of

progenitor cells including ISCs and EBs (DAPI all nuclei).

Figure 5: The effects on microbiota upon blocking of the Toll pathway. Log of CFUs /µl /fly (15 flies

for each strain and each time point). 2 different WT backgrounds: *yw* and DGRP line *25174*, *PGRP-*

SA^{seml} mutants in both backgrounds and *dif*^{1} mutant in *yw* used. Plates incubated overnight at 30°C.

*P<0.01, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001.

FIGURE 6

Figure 6: Rapamycin restores progenitor cells in *PGRP-SA^seml* flies. (A) Anterior midgut progenitor

cells were increased when *PGRP-SA^seml* flies were given rapamycin compared to the vehicle control

(EtOH). **(B)** This was verified in measurements comparing intestinal progenitor numbers between

EtOH and Rapamycin in EtOH in *PGRP-SA^seml* guts. **(C)** This restored the gut microbiota to the levels of

the *yw* genetic background. For all panels: **p<0.001, ns=non-significant, error bars represent 95%

confidence levels, n=30 guts for each treatment/genotype.

esg<GFP, thor-lacZ

Figure 7: Systemic infection of *C. albicans* activates FOXO-dependent transcription in enterocytes.

(A) Flies injected with *C. albicans* were sampled 36h post-infection and compared to non-treated

(homeostasis) or those injected with PBS (sterile injury). Gut cells stained with DAPI (blue), anti-β-

galactosidase (red) and anti-GFP expressing cells (marking both ISCs and EBs). Shown are

432   representative images from the anterior mid-gut taken at 63x. **(B)** Quantification of *thor-LacZ*

433   expression upon systemic infection. Intensity measured using ImageJ, subtraction of the background

434   was performed for all samples. Ten guts were analysed (approximately 50 cells analysed per gut).

435   95% confidence intervals displayed, ***P<0.001, *P<0.1.

FIGURE 8

Figure 8: FOXO-dependent transcription in Toll10B flies. . **(A)** Flies injected with *C. albicans* were

sampled 36h post-infection and compared to non-treated (homeostasis) or those expressing Toll10B.

Gut cells stained with DAPI (blue), anti-β-galactosidase (red) and anti-GFP expressing cells (marking

both ISCs and EBs). Shown are representative images from the anterior mid-gut taken at 63x. Two

left hand columns show *thor-lacZ; esg^{ts}<GFP* flies; right column *thor-lacZ; esg^{ts}<GFP* flies also express

the *UAS-Toll10B* transgene **(B)** Quantification of *thor-LacZ* expression upon systemic infection.

Intensity measured using ImageJ, subtraction of the background was performed for all samples. Ten

guts were analysed (approximately 50 cells analysed per gut). 95% confidence intervals displayed,

***P<0.001.