Commensal bacteria differentially shape the nutritional requirements of

***Drosophila* during juvenile growth**

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<u>Abstract</u>

The interplay between nutrition and the microbial communities colonizing the gastro-

intestinal tract (i.e. gut microbiota) determines juvenile growth trajectory. Nutritional

deficiencies trigger developmental delays, and an immature gut microbiota is a

hallmark of pathologies related to childhood undernutrition. However, how

commensal bacteria modulate the impact of nutrition on juvenile growth remains

elusive. Here, using gnotobiotic *Drosophila melanogaster* larvae independently

associated with two model commensal bacterial strains, *Acetobacter pomorum*[WJL]

(Ap[WJL]) and *Lactobacillus plantarum*[NC8] (Lp[NC8]), we performed a large-scale,

systematic nutritional screen based on larval growth in 40 different and precisely

controlled nutritional environments. We combined these results with genome-based

metabolic network reconstruction to define the biosynthetic capacities of *Drosophila*

germ-free (GF) larvae and its two commensal bacteria. We first established that

Ap[WJL] and Lp[NC8] differentially fulfills the nutritional requirements of the ex-GF larvae

and parsed such difference down to individual amino acids, vitamins, other

micronutrients and trace metals. We found that *Drosophila* commensal bacteria not

only fortify the host's diet with essential nutrients but, in specific instances,

functionally compensate for host auxotrophies, by either providing a metabolic

intermediate or nutrient derivative to the host or by uptaking, concentrating and

sparing contaminant traces of micronutrients. Our systematic work reveals that,

beyond the molecular dialogue engaged between the host and its commensal

partners, *Drosophila* and its facultative bacterial partners establish an integrated

nutritional network relying on nutrients sparing and utilization.

Introduction

Nutrition is the major environmental factor that determines to what extent an organism can realize its genetically-encoded growth potential [1]. The attributes of nutrition are defined by the quantity [2], quality [3] and bioavailability [4] of different nutrients in the diet. Nutrients are classified as non-essential or essential [3] based on the organism's biosynthetic capacities. Diets deficient in essential nutrients cause important growth and maturation delays or even growth arrest, or "stunting" characterized by low height-for-age score [5]. In addition, some nutrients are conditionally essential. These nutrients can be synthesized by the organism, but insufficiently so under certain metabolically demanding conditions such as juvenile growth. Therefore, these conditionally-essential nutrients need also to be retrieved from the diet, like the essential ones. Deficient consumption of conditionally essential nutrients can also be detrimental for growth [3].

The intricate relationship between nutrition and growth is modulated by gut microbes. In a classical twin study in humans, Smith *et al.* unequivocally demonstrated that the gut microbiota composition of the juvenile subject suffering from stunting is significantly different from that of the healthy twin. When the faecal microbiota from the discordant twins were transplanted into genetically identical germ-free (GF) mice fed a poor diet, the recipients of the microbiota from the stunted twin performed poorly in terms of growth gain and weight recovery compared to the recipients of the microbiota of the healthy twin [6]. Furthermore, genomic analyses of gut microbiota from children experiencing strong acute malnutrition showed significant under-representation in pathways of amino acid biosynthesis and uptake; carbohydrate utilization and B-vitamin metabolism [7]. Diets supplemented with nutrients favoring the growth of bacteria enriched in these under-represented

pathways increase plasma biomarkers and levels of mediators of growth, bone

formation, neurodevelopment, and immune function in children with moderate acute

malnutrition [7]. These studies clearly show that microbes strongly impact how

organisms respond to changes in their nutritional environment.

Diverse animal models are employed to decipher the physiological, ecological,

genetic and molecular mechanisms underpinning host/microbiota/diet interactions.

Among them, *Drosophila melanogaster* is frequently chosen to study the impact of

the nutritional environment on growth and development thanks to its short growth

period as well as easy and cost-effective rearing conditions. During the juvenile

phase of the *Drosophila* life cycle, larvae feed constantly and increase their body

mass ~200 times until entry into metamorphosis [8]. However, the pace and duration

of larval growth can be altered by the nutritional context and the host-associated

microbes [9–11]. Like other animals, *Drosophila* live in constant association with

commensal microbes, including bacteria and yeast [12]. The impact of the host-

associated microbes can be systematically assessed by generating gnotobiotic flies

associated with a defined set of commensals [13–15]. Lab-reared flies typically carry

bacterial strains from only four to eight species. The microbiota from wild flies are

more complex. Nevertheless, they are usually dominated by members of the genera

Acetobacter and *Lactobacillus* [16–22]. Most bacterial strains from these dominant

genera are easy to culture in the lab, and some have even been genetically

engineered for functional studies of host-microbes interactions [23–25]. These model

commensal bacteria are facultative symbionts that are constantly horizontally

acquired [26–28]. Even though recent experimental evidence shows that wild

bacterial isolates can persistently colonize the adult crop [22,29], the larval gut

commensals are in fact transient; they constantly shuttle between the larval gut and

the food substrate to establish a mutualistic cycle with the host [30,31].

We and others have previously shown that GF larvae raised in poor nutritional

conditions show important developmental delays, and single model bacterial strains

behaving as commensals can accelerate *Drosophila* development under these

nutritional challenges [20,25]. Specifically, *Acetobacter pomorum*[WJL] (Ap[WJL])

modulates developmental rate and final body size through the insulin/insulin-like

growth factor signaling (IIS) pathway, and its intact acetate production machinery is

critical [25]. *Lactobacillus plantarum*[WJL] or *L. plantarum*[NC8] (Lp[NC8]) promote host

juvenile growth and maturation partly through enhanced expression of intestinal

peptidases upon sensing bacterial cell wall components by *Drosophila* enterocytes

[20,23,32]. Interestingly, the growth-promoting effect of these bacteria is striking

under nutritional scarcity, suggesting that, besides the molecular dialogue engaged

between the commensal bacteria and their host to enhance protein digestion and

compensate for reduced dietary macronutrients intake, bacteria-mediated growth

promotion on globally scarce diets may also include specific compensation of

essential nutrients, as recently reported for thiamin [33]. However, how the presence

of such bacteria systematically alters the host's nutritional environment and satisfies

the host's nutritional requirements remains unexplored. To do so, we assessed the

bacterial contribution to *Drosophila* larval growth in 40 different and strictly controlled

nutritional contexts based on chemically-defined Holidic Diets (HDs).

Holidic diets comprise a mixture of pure chemical ingredients that satisfy the

different physiological requirements of the *Drosophila* host [34,35]. By altering the

concentration of each or a combination of ingredients, one can exactly tailor the

experiments by generating specific nutrient deficiencies or excess [36]. The first

development of HD supporting the growth of *Drosophila* can be traced back to the

1940s [37], and have been used to assess the direct impact of the nutritional

environment on axenic larvae in the 1950s [38,39]. HDs were then used to

investigate the links between nutrition and lifespan [40–43], fecundity [40–42,44],

food choice behavior [45,46], nutrient sensing [47], growth and maturation [33,40–

42,48–50]. In this study, we adopted the recently developed FLYAA HD where the

amino acid concentrations are calculated so that they match the amino acid ratios

found in the translated exome of the fly [40]. The FLYAA HD is optimal for both

fecundity and lifespan of adults, and it can efficiently support larval growth albeit not

to the optimal growth and maturation rate obtained with rich oligidic diets [34]. Using

this chemically defined HD, we aimed to deconstruct in a systematic manner the

microbial contribution to the host's nutritional requirements down to individual

nutrients.

To do so, we first needed to establish the biosynthetic capacities of GF larvae

and two model commensal bacteria of *Drosophila*: Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} on HD. We

further complemented the *in vivo* study with automated metabolic network

reconstruction based on the genome sequences of *D. melanogaster*, Ap^{WJL} and

Lp^{NC8}. In recent years, metabolic approaches based on genome-driven network

reconstructions have been applied to predict the potential metabolic dependencies

and metabolic exchanges between hosts and associated microbes [51–56]. The

mutualistic association between the pea aphid *Acyrthosiphon pisum* and its obligate

intracellular symbiont *Buchnera aphidicola* was the first symbiotic association for

which genomic information were available on both partners, and is a case study for a

comprehensive survey of integrated host-symbiont metabolic interactions. In this

model, decades of nutritional experiments using HDs and aposymbiotic aphids were

reinterpreted in the light of newly available genomic data, thus changing the

traditional paradigm that proposed a clear separation between the pathways of the

host and its symbionts and revealing a particularly integrated metabolic network,

which is the result of the long coevolution of the insect with its obligate

endosymbionts [57,58]. This example shows how important it is to integrate

theoretical and experimental approaches to model metabolic pathways of symbiotic

partners and properly dissect the functioning of their associations.

Here we report that association of GF larvae with Ap^{WJL} or Lp^{NC8} modifies the

nutritional requirements of ex-GF larvae in a specific manner each. We show that

Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} not only modify the nutritional environment of their host by fortifying

diets with essential nutrients. Moreover, they functionally compensate host

auxotrophies despite not synthetizing the missing nutrient, probably by either

providing a nutrient derivative to the host or by uptaking, concentrating and sparing

contaminant traces of the missing micronutrient.

Results and Discussion

Metabolic network reconstruction of the host (*Drosophila melanogaster*) and its two commensals, Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8}, was automatically generated using the CycADS pipeline [59]. The resulting BioCyc metabolism databases are available at http://artsymbiocyc.cycadsys.org for annotation and analysis purposes. We generated the enriched functional annotations of all the predicted proteins from the complete genomes of *D. melanogaster* (*Drosophila*, RefSeq GCF_000001215.4 release 6), *A. pomorum* strain DM001 (Ap^{WJL}, accession NCBI Bioproject PRJNA60787) and *L. plantarum* subsp. *plantarum* NC8 (Lp^{NC8}, NCBI Bioproject PRJNA67175). From the genomic analyses, we inferred all pathways allowing production of the organic compounds that are present in the exome-based FLYAA holidic diet (HD) developed by Piper *et al* [40]: fly's essential and non-essential amino acids (EAA^{Fly} (n=10) and NEAA^{Fly} (n=10)), B-vitamins (n=7), cholesterol (n=1), and nucleic acids and lipid precursors (NAL, n=4).

Drosophila melanogaster biosynthetic capabilities inferred from genome-based metabolic network reconstruction

Although a BioCyc metabolic reconstruction of *D. melanogaster* is already publicly available https://biocyc.org/FLY, we constructed an improved BioCyc database using a recent genome version and annotation [59]. This metabolic reconstruction identified 22,189 protein-encoding genes including 5,061 enzymes and 156 transporters associated with 1,610 compounds assembled in a network of 331 pathways (*versus* the 227 pathways found in BioCyc). Like other metazoans, *Drosophila* possesses the gene repertoire to produce all the NEAA^{Fly}, but is unable to produce the EAA^{Fly} (Fig 1A and Table S1). *Drosophila* can also produce myo-inositol,

inosine and uridine, but is unable to synthesize vitamins from simple precursors (Fig

1B and Table S2).

Ap^{WJL} biosynthetic capabilities inferred from genome-based metabolic network

reconstruction

According to our metabolic reconstruction, Ap^{WJL} genome comprises 4,268 protein-

encoding genes including 1,326 enzymes and 46 transporters associated with 1,306

compounds assembled in a network of 313 pathways. Ap^{WJL} is a complete autotroph

for all amino acids, and possesses the genetic potential to produce the DNA bases

inosine and uridine and five of the seven vitamins present in the HD: biotin, folate,

pantothenate, riboflavin and thiamine (Fig 1A-B and Table S1-2). The first two steps

of nicotinate pathway (EC 1.4.3.16 and 2.5.1.72) seem lacking in Ap^{WJL}. However,

three candidate proteins (peg.1228, 1229 and 1231) encode the succinate

dehydrogenase enzymatic activity (EC 1.3.5.1). This enzyme can alternatively use

oxygen or fumarate as O-donor, depending on aerobic or anaerobic living conditions.

Hence, this enzyme can switch between its aerobic condition activity (EC 1.3.5.1)

towards its anaerobic condition activity (EC 1.4.3.16) using fumarate as a substrate

and producing imminoaspartate. Hence, assuming that one of these genes can

produce the activity at a sufficient rate in aerobic conditions in Ap^{WJL}, then the

bacteria would be able to produce NAD$^+$ and NADP$^+$ from Asp (Fig 1B and Table

S2). The biosynthesis of pyridoxine is almost complete in Ap^{WJL}. Although we were

not able to detect specific activities for the first two steps of the pathway, we propose

(see below) that the bacteria have the capability to produce vitamin intermediates

using enzymes with very close activities (Table S2). It is to note that pyridoxine is

reported as non-essential for acetic acid bacteria [60]. In summary, Ap^{WJL} genome

analysis predicts that it is able to synthesize all amino acids, DNA bases and the

seven B-vitamins (biotin, folate, pantothenate, riboflavin, thiamine and intermediates

of nicotinate and pyridoxine) present in HD. However, we found no genomic support

for the synthesis of choline and myo-inositol in the Ap^{WJL} genome.

Lp^{NC8} biosynthetic capabilities inferred from genome-based metabolic network

reconstruction

Metabolic reconstruction from Lp^{NC8} genome generated a database that includes

2,868 protein-encoding genes, consisting of 973 enzymes and 74 transporters

associated with 1,154 compounds, all assembled in a network of 246 metabolic

pathways. From a genomic perspective (Fig 1A and Table S1-2), Lp^{NC8} is able to

produce most amino acids from glucose or inner precursors with the exception of

Phe, sulfur-containing (Cys, Met) and branched-chain amino acids (BCAA, Ile, Leu,

Val). Arg is known to be limiting [61] or essential to certain *L. plantarum* strains

[62,63], yet Lp^{NC8} genome encodes a complete Arg biosynthesis pathway. A manual

curation of the pathway showed that the Lp$^{NC8's}$ *argCJBDF* operon should be

functional, as it does not contain stop codons, frame-shifts or deletions. Lp^{NC8} may

produce Ala and Asp only using secondary metabolic routes (Table S1). Therefore,

Lp^{NC8} is expected to acquire these amino acids from the diet, or to have an altered

growth when they are absent from the diet. Similarly, biosynthesis of Thr is directly

linked to Asp and Cys and is probably very limited in Lp^{NC8}.

Regarding vitamins and bases biosynthesis, Lp^{NC8} is able to produce folate,

riboflavin, and thiamine (through the pyrimidine salvage pathway (2.1.7.49)), as well

as all DNA bases including uridine and inosine (Fig 1B and Table S2). Lp^{NC8} is not

able to synthesize biotin, pyridoxine, pantothenate, choline and myo-inositol. Based

on our genomic analysis, Lp^{NC8} is not able to achieve the entire nicotinate

biosynthetic pathway from Asp nor from Trp as described in eukaryotes and in some

bacteria [64] even if the first step of the pathway could possibly be accomplished by

the succinate dehydrogenase, as described above for Ap^{WJL}, the other two enzymes

of the initial part of the pathway are missing (Fig 1B and Table S2).

Collectively, our metabolic networks reconstruction shows that *Drosophila* and

its associated bacteria have differential biosynthetic capacities. Indeed, some of the

complete biosynthetic pathways are only present in one organism while others are

present in two or all the three partners (Fig 2). In addition, we did not detect

incomplete biosynthetic pathways potentially complemented between a commensal

and its host (Fig 1-2), as previously observed for obligate mutualistic partners [57,58].

Experimental validation of commensal bacteria auxotrophies using holidic

diets

In order to test experimentally the metabolic potential of *Drosophila* and its

commensals, predicted by our automated genome annotations and subsequent

metabolic pathway reconstructions (see above), we adopted the exome based

FLYAA holidic diet (HD) [40]. We systematically removed a single component at a

time to generate 39 different fly nutritional substrates (henceforth named HDΔX, X

being the nutrient omitted), plus one complete HD medium. This medium can also be

prepared in a liquid version by omitting agar and cholesterol from the recipe. Liquid

HD can then be used to assess bacterial growth in 96-well plates, increasing the

experimental throughput.

We first assessed Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} growth in each of the 40 different liquid HD

for 72 hours, using maximal optical densities (OD$_{Max}$) as a readout (Fig 3A and Table

S3). In the complete HD, both Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} grow well (Fig 3A, first line). On the

deficient media, Ap^{WJL} can grow in HDΔSucrose, presumably using acetate from the

acetate buffer as a carbon source. Also, its growth is not altered in the absence of

any of EAA^{Fly}, Vitamins or NAL. However, while Ap^{WJL} growth is not impacted by the

lack of most NEAA^{Fly}, it grows poorly in HDΔAla, HDΔCys and HDΔGlu. In addition,

Ap^{WJL} fails to grow in HDΔCu, HDΔFe and HDΔMg (Fig 3A, first column and Table

S3). The broad growth capacity of Ap^{WJL} in HDs correlates well with the wide range

of environmental niches the genus *Acetobacter* can colonize. *Acetobacter* species

are found in sugar-rich niches such as flowers and fruits, but also in poorer niches

such as soil and water, where they need to synthesize all nutrients required for their

own growth [65]. These findings corroborate our genome-based predictions (Fig 1).

Furthermore, the genome-based metabolic pathway reconstruction predicted that

Ap^{WJL} would not be able to synthesize choline and myo-inositol, however we

observed that Ap^{WJL} grows in their absence. Choline is an important precursor of

phosphatidylcholine (PC), which is a major component of *Acetobacter* membranes

and plays an important role to confer acetic acid tolerance. Despite its importance,

PC is not essential for *Acetobacter* growth. Indeed, mutants precluding PC synthesis

show a shift towards increased membrane content of phosphatidylethanolamine (PE)

and phosphatidylglycerol (PG) and do not show any growth defect in standard

medium [66]. Similarly, Ap^{WJL} likely does not need myo-inositol for its growth since

inositol compounds are absent from the membrane of most bacteria [67]. Regarding

nicotinate and pyridoxine, the biosynthesis pathways of these two vitamins are only

partial and do not support the production of the final molecules (Fig 1B and Table

S2), however intermediates such as pyridoxine-phosphate, pyridoxal-5-phosphate

and pyridoxamine or nicotinate-D-ribonucleotide, NAD^+ and $NADP^+$ may be

synthesized and would support bacterial growth in nicotinate or pyridoxine depleted

diets. Interestingly, Ap^{WJL} growth was only precluded in the absence of some metal

ions: Cu, Fe, and Mg. Metal ions are important co-factors required for enzymatic

activities [68]. Specifically, in acetic acid bacteria, Cu is an important co-factor of the

energy-producing cytochromes of the respiratory chain [69] making it essential for

Ap^{WJL} growth.

We detected far more nutritional auxotrophies for Lp^{NC8} on HDs (Fig 3A,

second column and Table S3). Lp^{NC8} fails to grow in HDΔSucrose, since sucrose is

the only suitable carbon source for this strain in the liquid HD. Also, Lp^{NC8} growth is

precluded in the absence of nine amino acids, including six EAA^{Fly} (Arg, Ile, Leu,

Phe, Thr, Val) and three $NEAA^{Fly}$ (Ala, Asp, Cys). It also grows poorly in media

lacking the EAA^{Fly} Lys, Met and Trp and the $NEAA^{Fly}$ Asn and Glu. Moreover, Lp^{NC8}

does not grow in HDΔBiotin and HDΔPantothenate. However, it slightly grows in

absence of nicotinate, despite the prediction from our genome-based metabolic

pathway reconstruction that nicotinate cannot be produced (Fig 1B and Table S2).

Finally, Lp^{NC8} growth is not affected by the lack of any NAL and even increased in the

absence of certain metal ions such as Ca, Cu, Mg, Zn. In contrast, Lp^{NC8} growth is

significantly reduced in HDΔMn. These relatively elevated nutritional requirements of

Lp^{NC8} were expected as *L. plantarum* is a species adapted to nutrient-rich

environments [70]. Hence, many *L. plantarum* strains have lost the capacity to

synthesize various nutrients that can easily be found in their natural habitats [70,71].

The inability of *L. plantarum* to synthesize important nutrients such as BCAA (Ile, Leu

and Val) or the B-vitamin pantothenate was previously identified by both genome

analyses [62] and growth studies in chemically defined minimal media [61,72,73].

Moreover, it is known that *L. plantarum* needs Mn to resist to oxidative stress [74],

which explains its poor growth in HDΔMn.

Our experimental data only partially correlate with the results of the genome-

based predictions. Predicted auxotrophies for Ile, Leu, Val, Phe, Cys, pantothenate

and biotin were confirmed *in vivo*. The identified Arg auxotrophy was not surprising

because, as mentioned above, Arg is often described as essential to *L. plantarum* in

high metabolic demanding conditions even though all genes necessary for Arg

biosynthesis are present. However, auxotrophies of Lp[NC8] to Thr, Ala, Asp, were not

expected (Fig 3A, denoted by "*"), even though these amino acids were predicted to

be limiting (see above). As mentioned previously, bacterial growth in liquid HD was

assessed in 96-well plates using a microplate reader (see Material and Methods).

Every cycle includes an agitation step to homogenize the solution to improve OD

reading accuracy. This agitation step may oxygenate the media and thus negatively

affects Lp[NC8] growth in suboptimal nutritional conditions since *L. plantarum* strains

are aerotolerant but optimal growth is achieved under microaerophilic or anaerobic

conditions [75]. To challenge these unexpected auxotrophies, we assessed Lp[NC8]

growth in liquid HDΔThr, HDΔAla, HDΔAsp in 15-mL closed falcon tubes without

agitation. After 72 hours of incubation, we determined CFU counts in each media

(Fig 3B). As predicted by our genomic analyses, Lp[NC8] was now able to grow in each

of the three deficient media in static conditions to the same extent as in the complete

HD (Fig 3B). Therefore, Lp[NC8] auxotrophies observed for Thr, Ala and Asp in 96-well

plates are likely due to excessive oxygenation. This could also explain the poor

growth of Lp[NC8] in the absence of the EAA[Fly] Lys, Met and Trp and the NEAA[Fly] Asn

and Glu.

Surprisingly, the ability of Lp^{NC8} to grow in HDΔCholine, HDΔMyo-inositol,

HDΔNicotinate and HDΔPyridoxine do not correlate with our metabolic predictions.

As for Ap^{WJL} (see above), Lp^{NC8} growth probably does not require choline or myo-

inositol. A previous study quantified choline and inositol compounds in *L. plantarum*

cell extracts and found them to be extremely low and therefore most likely due to

contaminations from the medium rather than components of *L. plantarum* biomass

[76]. Pyridoxine is a precursor of pyridoxal-5-phosphate, a cofactor necessary for

amino acid converting reactions. Teusink *et al.* [62] showed that *L. plantarum*^{WCSF1}

requires exogenous sources of pyridoxine only in a minimal medium lacking amino

acids. Since the HDΔPyridoxine contains all amino acids, it is likely that pyridoxine is

not essential for Lp^{NC8} growth in these conditions. Finally, the capacity of Lp^{NC8} to

grow in HDΔNicotinate could be related with the presence of alternative pathways to

nicotinate intermediates biosynthesis (Fig 1B and Table S2). Indeed, this possibility

has been previously reported in the genus *Lactobacillus* [71] which would explain the

capacity to grow in absence of exogenous nicotinate.

Altogether, the complete HD is a suitable nutritional environment that allows

the two model *Drosophila* commensals, Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} to grow. Growth capacities

in deficient media vary from one bacterium to another and are dictated by their

individual genetic repertoires.

Germ free larvae exhibit 22 auxotrophies while developing on FLYAA holidic

diets

We next sought to establish the nutritional requirements of GF larvae by

assessing larval developmental timing (DT) in complete HD and in each of the 39

deficient HD (larvae were reared from eggs until pupae on the HDs, see Material and

Methods). DT is expressed as D_{50}, which represents the day when 50% of the larvae

population has entered metamorphosis in a specific nutritional condition. In

agreement with previous studies [38,39], GF larvae fail to develop in all HDΔEAA^{Fly},

all HDΔVitamins, HDΔCholine, HDΔCholesterol, HDΔZn and HDΔMg (Fig 4A, first

column). Over 60 years ago, Sang *et al.* reported that Zn was dispensable for GF

larval development [38]. We suspect that the casein in the medium used in Sang *et*

al. inadvertently provided trace amount of Zn, which could account for the

discrepancy between our observation and that of Sang *et al*. Also in accordance with

previous studies [38,39,50], GF larvae were able to reach pupariation in HDΔNEAA^{Fly}

(ΔAla, ΔCys, ΔGln, ΔGlu, ΔGly, ΔPro), HDΔUridine, HDΔMyo-inositol, and HDΔMn at

the same rate as on a complete HD (Fig 4A first column, Table S4). The absence of

sucrose, Tyr, inosine, Ca, Cu and Fe did not prevent pupae emergence, but

increased the duration of larval development very significantly (Fig 4A first column,

Table S4). Surprisingly, GF larvae were able to reach pupariation, albeit late, in

HDΔSucrose. Indeed, all the HDs developed to date include carbohydrates (either

sucrose or fructose) as a carbon source [34]. Larval development in the absence of

carbohydrates suggests that GF larvae may use other components of the HD, such

as amino acids, as carbon source. In summary, GF *yw* larvae show 22 auxotrophies

while developing on sterile FLYAA holidic diets.

Our observations correlate well with our genome-based predictions of the

metabolic capabilities of the three partners (Fig 1) with one exception: GF larvae did

not reach pupariation in HDΔAsn. This result was surprising because Asn is

described as a NEAA in *Drosophila* and other animals [77]. To test whether Asn

auxotrophy was specific to the *yw* fly line used in our lab, we assessed larval DT in

two other *D. melanogaster* reference lines, the DGRP line DGRP-*RAL-25210* [78]

and w^{1118}. Unlike *yw*, both w^{1118} and *RAL-25210* larvae were able to develop in GF

condition in HDΔAsn albeit with a severe developmental delay (Fig 5A). Therefore,

the complete Asn auxotrophy seen with our *yw* strain is rather an exception than a

rule, an observation that correlates with our metabolic pathway reconstruction that

was based on the genome sequence of the *D. melanogaster* Reference Genome

strain (Bloomington stock #2057). We next sequenced the coding region of the

enzyme AsnS, which converts Asp to Asn in *yw* flies, and did not detect any non-

synonymous mutation (Fig S1). Further studies may thus be required to determine

the origin of the Asn auxotrophy in our *yw* line on HD. However, these results

indicate that Asn is not an EAA per se but remains a limiting NEAA, an observation

that also applies to Tyr.

Bacterial cell wall sensing contributes to Lp^{NC8} mediated larval growth

promotion in complete chemically defined diets

We then investigated if and how the association with commensals affects the

nutritional requirements of GF larvae during juvenile growth and maturation. To this

end, we mono-associated GF embryos with Ap^{WJL} or Lp^{NC8} and measured D_{50} and

egg-to-pupa survival in complete and deficient HDs (Fig 4A second and third

columns, respectively and Table S4, S5). On a complete HD, mono-association with

either Ap^{WJL} or Lp^{NC8} accelerated larval DT with a mean D_{50} of 8.4 and 7.7 days,

respectively, whereas GF mean D_{50} is 10.1 days (Fig 4A, first line). These growth-

promoting effects upon mono-association with either Ap^{WJL} or Lp^{NC8} have been

previously reported on complex diets and insights on the underlying molecular

mechanisms were provided [20,25]. Shin *et al*. showed that when the associated

larvae grow on a low casamino-acid semi-oligidic diet, the pyrroloquinoline quinone–

dependent alcohol dehydrogenase (PQQ-ADH) activity of Ap[WJL] modulates the

developmental rate and body size through insulin/insulin-like growth factor signaling

(IIS). PQQ-ADH disruption in the Ap[WJL]::Tn*pqq* mutant severely reduces acetic acid

production, which has been proposed to alter the regulation of developmental and

metabolic homeostasis upon mono-association [25]. Lp[NC8] promotes host juvenile

growth and maturation on a low yeast-based oligidic diet, partly through enhanced

expression of intestinal peptidases upon sensing of bacterial cell walls components

by *Drosophila* enterocytes [20,23]. Deletion of the *dlt* operon, which encodes the

molecular machinery involved in the D-alanylation of teichoic acids, leads to bacterial

cell wall alteration with a complete loss of D-alanylation of teichoic acids and

consequently cell walls purified from the Lp[NC8]Δ*dlt*$_{op}$ mutant trigger a reduced

expression of peptidases in enterocytes [23]. Therefore, we first probed the

importance of these molecular mechanisms on commensals mediated larval growth

promotion on complete HD. To this end, we tested in our HD setting the associations

with the loss of function mutants Ap[WJL]::Tn*pqq* [25] and Lp[NC8]Δ*dlt*$_{op}$ [23]. In complete

HD, only the Lp[NC8]Δ*dlt*$_{op}$ mutant failed to support larval growth, reminiscent of the

previous observation on the low-yeast oligidic diets (Fig S2). Surprisingly, in

complete HD, the Ap[WJL]::Tn*pqq* mutant actually triggered an enhanced growth

promotion as compared to its WT reference strain. Shin *et al.* reported that

Ap[WJL]::Tn*pqq* associated larvae experienced growth delay, which can be rescued by

acetic acid provision [25]. Therefore, the acetic acid-based buffer in HD may explain

why Ap[WJL]::Tn*pqq* no longer behaves as a loss of function mutant in this setting;

however, how it actually surpasses the WT strain on complete HD remains elusive.

Collectively, these results establish that sensing bacterial cell walls containing D-

alanylated teichoic acids is also an important feature of the intrinsic growth promoting

ability of Lp^NC8 in a complete chemically defined HD. Thus, the previously reported

molecular sensing mechanism that mediates the growth-promoting effect of Lp^NC8

during chronic undernutrition is also at play in synthetic diets.

Association with Ap^WJL fulfills 19 of the 22 nutrient requirements of GF larvae

Association with Ap^WJL sustained larval development (albeit to different degrees)

in the absence of 19 out of 22 GF larvae essential nutrients (Fig 4A second column).

Ap^WJL associated larvae reached pupariation in the absence of each EAA^Fly (though

their development was slower than on complete HD), Asn, vitamins, choline and Zn.

Association with Ap^WJL also rescued the developmental delay observed in GF larvae

in HDΔTyr, HDΔinosine, HDΔCu and HDΔFe. The only nutritional requirements of GF

larvae that were not fulfilled by Ap^WJL were cholesterol, pantothenate and Mg.

Association with Lp^NC8 fulfills 12 of the 22 nutrient requirements of GF larvae

Compared to Ap^WJL, mono-association with Lp^NC8 compensated for a reduced

number of the GF larvae nutritional deficiencies (12 out of 22; Fig 4A third column).

Lp^NC8 associated larvae reached pupariation in the absence of some EAA^Fly

(HDΔHis, HDΔLys, HDΔMet, HDΔPhe, HDΔThr), Asn, certain vitamins (HDΔBiotin,

HDΔFolate, HDΔNicotinate, HDΔRiboflavin, HDΔThiamine), and Zn. Moreover, Lp^NC8

rescued the developmental delay observed in GF on HDΔTyr, HDΔinosine, HDΔCu

and HDΔFe.

Bacteria need to be metabolically active in order to fulfill larval nutritional

requirements

Bacteria were grown in rich medium before association with larvae (see Material and

Methods). Therefore, they may have accumulated nutrients that can be used later by

the larvae to fulfill their nutritional requirements. To test for the nutritional input

brought by the initial bacterial inoculum, we associated GF larvae with 10X heat-

killed (HK) bacteria (mimicking the maximal bacterial biomass found in the diet during

the experiment, Fig S3B) and measured D_{50} in complete and deficient HDs (Fig 4A

fourth and fifth columns). In most cases, the D_{50} of larvae in HK and GF conditions

were similar. Therefore, bacteria need to be metabolically active to fulfill the larval

nutritional requirements on HDs. However, we found some exceptions. In HDΔAsn,

HDΔBiotin, HDΔFolate, HDΔCu and HDΔFe, addition of HK bacteria allowed the

larvae to develop, though not as fast as in association with living bacteria. These

results suggest that larvae only require a very small amount of these nutrients, which

can be sufficiently derived from the inert bacterial inoculum.

On a low-protein oligidic diet, larval growth promotion by commensal bacteria

correlates positively with the quantity of microbes [79]. We wondered whether the

differences that we observed in growth-promotion efficiency were due to differences

in bacterial loads. Thus, we tested the correlation between bacterial loads and benefit

to host growth in three contexts; (1) conditions where both bacteria are beneficial to

their host: complete HD; (2) conditions where each bacterium impacts differently the

host: HDΔMet, HDΔPhe, HDΔNicotinate; (3) conditions where only one bacterium

compensates for the lack of a nutrient: HDΔCys, HDΔPyr and HDΔCholine. We found

no correlation between bacterial load in the larval gut (Fig 4B; Fig S3A) or in the diet

(Fig 4B-C; Fig S3B) and the ability of the bacteria to impact host developmental

timing on the tested diets. These results reinforce the notion that, in our experimental

settings, *Drosophila*-associated bacteria are biologically active partners and their

472 load, either in the diet or in the gut, does not dictate their functional impact on their

473 host's nutrition or development.

475 The ability of bacteria to compensate nutritional deficiencies does not always

476 correlate with the ability of bacteria to synthesize the nutrient

477   Next, based on the genome-based predictions and the experimentally

478 revealed auxotrophies of GF larvae on FLYAA HD, we correlated the ability of each

479 commensal bacterium to synthesize a nutrient to its ability to fulfill the larval

480 requirements in this nutrient. We identified four distinct situations related to the 19

481 compensations of the 22 auxotrophies shown by GF larvae.

483 <u>Situation 1: the bacteria synthesize the missing nutrient in the diet and compensate</u>

484 <u>for the related larval auxotrophy (15/19 auxotrophies compensations).</u>

485   In most of the tested conditions, when the bacteria can synthesize a nutrient,

486 they can also fulfill the related nutritional requirements of the GF larvae. For Ap^{WJL}

487 this includes all EAA^{Fly}, Asn and most vitamins (except pantothenate). For Lp^{NC8}, the

488 correlation between the nutritional complementation of ex-GF larva and the ability of

489 Lp^{NC8} to synthesize the missing nutrient is more limited and only applies to the

490 requirements of His, Lys, Met, Thr, Asn and most vitamins. Nonetheless, these

491 results suggest that bacteria can actively supply the nutrients lacking in the HD to the

492 larvae. This phenomenon is reminiscent of previous observations using conventional

493 and gnotobiotic hosts, in which microbial sparing of riboflavin or thiamine by

494 differential commensals have been proposed [33,80]. Exceptions to this case seem

495 to be Ap^{WJL} on HDΔPantothenate and Lp^{NC8} on HDΔTrp. Specifically, Ap^{WJL} can

produce pantothenate and grows in HDΔPantothenate and similarly Lp^{NC8} can

produce Trp and grows in HDΔTrp. However, neither supported larval development

on the respective depleted HD. It is therefore probable that Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} produce

enough pantothenate and Trp, respectively, to sustain their own growth in the

depleted HD but not sufficiently or in a manner inaccessible to the larvae and thus fail

to fulfill larval requirements for these nutrients.

<u>Situation 2: the bacteria do not synthesize a nutrient and they cannot fulfill larval</u>

<u>nutrient requirements.</u>

Expectedly, we observed that when bacteria do not synthesize a nutrient, they

do not fulfill ex-GF larvae requirements for this nutrient. For instance, Lp^{NC8} cannot

produce the BCAA (Ile, Leu and Val), nor grow in their absence, and thus it cannot

fulfill larval requirements for these amino acids. In some depleted diets bacteria were

able to grow (Fig 3A) even though they cannot synthesize the missing nutrient (Fig 1

and Table S1-2), and they failed to fulfill the larvae requirements of these specific

nutrients. This is observed for Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} on HDΔCholesterol. The likely

explanation is that cholesterol is an animal sterol but is dispensable for bacterial

growth [67,81]. Similarly, on HDΔCholine and HDΔPyridoxine, Lp^{NC8} grows (Fig 3A)

but it is unable to fulfill larval requirements (Fig 4A), as according to genome-based

predictions it cannot synthesize these compounds (Fig 1 and Table S2).

<u>Situation 3: the bacteria do not synthesize a nutrient but they can fulfill larval nutrient</u>

<u>requirements (3/19 auxotrophies compensations)</u>

In most cases, we observe growth rescue by bacteria provision of the missing

nutrients, but there are interesting exceptions. According to genome-based

predictions, Ap^{WJL} is unable to synthesize *de novo* choline, pyridoxine and nicotinate

(Fig 1B and Table S2). Surprisingly, it compensates larval auxotrophies on

HDΔCholine, HDΔPyridoxine and HDΔNicotinate. Similarly, genome analysis predict

that Lp^{NC8} cannot synthesize nicotinate (Fig 1B and Table S2) but it compensates

larval auxotrophy on HDΔNicotinate.

To confirm that the bacteria are uncapable to synthesize these compounds,

we assessed the presence of these compounds in bacterial supernatants using

Nuclear Magnetic Resonance spectroscopy (NMR) and High Potential Liquid

Chromatography coupled with Mass Spectrometry (HPLC-MS). We were able to

quantify choline in a complete HD using NMR spectroscopy (at 0.531 ± 0.003 mM for

a theoric concentration of 0.477 mM). However, we failed to detect it in the

supernatant of Ap^{WJL} culture in HDΔCholine (see Material and Methods section).

Similarly, we did not detect any production of nicotinate by either Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8},

nor production of pyridoxine by Ap^{WJL} in HDΔNicotinate or HDΔPyridoxine although

the analytical method used (HPLC-MS, see Material and Methods) was very

sensitive with a limit of detection (LOD) of 15,625 nM and 0,977 nM for nicotinate and

pyridoxine, respectively.

In the case of choline, Ap^{WJL} may synthesize other compounds that *Drosophila*

can use to functionally replace choline. As stated before, *Acetobacter* mutants

precluding phosphatidylcholine (PC) synthesis shift their membrane composition

towards increased content of phosphatidylethanolamine (PE) and

phosphatidylglycerol (PG) [66]. PE and PG have been reported to be part of the

phospholipidic repertoire of *Drosophila* membranes [82], in which PE represents

approximately 50% of their lipid composition [83]. We posit that ex-GF larvae growing

on HDΔCholine capitalize on ethanolamine or glycerol phospho-derivatives produced

by Ap^{WJL} to compensate for the lack of choline in their diet.

In the case of pyridoxine, despite its inability to synthesize pyridoxine, Ap^{WJL}

may fulfill larval requirements through the production of intermediates such as

pyridoxine-phosphate, pyridoxal-5-phosphate or pyridoxamine, which are predicted to

be synthesized based on genome analysis (Fig 1B and Table S2).

Regarding nicotinate, both Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} grow on HDΔNicotinate and also

can fulfill the larval requirements in this vitamin, even though they cannot synthesize

it. However, genome-based metabolic predictions suggest that Ap^{WJL} may

compensate for the lack of nicotinate by producing intermediates such as nicotinate-

D-ribonucleotide, NAD$^+$ and NADP$^+$. In the case of Lp^{NC8}, we postulate the existence

of alternative metabolic pathways leading to nicotinate intermediates biosynthesis.

Lp^{NC8} cannot grow in the absence of Phe (Fig 3A). The genomic analyses

point to the possible loss of the gene coding for the enzyme prephenate dehydratase

(4.2.1.51), the penultimate step on Phe biosynthesis. Yet Lp^{NC8} can fulfill larval

requirements for Phe (Fig 4A). We wondered if the Phe auxotrophy we observed in

96-well plates (Fig 3A) was due to the oxygenation generated by the agitation

through OD readings, as for Thr, Ala and Asp (Fig 3B). To test this, we set cultures of

Lp^{NC8} in HDΔPhe in static 15-mL closed falcon tubes and assessed bacterial growth

after three days of culture. In contrast to agitation, Lp^{NC8} grows in HDΔPhe up to max.

10^6 CFUs in static conditions (Fig 5B), whereas in the complete media (Fig 3B),

Lp^{NC8} grows up to 5.10^8 CFUs. These results indicate that the rescue of larvae

developmental timing by Lp^{NC8} in HDΔPhe is still mediated by bacterial nutrient

supply. However, the poor growth of Lp^{NC8} in HDΔPhe suggests the existence of an

alternative pathway for Phe biosynthesis in absence of the prephenate dehydratase

(Fig 1A). As suggested by Hadadi et al. [84], Phe might be produced from L-

arogenate using a derivative catalysis through the 2.5.1.47 activity which is encoded

in Lp^{NC8} by the *cysD* gene (nc8_2167) (Table S2).

A second such interesting case is larval development rescue by Lp^{NC8} on

HDΔCys. Lp^{NC8} is auxotroph for Cys (Fig 3A), even in static conditions (Fig 5B).

Lp^{NC8}-associated larvae develop faster than GF larvae in HDΔCys, though GF larvae

are not auxotroph for Cys (Fig 4A). This beneficial effect of Lp^{NC8} on ex-GF larvae

development on HDΔCys is similar to what is observed on a complete HD (Fig 4A,

first row). Therefore this result probably reflects the basal nutrient-independent

growth-promoting effect of Lp^{NC8}, which relies on the sensing and signaling of Lp^{NC8}

cell wall by its host (Fig S2) [23] and requires Lp^{NC8} to be metabolically active (Fig

4A, fifth column). Taken together, our results suggest that Lp^{NC8} is able to grow in

HDΔCys only in the presence of *Drosophila* larvae. To test this hypothesis, we

assessed Lp^{NC8} growth in solid HDΔCys in the absence and the presence of larvae

(Fig 5C). Without larvae, Lp^{NC8} grew one log above the inoculum level (~5.10^5

CFU/tube) on solid HDΔCys (Fig 5C, "on diet only"). This minimal growth on solid

HDΔCys could be due to the Cys reserves from Lp^{NC8} growth in rich media (MRS)

prior to inoculation, or from contaminants in the agar and cholesterol added to

prepare the solid HD. Interestingly, in the presence of larvae in the HDΔCys, Lp^{NC8}

CFU counts increased over time, reaching ~10^8 CFU/tube at day 6 (Fig 5C, "on diet

with larvae"). These results indicate that in HDΔCys, larvae support Lp^{NC8} growth,

probably by supplying Cys or a precursor/derivative. In turn, Lp^{NC8} sensing and

signaling in the host promotes larval development and maturation. This observation

extends the recent demonstration that *Drosophila* and *L. plantarum* engage in a

mutualistic symbiosis, whereby the insect benefits the growth of the bacterium in their

shared nutritional environment [30]. Here, we discover that Cys is an additional

Drosophila symbiotic factors also previously referred to as "bacteria maintenance

factors" [30].

Situation 4: Bacterial compensation of minerals and metal deficiencies by

concentrating traces or by functional compensation (1/19 auxotrophy compensation).

601   We observed that both Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} would compensate for Cu, Fe and Zn

deficiencies but not Mg (Fig 4A, second and third columns). Requirements in Cu and

Fe were also fulfilled by HK bacteria (Fig 4A, fourth and fifth columns) although

larvae associated with HK bacteria in these conditions developed much slower than

larvae associated with living bacteria. This suggests that the inert bacterial inoculum

contains traces of Cu and Fe accumulated during the overnight growth in rich

medium prior to the inactivation and inoculation. These accumulated quantities

allowed the larvae to develop when Cu and Fe were not supplied in the HD.

Surprisingly, Zn requirements were fulfilled by living bacteria only (Fig 4A). We

hypothesize that bacteria may concentrate contaminating traces of these elements in

the HD and make them more available to larvae. Alternatively, this could be an

interesting case of functional complementation that requires further investigation.

Indeed, Zn is an important enzymatic cofactor in the biosynthesis of several

metabolites by the larva [85]. In the absence of Zn, GF larvae would not produce

these compounds; instead they could be produced by the bacteria and supplied to

the ex-GF larvae similarly to the nutritional complementation we observed above for

choline (situation 3). Interestingly, a link between Zn response and the microbiota of

Drosophila have been described in previous studies. Expression of the Zn transporter

zip-3 is higher in GF *Drosophila* adults midguts than in their conventionally raised

(CR) counterparts [27]. Moreover, the genes encoding Metallothioneins B and C

(*MtnB* and *MtnC*) are more expressed in flies harboring a microbiota than in GF flies

[86]. Metallothioneins are intracellular proteins that can store Zn. Their expression, as

well as expression of Zn transporters such as *zip-3*, is regulated by intracellular

levels of Zn [87]. Altogether, these results suggest that commensal bacteria may play

an important role in the uptake of metals (especially Zn) by *Drosophila* larvae. This

idea is reminiscent of recent reports in *Caenorhabditis elegans,* whereby a

commensal bacterium promotes worm development upon Fe scarcity by secreting a

scavenging siderophore [88].

Commensal bacteria spare amino acids essential to larval development

Despite the interesting exceptions detailed above, our data establish that in

many cases, bacterial commensals complement the nutritional requirements of their

host by synthesizing and supplying essential nutrients. Bacteria can actively excrete

amino acids in their environment when they are produced in excess as intracellular

by-products of metabolic reactions [89]. Moreover, the bacterial cell wall is rich in D-

amino acids, and it undergoes an important turnover [90,91]. In certain bacterial

species, D-amino acids accumulate in the supernatant during growth and act as a

signal to undergo stationary phase [92]. Thus, D-amino acids may also contribute to

larval nutrition. Indeed, it has been previously shown that D-amino acids (D-Arg, D-

His, D-Lys, D-Met, D-Phe, and D-Val) can support growth of GF larvae probably

through the action of amino acid racemases [48]. We thus hypothesized that Ap^{WJL}

and Lp^{NC8} could provide amino acids to their host by releasing them in the HD. To

directly test this hypothesis, we cultured Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} in liquid HD lacking each

EAA^{Fly} and quantified the production of the corresponding missing EAA^{Fly}. We

focused on EAA^{Fly}, whose deficiency could be compensated by the commensals in

our DT experiments (Fig. 4A). In these assays, Ap^{WJL} was cultured under agitation

and Lp^{NC8} cultures were grown in both agitated and static conditions (see Material

and Methods). After three days, we quantified the amino acids concentration from

bacterial supernatants using high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). We

quantified amino acid production by Ap^{WJL} under agitation while growing in HDΔArg,

HDΔHis, HDΔIle, HDΔLeu, HDΔLys, HDΔMet, HDΔPhe, HDΔThr, and HDΔVal and

observed accumulation of all missing AAs expect for Lys and Met (Fig 6A). For Lp^{NC8},

we analyzed the supernatants of HDs that support Lp^{NC8} growth under agitation (Fig

3A): HDΔHis, HDΔLys and HDΔMet. We also analyzed supernatants from static

conditions, HDΔHis, HDΔLys, HDΔMet, HDΔPhe and HDΔThr. Surprisingly, from all

tested conditions we only detected His accumulation in the supernatant of Lp^{NC8}

grown on HDΔHis under agitation (Fig 6B). We did not detect Lys and Met in Ap^{WJL}

culture supernatant or Lp^{NC8} culture under agitation supernatant nor His, Lys, Met,

Phe or Thr in Lp^{NC8} static culture supernatants. However, Ap^{WJL} or Lp^{NC8} can both

fulfill larval requirements in a HD lacking these AA (Fig 4A). We only analyzed

supernatants after 72h of growth, it is therefore possible that we missed the peak of

accumulation of the targeted AA, which may have taken place at another time point

during the growth phase. Also, Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} may only secrete precursors or

catabolites of these AA that we did not target in our analysis. Such AA derivatives

may also be used by the larvae to compensate for the lack of the cognate amino

acids in the diets (like nicotinate or pyridoxine intermediates, see above).

Alternatively, the culture conditions of bacteria on liquid holidic diet are likely to differ

from the conditions encounter in the larval guts, and both Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} could be

receiving cues from the larva itself to produce and/or secrete these nutrients while in

the gut. However, we detected Arg, His, Ile, Leu, Phe, Thr and Val production by

Ap^{WJL} and His by Lp^{NC8}, a production which correlates with the respective ability of

Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} to compensate for the lack of these AAs in the respective depleted

HD. Of note, the concentration of newly synthesized amino acids accumulating in the

supernatant is low compared to their concentration in a complete HD (20-150 µM in

the former vs 1-5 mM in the latter). However, the bacterial supply of amino acids to

the larvae is probably a continuous process, which may also be stimulated upon

uptake and transit through the larval intestine. Thus, amino acids would directly be

supplied to the larvae and will fulfill its nutritional requirements without the need to

accumulate in the surrounding media.

Altogether, our results show that Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} are able to synthesize and

excrete some EAA^{Fly} in their supernatants. These results confirm our hypothesis that

Drosophila commensal bacteria Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} produce these EAA^{Fly} while growing

on HDΔEAA^{Fly}. When associated to *Drosophila* larvae, Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} will therefore

supply these amino acids to the larvae, allowing larval development on these

deficient media as observed upon mono-associations (Fig 4A).

Conclusion

In this study, we have unraveled the interactions between the nutritional environment of *D. melanogaster* and two of its associated bacteria, as well as the functional importance of these interactions for *Drosophila* juvenile growth. We systematically characterized, both *in silico* and *in vivo*, the biosynthetic capacities of growing GF larvae and two model bacterial strains behaving as natural commensals of *Drosophila* (Ap[WJL] and Lp[NC8]). We show that both bacteria, each in its unique manner, alleviate the nutritional constraints in the environment to accelerate host growth and maturation in diets depleted in essential nutrients (Fig 7). The capacity of the bacteria to fulfill 19 of the requirements in 22 essential nutrients for larvae correlated with their metabolic activity and in most cases (15 out of 19) their ability to produce the missing nutrient. In contrast to obligate symbioses, our results highlight the clear separation between the metabolic pathways of the host and its commensals and reveal a particularly integrated nutritional network between the insect and its facultative commensals around the sparing and utilization of nutrients.

Importantly, we further substantiate that the host requirement for essential nutrients can be fulfilled by bacterial provision of a metabolic intermediate of such nutrient (2 out of 19), for example nicotinate intermediates by both Ap[WJL] and Lp[NC8] or pyridoxine intermediates by Ap[WJL]. Interestingly, we also detected two situations where nutrient compensation is not explained by a direct supply of the given nutrient or a metabolic intermediate: (1) the compensation of choline deficiency by Ap[WJL] and (2) the compensation of Zn deficiency by both Ap[WJL] and Lp[NC8]. We propose the existence of functional compensation mechanisms whereby Ap[WJL] would complement choline deficiency by synthesizing and providing functional analogues of choline derivatives, such as ethanolamine or glycerol derivatives. In addition, both

commensals would compensate Zn deficiency by uptaking, concentrating and

sparing contaminant traces of Zn to the host.

Previous works have shown different mechanisms of growth-promotion by

microbes in a global low-nutrient context: *Drosophila* larvae can feed on inert

microbes to extract nutrients [30,79,93]; alive commensal microbes can improve

amino acid absorption by increasing the host's intestinal peptidases activity [23,32]

and increase nutrient sensing-related hormonal signals [20,25]. Here we show that in

addition, the metabolic activities of alive *Drosophila*'s commensal bacteria correct

host auxotrophies. These results reveal a novel facet of the facultative nutritional

mutualism engaged between *Drosophila* and its commensal bacteria, which supports

the host's nutritional versatility and may allow its juvenile forms to better cope with

changes in nutrients availability during the critical phase of post-natal growth; hence

ensuring optimal host fitness. Our work lays the basis for further mechanistic studies

to investigate if and how commensals regulate the synthesis and release of essential

nutrients for the host and if the host influences this process. Dissecting how

commensals functionally compensate for nutrients that they cannot produce,

catabolize excess of nutrients or detoxify toxic molecules also constitute attractive

perspectives for future investigations.

In some cases, the genome-based predictions of bacterial biosynthetic

capabilities were incongruent with our *in vivo* assessment of bacterial auxotrophies

(Table S6). Such seeming discrepancy served as an entry point for us to discover

novel phenomena and interactions that would have been missed had we only

adopted a single approach. One such interesting example is Asn auxotrophy unique

to the *Drosophila yw* line in GF conditions. Another one is the larval provision of Cys

(or its derivatives) to Lp[NC8] to maintain a mutualistic nutritional exchange between

host and commensal. Previously, combination of *in silico* and *in vivo* approaches has

been successfully used for bacteria [62] but not applied to complex symbiotic

systems such as facultative host-commensals nutritional interactions. Indeed, reports

characterize these interactions *in silico* [94] but they were not confirmed *in vivo*. Our

work fulfills this gap and emphasizes the importance of using parallel systematic

genome-based annotation, pathway reconstruction and *in vivo* approaches for the

understanding of the intricate relationships between the microbial and the nutritional

environments and their impact on animal juvenile growth.

Materials and Methods

Expert automated genome annotation and reconstruction of the biosynthetic

potential of *D. melanogaster, A. pomorum*[WJL] *and L. plantarum*[NC8]

We used the Cyc Annotation Database System (CycADS) [59], an automated

annotation management system, to integrate protein annotations from the complete

genomes of *Drosophila melanogaster* (RefSeq GCF_000001215.4 release 6), *A.*

pomorum strain DM001 (accession NCBI- Bioproject PRJNA60787) and *L. plantarum*

subsp. *plantarum* NC8 (NCBI Bioproject PRJNA67175). CycADS collects protein

annotation results from different annotation methods including KAAS [95], PRIAM

[96], Blast2GO [97,98], and InterProScan [99] in order to obtain Enzyme Commission

numbers and Gene Ontology annotations. All annotation information was then

processed in the CycADS SQL database and automatically extracted to generate

appropriate input files to build the three BioCyc databases using the Pathway Tools

software v22.5 [100]. The BioCyc databases and their associated metabolic networks

are available in the EcoCyc database [101]. From the genomic analyses, we inferred

the biosynthetic capabilities of the three organisms and manually inspected all

pathways allowing production of the organic compounds that are present in the

exome-based FLYAA holidic diet (HD) [40]. For each gap found in biosynthetic

pathways or non-conventional enzymatic catalysis, TBLASTN [102] searches were

performed in the three genomes to look for unpredicted protein activities. Alternative

pathways were searched in the literature or using the BioCyc "Metabolic Route

Search" tool [103].

Drosophila diets, stocks and breeding

D. melanogaster stocks were reared as described previously [32]. Briefly, flies
were kept at 25°C with 12/12-hour dark/light cycles on a yeast/cornmeal medium
containing 50 g/L of inactivated yeast, 80 g/L of cornmeal, 7.4 g/L of agar, 4 mL/L of
propionic acid and 5.2 g/L of nipagin. Germ-free stocks were established as
described previously [86] and maintained in yeast/cornmeal medium supplemented
with an antibiotic cocktail composed of kanamycin (50 µg/mL), ampicillin (50 µg/mL),
tetracycline (10 µg/mL) and erythromycin (5 µg/mL). Axenicity was tested by plating
fly media on nutrient agar plates. *D. melanogaster yw* flies were used as the
reference strain in this work. Other *D. melanogaster* lines used include a wild-type
strain from the DGRP collection, DGRP-*RAL*-25210 [78], and the w^{1118} line [104].

Experiments were performed on Holidic Diet (HD) without preservatives.
Complete HD, with a total of 8 g/L of amino acids, was prepared as described by
Piper at al. using the fly's exome matched amino acid ratios (FLYAA) [40]. Briefly,
sucrose, agar, amino acids with low solubility (Ile, Leu and Tyr) as well as stock
solutions of metal ions and cholesterol were combined in an autoclavable bottle with
milli-Q water up to the desired volume, minus the volume of solutions to be added
after autoclaving. After autoclaving at 120°C for 15 min, the solution was allowed to
cool down at room temperature to ~60 °C. Acetic acid buffer and stock solutions for
the essential and non-essential amino acids, vitamins, nucleic acids and lipids were
added. Single nutrient deficient HD was prepared following the same recipe
excluding the nutrient of interest (named HDΔX, X being the nutrient omitted). Tubes
used to pour the HD were sterilized under UV for 20 min. HD was stored at 4°C until
use, for no longer than one week.

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

A. pomorum[WJL] (Ap[WJL]) [25], *L. plantarum*[NC8] (Lp[NC8]) [105], Ap[WJL]::Tn*pqq* [25]

and Lp[NC8]Δ*dlt*op [23] were used in this study. Ap[WJL] is a commensal of *Drosophila* lab

stocks and has been isolated from the midgut of an adult *Drosophila* [19]. Lp[NC8] is not

a natural commensal of the *Drosophila* gut as it has been isolated from grass silage

[105] but we previously showed that it behaves as a commensal [23] and we use this

strain as a model *Drosophila* commensal thanks to its genetic tractability (no plasmid

and high transformation efficiency). *A. pomorum* strains were cultured in 10 mL of

Mannitol Broth (Bacto peptone 3 g/L, yeast extract 5 g/L, D-mannitol 25 g/L) in 50 mL

flask at 30°C under 180 rpm during 24h. *L. plantarum* strains were cultured in 10 mL

of MRS broth (Carl Roth, Germany) in 15 mL culture tubes at 37°C, without agitation,

overnight. Liquid or solid cultures of Ap[WJL]::Tn*pqq* were supplemented with

kanamycin (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany) at a final concentration of 50 µg/mL. CFU

counts were performed for all strains on MRS agar (Carl Roth, Germany) plated

using the Easyspiral automatic plater (Intersciences, Saint Nom, France). The MRS

agar plates were then incubated for 24-48h at 30°C for Ap[WJL] or 37°C for Lp[NC8]. CFU

counts were done using the automatic colony counter Scan1200 (Intersciences, Saint

Nom, France) and its counting software.

Bacterial growth in liquid HD

To assess bacterial growth in the fly nutritional environment we developed a

liquid HD comprising all HD components except agar and cholesterol. Liquid HD was

prepared as described for HD. Single nutrient deficient liquid HD was prepared

following the same recipe excluding the nutrient of interest. After growth in culture

media, PBS washed Ap[WJL] or Lp[NC8] were inoculated at a final concentration of ~ 10^6

CFU/mL in 200 µL of either complete liquid HD or nutrient deficient liquid HD.

Cultures were incubated in 96-well microtiter plates (Nunc™ Edge 2.0. Thermo

Fisher Scientific) at 30°C for 72h. Growth was monitored using an SPECTROstar^{Nano}

(BMG Labtech GmbH, Ortenberg, Germany) by measuring the optical density at 600

nm (OD_{600}) every 30 minutes. Heatmap in Fig 3A represents the maximal OD

detected during the 72h of growth (average of three replicates). The whole

experiment was repeated at least twice. Fig 3A was created using the imagesc

function on MATLAB (version 2016b. MathWorks, Natick, Massachusetts). Lp^{NC8}

growth in static conditions was performed in 10 mL of liquid HD in 15-mL falcon tubes

inoculated at a final concentration of ~10^4 CFU/mL. Cultures were incubated at 30°C

for 72h. After incubation, cultures were diluted in PBS and plated on MRS agar as

described above.

Bacterial growth in solid HD

Bacterial CFUs in HDΔCys were assessed in presence or absence of

Drosophila larvae. Microtubes containing 400 µL of HD and 0.75–1 mm glass

microbeads were inoculated with ~10^4 CFUs of Lp^{NC8}. 5 first-instar larvae, collected

from eggs laid on HDΔCys, were added. The tubes were incubated at 30°C for 0, 3 or

6 days. After incubation, 600µL of PBS were added directly into the microtubes.

Samples were homogenized with the Precellys 24 tissue homogenizer (Bertin

Technologies, Montigny-le-Bretonneux, France). Lysates dilutions (in PBS) were

plated on MRS and CFU counts were assessed as described above.

Developmental timing determination

Axenic adults were placed in sterile breeding cages overnight to lay eggs on

sterile HD. The HD used to collect embryos always matched the experimental

condition. Fresh axenic embryos were collected the next morning and seeded by

pools of 40 in tubes containing the HD to test. For the mono-associated conditions a

total of ~10^7 CFUs of Ap^{WJL} or ~10^8 CFUs of Lp^{NC8}, washed on PBS, were inoculated

on the substrate and the eggs. Inoculation of Ap^{WJL} was limited to ~10^7 CFUs

because higher inoculums decreased egg-to-pupa survival. For heat killed (HK)

conditions, washed cells of Ap^{WJL} or Lp^{NC8} were incubated 3h at 65°C. Once at room

temperature, embryos were inoculated with ~10^8 HK CFUs and ~10^9 HK CFUs,

respectively. In the germ-free conditions, bacterial suspensions were replaced with

sterile PBS. Tubes were incubated at 25°C with 12/12-hour dark/light cycles. The

emergence of pupae was scored every day until all pupae had emerged. The

experiment was stopped when no pupae emerged after 30 days. Each gnotobiotic or

nutritional condition was inoculated in five replicates. Means, standard error of the

mean and statistical tests (Dunn's test of multiple comparisons) are detailed in Table

S4. Since larvae are cannibalistic and can find missing nutrients by eating their

siblings [106,107], we therefore excluded replicates with low egg-to-pupa survival

(<25%,i.e. n<10). Moreover, we considered that larvae failed to develop in one

condition if the mean egg-to-pupa survival of the five replicates was inferior to 25%

(for details in egg-to-pupae survival, see Table S5). D_{50} was determined using

D50App (http://paulinejoncour.shinyapps.io/D50App) as described previously [23].

The whole experiment was repeated at least twice. D_{50} heatmap represents the

average of the five replicates of each gnotobiotic and nutritional condition. Fig 4A

was done using the imagesc function on MATLAB (version 2016b. MathWorks,

Natick, Massachusetts).

Nicotinate and pyridoxine quantification by HPLC/MS

After growth in culture media, PBS washed Ap^{WJL} or Lp^{NC8} were inoculated in

triplicates at a final concentration of ~10^6 CFU/mL into 10 mL of liquid

HDΔNicotinateΔPyridoxineΔCholine and HDΔNicotinate, respectively. Ap^{WJL} was

grown under agitated conditions (50 mL flasks incubated at 30°C under 180 rpm).

Lp^{NC8} was grown under static conditions (15-mL falcon tubes at 30°C). Samples were

taken at times 0h and 72h. Samples were centrifuged (5000 rpm, 5 min).

Supernatants were collected and stored at -20°C until use. Supernatants were

separated on a PFP column (150 × 2.1 mm i.d., particle size 5 µm; Supelco

Bellefonte, PEN, USA). Solvent A was 0.1 % formic acid in H20 and solvent B was

0.1 % formic acid in acetonitrile at a flow rate of 250 µL/min. Solvent B was varied as

follows: 0 min: 2 %, 2 min: 2 %, 10 min: 5 %, 16 min: 35 %, 20 min: 100 % and 24

min: 100%. The column was then equilibrated for 6 min at the initial conditions before

the next sample was analyzed. The volume of injection was 5 µL. High-resolution

experiments were performed with a Vanquish HPLC system coupled to an Orbitrap

Qexactive+ mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA)

equipped with a heated electrospray ionization probe. MS analyses were performed

in positive FTMS mode at a resolution of 70 000 (at 400 m/z) in full-scan mode, with

the following source parameters: the capillary temperature was 320 °C, the source

heater temperature, 300 °C, the sheath gas flow rate, 40 a.u. (arbitrary unit), the

auxiliary gas flow rate, 10 a.u., the S-Lens RF level, 40 %, and the source voltage, 5

kV. Metabolites were determined by extracting the exact mass with a tolerance of 5

ppm. The limit of detection was determined following the ERACHEM guideline [108].

Nicotinate, and pyridoxine standards were mixed at 5 µM and diluted 13 times up to

0.48×10^{-3} µM. Each solution was injected 3 times. The limit of detection was

determined as: LOD=3 x s'0 where s'0 is the standard deviation of the intercept.

Choline quantification by RMN

After growth in culture media, PBS washed Ap^{WJL} were inoculated in triplicates

at a final concentration of ~10^6 CFU/mL into 10 mL of liquid

HDΔNicotinateΔPyridoxineΔCholine. Ap^{WJL} was then grown under agitated conditions

(50 mL flasks incubated at 30°C under 180 rpm). Samples were taken at times 0h

and 72h. Samples were centrifuged (5000 rpm, 5 min). Supernatants were collected

and stored at -20°C until use. Supernatants were analyzed by 1H 1D NMR on a

Bruker Ascend 800 MHz spectrometer equipped with a CPCI 5 mm cryoprobe. A

volume of 540 μL of supernatant was mixed to 60 μL of Trimethylsillyl Propionic Acid

(TSP) 10mM solution in D2O for spectra calibration. A 1D 1H NMR sequence with

water presaturation and a pulse angle of 30° and a complete relaxation delay of 7

sec was used. An acquisition of 64 k points was acquired (2 sec acquisition time) and

processed with 256 k points.

DNA extraction and AsnS locus analyses

Genomic DNA from 2 adults *yw* flies was extracted as previously described [109].

Briefly, flies were grinded in microtubes containing 0.75–1 mm glass microbeads and

500 μL of lysis buffer (Tris-HCl 10 mM, EDTA 1 mM, NaCl 1 mM at pH 8.2) using the

Precellys 24 tissue homogenizer (Bertin Technologies, Montigny-le-Bretonneux,

France). Then, we added Proteinase K (PureLink Genomic DNA extraction kit,

Invotrogen) at a final concentration of 200 μg/mL and incubated the samples at 56°C

under 700 rpm agitation for 1h. Samples were centrifuged at 10000 g for 2 min and

we collected the supernatant. *AsnS* coding sequence was amplified by PCR (Q5 Pol

High Fidelity M0491S, New England BioLabs) using the primers AsnS_F

(CGGGCCGCTTCGTTAAAAA) and AsnS_R (TGGAATTCCTCAGACTTGCCA) with

a Veriti Thermal Cycler (Applied BioSystems, USA). PCR products were purified

using the NucleoSpin Gel and PCR Cleanup kit (Macherey-Nagel, Germany)

following manufacturer's instructions. Sequencing was done by Sanger sequencing

(Genewiz, Germany) using the following primers: AsnS_F, AsnS_R, AsnS1

(AGGATTATGGAAAGGATCTTCTGCA), AsnS2 (CTCCGGTCGGATTTGCATCA),

AsnS3 (TAATGCCAAAGGGGTCTCGG) and AsnS4

(GTGCGCCAGCTGCATTTATC). The whole coding sequence was then assembled

and analyzed using Geneious (version 10.1.3. Biomatters Ltd. New Zealand) by

mapping on the reference *D. melanogaster* genome (RefSeq GCF_000001215.4

release 6).

Amino acid quantification by HPLC

After growth in culture media, PBS washed Ap^{WJL} or Lp^{NC8} were inoculated in

triplicates at a final concentration of ~10^6 CFU/mL into 10 mL of each liquid

$HDΔEAA^{Fly}$ shown to support their growth and in which they fulfill larval requirements

(Fig 3A, Fig 4A). For Ap^{WJL} this includes liquid HDΔArg, HDΔHis, HDΔIle, HDΔLeu,

HDΔLys, HDΔMet, HDΔPhe, HDΔThr, HDΔVal in agitated conditions. For Lp^{NC8} this

includes liquid HDΔHis, HDΔLys and HDΔMet in agitated conditions and liquid

HDΔHis, HDΔLys, HDΔMet, HDΔPhe and HDΔThr in static conditions. For agitated

conditions, cultures were done in 50 mL flasks and incubated at 30°C under 180 rpm.

Static conditions were performed in 15-mL falcon tubes at 30°C. Samples were taken

at times 0h and 72h. Samples were centrifuged (5000 rpm, 5 min). Supernatants

were collected and stored at -20°C until use.

Amino acid quantification was performed by HPLC from the supernatants

obtained at 0h and 72h. Samples were crushed in 320 µl of ultra-pure water with a

known quantity of norvaline used as the internal standard. Each sample was

submitted to a classical protein hydrolysis in sealed glass tubes with Teflon-lined

screw caps (6N HCl, 115°C, during 22h). After air vacuum removal, tubes were

purged with nitrogen. All samples were stored at -20°C, and then mixed with 50 µL of

ultra-pure water for amino acids analyses. Amino acid analysis was performed by

HPLC (Agilent 1100; Agilent Technologies, Massy, France) with a guard cartridge

and a reverse phase C18 column (Zorbax Eclipse-AAA 3.5 µm, 150 × 4.6 mm,

Agilent Technologies). Prior to injection, samples were buffered with borate at pH

10.2, and primary or secondary amino acids were derivatized with ortho-

phthalaldehyde (OPA) or 9-fluorenylmethyl chloroformate (FMOC), respectively. The

derivatization process, at room temperature, was automated using the Agilent 1313A

autosampler. Separation was carried out at 40°C, with a flow rate of 2 mL/min, using

40 mM NaH_2PO_4 (eluent A, pH 7.8, adjusted with NaOH) as the polar phase and an

acetonitrile/methanol/water mixture (45/45/10, v/v/v) as the non-polar phase (eluent

B). A gradient was applied during chromatography, starting with 20% of B and

increasing to 80% at the end. Detection was performed by a fluorescence detector

set at 340 and 450 nm of excitation and emission wavelengths, respectively (266/305

nm for proline). These conditions do not allow for the detection and quantification of

cysteine and tryptophan, so only 18 amino acids were quantified. For this

quantification, norvaline was used as the internal standard and the response factor of

each amino acid was determined using a 250 pmol/µl standard mix of amino acids.

The software used was the ChemStation for LC 3D Systems (Agilent Technologies).

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Figure legends

Fig 1. **Expert automated genome annotation and metabolic network**

reconstruction of Drosophila, Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8}

(A) Amino acids biosynthetic pathways. (B) Vitamins and cofactors biosynthetic

pathways. Left panels, *Drosophila melanogaster*. Central panels, *Acetobacter*

pomorum^{WJL}. Right panels, *Lactobacillus plantarum^{NC8}*. Color code: blue,

biosynthesized amino acids or vitamins; brown, limited amino acid or vitamin

biosynthesis (biosynthesis of the metabolite may be possible, but it is limited and/or

requires secondary metabolic pathways); black, non-biosynthesized amino acids or

vitamins; grey, pathway intermediary metabolites. Red cross: non-functional pathway

(lack of key enzyme(s)). Orange nods, major metabolic pathways. Abbreviations: α-

cglu: α-keto-glutarate. AceCoA: Acetyl-CoA. Ant: Antranilate. Aro: Arogenate. Cho:

chorismate. Cit: Citrate. Cysta: Cystathionine. Dihyn-P3: 7,8-Dihydroneopterin-3'-P3.

Dm-ribi: 6,7-Dimethyl-8-ribityllumazine. Ery-4P: Erythrose-4P. Fum: Fumarate. Glc:

Glucose. Gly-3P: Glycerate-3P. Homocys: Homocysteine. Homoser: Homoserine.

Ind: Indole. Orn: Ornithine. Oxa: Oxaloacetate. P-ra-imi: 1-(5'-Phospho-ribosyl)-5-

aminoimidazole. Phoser: Phosphoserine. Pre: Prephenate. Pyn-P: Pyridoxine

phosphate. Pyr: Pyruvate. Rib-5P: Ribose-5P.

1001

Fig 2. *Drosophila*, Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} have differential biosynthetic capacities of

nutrients contained in the holidic diet

Venn diagram represents the number of nutrients present in the FLYAA Holidic Diet

that can be synthesized by each organism. The list of corresponding metabolites is

provided. Dotted circles: biosynthesis of this metabolite by Lp^{NC8} (green) may be

possible, but might be limiting.

1008

Fig 3. Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} auxotrophies detected in liquid fly Holidic Diet (HD)

(A) Heat map representing the mean maximal optical density (OD$_{Max}$) reached by

Ap^{WJL} or Lp^{NC8} after 72h of culture. Each line shows growth in a different version of

liquid HD: complete HD (first line) or HD lacking nutrient X (ΔX, lines below). EAA^{Fly}:

Fly's Essential Amino Acids, NEAA^{Fly}: Fly's Non-Essential Amino Acids, NAL: Nucleic

Acids and Lipids. Cultures were made in 96-wells plate under agitation. Asterisks (*)

pinpoint contradictions with our metabolic pathway automated annotations that are

explained in panel B. (B) Growth of Lp^{NC8} in four versions of liquid HD: complete HD,

HDΔThr, HDΔAla and HDΔAsp, in static conditions. Plot shows means with standard

error based on three replicates by assay. Each dot represents an independent

replicate. The dashed line represents the level of inoculation at t0 (10^4 CFUs per

mL).

1021

Fig 4. Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} can differentially fulfill their host's nutritional

requirements in holidic diets

(A) Heat map representing the mean D_{50} (*i.e.* day when 50% of the larvae population

has entered metamorphosis) of GF larvae (first column) and larvae associated with

Ap^{WJL}, Lp^{NC8}, Ap$^{WJL}_{HK}$ and Lp$^{NC8}_{HK}$ (columns 2, 3, 4, 5 respectively). Each line shows

D_{50} in a different version of HD: complete HD (first line) or HD lacking nutrient X (ΔX,

lines below). EAA^{Fly}: Fly's Essential Amino Acids, NEAA^{Fly}: Fly's Non-Essential

Amino Acids, NAL: Nucleic Acids and Lipids. White means larvae did not reach

pupariation in these conditions. Means, standard errors of the mean and statistical

tests (Dunn's test of multiple comparisons) are detailed in Table S4. (B-D) Absence

of correlation between time of development and quantity of bacteria. Y axis shows

D50 (*i.e.* day when 50% of the larvae population has entered metamorphosis) and X

axis shows quantity of bacteria (Log$_{10}$ CFUs) in the larval gut (B), in the diet in

presence of larvae 3 days after inoculation (C) and in the diet in presence of larvae 6

days after inoculation (D). Each dot shows a different condition. Complete HD: on

complete HD. ΔX: on HD lacking nutrient X. Black dots: in mono-association with

Ap^{WJL}, green dots: in mono-association with Lp^{NC8}. For each bacterium, we tested

Pearson's product-moment correlation between D50 and quantity of bacteria. cor:

Pearson correlation coefficient for each bacterium.

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1042

Fig 5. Evaluation of HDΔAsn, HDΔPhe and HDΔCys contexts

(A) D_{50} of *yw*, DGRP-25210 and *w*[1118] larvae on HDΔAsn. Boxplots show minimum,

maximum and median. Each dot shows an independent replicate. GF *yw* larvae did

not reach pupariation. For the other two lines, we performed Kruskal-Wallis test

followed by post-hoc Dunn's tests to compare each gnotobiotic condition to GF. ns:

non-significant, **: p-value<0,005, ***: p-value<0,0005, ****: p-value<0,0001. (B)

Growth of Lp[NC8] in liquid HDΔPhe and liquid HDΔCys, in static conditions, 3 days

after inoculation. Plot shows mean with standard error. Each dot shows an

independent replicate. The dashed line represents the level of inoculation at t0 (10^4

CFUs per mL). (C) Growth of Lp[NC8] on solid HDΔCys, in absence and in presence of

larvae, 3 days and 6 days after inoculation. Plot shows mean with standard error.

Each dot represents an independent replicate. The dashed line represents the level

of inoculation at t0 (10^4 CFUs per tube). We performed two-ways ANOVA followed by

post-hoc Sidak's test. ns: non-significant, **: p-value<0,005.

1057

Fig 6. Ap[WJL] and Lp[NC8] can produce and release EAA[Fly] during growth

(A) HPLC measured concentration of Arg, His, Ile, Leu, Phe, Thr and Val in the

supernatant of an Ap[WJL] culture in HDΔArg, HDΔHis, HDΔIle, HDΔLeu, HDΔPhe,

HDΔThr, HDΔVal, respectively, 72h after inoculation. Plot shows mean with standard

error. Each dot shows an independent replicate. Each AA was not detected prior to

microbial growth (Table S7). (B) HPLC measured concentration of His in the

supernatant of a Lp[NC8] culture in HDΔHis, 72h after inoculation. Plot shows mean

with standard error. Each dot shows an independent replicate (53.08 μM, 52.82 μM

and 52.99 μM).

1067

Fig 7. Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} differentially shape the nutritional requirements of their juvenile host

For each gnotobiotic condition, essential nutrients are represented in black and non-essential nutrients in color. Color code: blue, this nutrient can be synthesized by the bacteria; red: this nutrient cannot be synthesized by the bacteria, suggesting a mechanism of functional compensation. In purple: lack of this nutrient may be compensated by an intermediate metabolite or a derivative produced by the bacteria.

Supporting Information

Figure S1: The Asn auxotrophy of the *yw* line is not due to mutations in *AsnS* gene.

Pairwise alignment of AsnS coding region sequenced from *D. melanogaster yw* and AsnS coding region from *D. melanogaster* reference genome, Bloomington #2057.

Figure S2: Lp^{NC8}Δ*dlt*$_{op}$, but not Ap^{WJL}::Tn*pqq*, show a loss-of-function of its intrinsic growth-promoting ability in HD.

D$_{50}$ (*i.e.* day when 50% of the larvae population has entered metamorphosis) of GF larvae and larvae associated with Ap^{WJL}, Ap^{WJL}::Tn*pqq*, Lp^{NC8} and Lp^{NC8}Δ*dlt*$_{op}$, reared on complete HD. We performed Kruskal-Wallis test followed by *post hoc* Dunn's tests to compare each gnotobiotic condition to GF. ns: non-significant, *: p-value<0,05, ****: p-value<0,0001.

Figure S3: Quantity of Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} on different HDs, in presence of larvae.

(A) Bacterial load per larva, at day 6 post-inoculation. Boxplots show minimum,

maximum and median. Each dot shows an independent replicate. (B) Load of Ap^{WJL}

and Lp^{NC8} in solid HD in presence of larvae, 3 days and 6 days after inoculation. Plot

shows mean with standard error based on three replicates by assay. Each dot

represents an independent replicate. The dashed line represents the level of

inoculation at t0 (10^4 CFUs per tube).

1098

1099 **Table S1:** Inference from genomic analysis of the biosynthetic capabilities for amino

1100 acids production in *D. melanogaster, A. pomorum*^{WJL} and *L. plantarum*^{NC8}. f / i:

1101 targeted amino acid biosynthesis is feasible / impossible in a depleted medium.

1102

1103 **Table S2:** Inference from genomic analysis of the biosynthetic capabilities for

1104 vitamins production in *D. melanogaster, A. pomorum*^{WJL} and *L. plantarum*^{NC8}. f / i:

1105 targeted vitamin biosynthesis is feasible / impossible in a depleted medium.

1106

1107 **Table S3:** OD_{Max} of Ap^{WJL} and Lp^{NC8} grown in 39 HDs. Mean and Standard Error to

1108 the Mean (SEM) of OD_{Max} reached by Ap^{WJL} or Lp^{NC8} grown in complete liquid HD

1109 (first line) or liquid HD lacking nutrient X (ΔX, lines below) during 72h of growth.

1110

Table S4: D_{50} of larvae in 40 HDs and 5 gnotobiotic conditions. Mean and Standard

Error of the Mean (SEM) of D_{50} (*i.e.* day when 50% of the larvae population has

entered metamorphosis) of GF larvae or larvae associated with Ap^{WJL}, Lp^{NC8},

Ap^{WJL}_{HK} and Lp^{NC8}_{HK}. n: number of independent replicates for each condition. For

each gnotobiotic condition, we performed Kruskal-Wallis test followed by post-hoc

Dunn's test to compare each nutritional environment to complete HD.

1117

Table S5: Egg-to-pupa survival in 40 HDs and 5 gnotobiotic conditions. Mean and

Standard Error of Mean (SEM) of egg-to-pupa survival of GF larvae or larvae

associated with Ap^{WJL}, Lp^{NC8}, Ap^{WJL}_{HK} and Lp^{NC8}_{HK}. n: number of independent

replicates for each condition. For each gnotobiotic condition, we performed Kruskal-

Wallis test followed by post-hoc Dunn's test to compare each nutritional environment

to complete HD.

1124

Table S6: Comparison of genome-based metabolic predictions with *in vivo*

auxotrophies and bacterial complementation of larval nutritional deficiencies. Can

partner A synthesize nutrient X?: prediction from automated annotation and

metabolic reconstruction (from Fig 1, Table S1 and Table S2). Can partner A grow in

the absence of nutrient X?: auxotrophy observed *in vivo* (from Fig 3A-B). Can

bacterial partner A promote larval growth on HD ΔX?: *in vivo* complementation of ex-

GF larvae requirements (from Fig 4A), y: yes (green), n: no (red). Hypothesis to

explain contradiction: why the different approaches do not always lead to the same

conclusion. NA: Non-applicable.

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1135 **Table S7:** All experimental data used to generate graphs of this manuscript.

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Figure 1

Legend: Biosynthetized amino acid or vitamin   Non-biosynthetized amino acid or vitamin   ✕ Red cross= Non-functional pathway (lack of key enzyme(s))

Limited amino acid or vitamin biosynthesis   Pathway intermediary metabolite   O☐ Orange nodes= Major metabolic pathways

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure S1

Developmental timing on complete HD

Figure S3

A

B