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Abstract. In vivo high-resolution magic angle spinning (HRMAS) proton magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) of Drosophila melanogaster at 14.1 T shows trauma in aging and in innate immune-deficiency is linked to reduced insulin signaling.

In vivo high-resolution magic angle spinning magnetic resonance spectroscopy of Drosophila melanogaster at 14.1 T shows trauma in aging and in innate immune-deficiency is linked to reduced insulin signaling

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Introduction

High-resolution magic angle spinning (HRMAS) proton magnetic resonance spectroscopy ($^1$H-MRS) is a novel non-destructive technique that substantially improves spectral line-widths and allows high-resolution spectra to be obtained from intact cells, cell culture tissues (1,2), and unprocessed tissue (3-7). HRMAS $^1$H-MRS has enabled us to investigate relationships between metabolites and cellular processes. For example, choline (Cho)-containing compounds involved in phospholipids metabolism and lipids, such as triglycerides, that are involved in apoptosis have been studied (8-11). Although 1D HRMAS $^1$H-MRS techniques can reveal a number of large well-resolved NMR signals, the advent of 2D NMR (12) spectroscopy enabled HRMAS $^1$H-MRS, which provides more detailed analysis and unequivocal assignment of overlapping resonances of biologically important metabolites in intact tissue samples (7,8,13-15). It has recently been suggested that an optimized adiabatic TOBSY (Total through Bond correlation Spectroscopy) (16) solid-state NMR pulse sequence for two-dimensional $^1$H-$^1$H homonuclear scalar-coupling mixing may reduce acquisition time and improve signal-to-noise (SNR) gain relative to its liquid-state
analogue TOCSY (TOtal Correlation SpectroscopY) (16). Nevertheless, to date, HRMAS 1H-MRS has only been performed \textit{ex vivo}.

\textit{In vivo} studies of 1H MRS combined with \textit{ex vivo} HRMAS 1H-MRS have revealed intramyocellular lipids (IMCLs) in rodents (11,17), while other \textit{ex vivo} HRMAS 1H-MRS studies have focused on lipid metabolism (18). Szczepaniak \textit{et al} demonstrated that IMCL stores could be quantified accurately in a clinical setting by 1H NMR spectroscopy \textit{in vivo} (19). Van der Graaf \textit{et al} reported recently that 1H MRS in humans shows an inverse correlation between IMCL content in human calf muscle and local glycogen synthesis rate (20). Another previous study has outlined the importance of these resonances as biomarkers of insulin resistance in type-2 diabetes patients and their offspring (21). IMCL content in the soleus muscle was found to be increased in insulin-resistant elderly patients, providing support for the hypothesis that an age-associated decline in mitochondrial function contributes to insulin resistance (22).

We anticipated that \textit{in vivo} HRMAS 1H-MRS might be a useful tool in \textit{Drosophila} since \textit{in vitro} MRS has been demonstrated to show metabolic effects of hypoxia (23) and temperature stress (24) in flies. \textit{Drosophila} is a useful model organism for investigating genetics and physiology as well as metabolism (25). Yet, with the exception of the recent study of the feasibility of \textit{in vivo} MRI in fruit flies (26), \textit{in vivo} MRS studies in \textit{Drosophila} have not been reported. Thus, we set out to develop an \textit{in vivo} HRMAS 1H-MRS methodology in \textit{Drosophila} for the first time, with the aim of advancing non-destructive \textit{in vivo} research approaches in \textit{Drosophila}. Such research would be particularly useful for assessing biomarkers of pathophysiology with the long-term goal of providing critical information that may direct novel therapeutic development.

We applied our newly developed \textit{in vivo} HRMAS 1H-MRS methodology in \textit{Drosophila} to a study designed to test the hypothesis that trauma and innate immunity is linked to reduced insulin signaling, a phylogenetically conserved pathway for regulation of glucose and lipid metabolism (27,28). This hypothesis was tested in traumatized aged flies as well as in flies with a disorder of the innate immune system using as controls \textit{Drosophila} adipokinetic hormone receptor (\textit{akhr}) mutant flies and chico mutant flies with mutations in insulin receptor substrate (IRS), a \textit{Drosophila} homolog of vertebrate IRS1-4, who overexpress triglycerides. Innate immunity deficient (\textit{imd}) flies were used to model immuno-compromised patients (i.e., due to old age, AIDS or cancer patients) whose pathophysiology, such as mitochondrial dysfunction, muscle wasting and increased susceptibility to infection, may be linked to insulin resistance. Lipid metabolites were measured in aged \textit{imd} flies subjected to traumatic injury, as well as in \textit{akhr} knockout and chico flies with a triglyceride overexpression phenotype, and compared to values obtained in young and aged wild-type (\textit{wt}) control flies, young \textit{imd} flies, and \textit{akhr} or chico genetic control flies.

\textbf{Materials and methods}

\textit{Drosophila} flies. We used \textit{Drosophila melanogaster} \textit{wt} Oregon-R and innate immuity mutants (\textit{imd}) flies (29). To test our hypothesis we used the following flies as controls: a) \textit{akhr\textsuperscript{null}} mutants with obese phenotype, and their genetic control strain flies (\textit{akhr\textsuperscript{+++}}) (30,31); and b) \textit{chico\textsuperscript{22}} flies, bearing two mutated alleles of the \textit{chico} gene, a \textit{Drosophila} homolog of vertebrate insulin receptor substrate 1-4 (IRS1-4) and their genetic control \textit{chico\textsuperscript{22}} flies (32). All flies were male. Young flies were 5-8-day-old, and old flies were 30-33-day-old. Each group consisted of 7 flies. Experiments were performed on: a) control healthy, intact flies; and b) traumatized flies, injured 24 h prior to HRMAS MRS measurement with thoracic non-lethal, needle puncture (33,34). Prior to insertion in the spectrometer, each fly was anesthetized by placing it on ice for <1 min. Flies were kept at 4°C while in the spectrometer. All traumatized flies were placed in the spectrometer 24 h after trauma and special care was taken to avoid inflicting further injury during moving in and out of the rotor. The flies weighed 0.7-1 mg at the time of experiment. All flies survived the \textit{1H} HRMAS MR spectroscopy experiment, which was completed in ~45 min per fly.

\textit{In vivo} HRMAS 1H-MR spectroscopy. All HRMAS 1H-MRS experiments were performed on a wide-bore Bruker Bio-Spin Avance NMR spectrometer (600.13 MHz) using a 4-mm triple resonance (1H, 13C, 1H) HRMAS probe (Bruker). The flies were placed into a zirconium oxide (ZrO\textsubscript{2}) rotor tube (4-mm diameter, 50 μl), and 8 μl of an external standard trimethylsilyl-propionic-2,2,3,3-d\textsubscript{4} acid (TSP, Mw=172, δ=0.00 ppm, 50 mM in D\textsubscript{2}O) solution were added that functioned as a reference for both resonance chemical shift and quantification. Each fly was placed in the rotor using the insert and the insert was closed with a screw and covered with parafilm to prevent the contact between the fly and the TSP/D\textsubscript{2}O solution (Fig. 1). The samples were secured and tightened in the rotors with a top cap (Bruker). The HRMAS 1H MRS was performed at 4°C with 2 kHz MAS.

One-dimensional (1D) water-suppressed spin-echo Carr-Purcell-Meiboom-Gill (CPMG) pulse sequence [90°-(τ\textsuperscript{CPMG})-90°-acquisition] (35) was performed on single flies. CPMG is a methodological improvement of particular interest in developing 1D HRMAS for intact tissue samples \textit{ex vivo}, in order to suppress broad signals that distort the linear baseline in typical Free Induction Decay (FID) spectra. Thus, the CPMG proton NMR spectra are free from the broad ‘rolling’ component that contributes to the baseline of the simple FID spectra. The CPMG sequence has also been applied to 2D sequences for the same reason. Additional parameters for the CPMG sequence included an inter-pulse delay of τ = 2τ\textsubscript{CPMG} = 250 μsec, a total spin-echo delay of 30 msec, a total number of 180° cycles 2, 256 transients, a spectral width of 7.2 kHz, 32,768 (32K) data points, and a 3-sec TR. The choice of a spin-echo delay of 30 msec, was based on the observation that at this echo-time we avoided line broadening without loss of signals from triglycerides. When we increased the spin-echo delay, this affected all lipid signals but not in favor of other metabolites.

We also performed 1D water presaturation Nuclear Overhauser Effect SpectroscopY (NOESY) (36,37). Acquisition parameters were: mixing time (t\textsubscript{mix}=70 and 100 msec), relaxation delay of 3 sec, 32 scans, 16 dummy scans, 32,768 (32K) data points.
Two-dimensional (2D) $^1$H-$^1$H HRMAS MRS single-fly spectra were acquired on all samples using a TOBSY sequence with adiabatic pulses (16). Acquisition parameters were: 2K data points direct dimension (11 ppm spectral width), 1-sec water pre-saturation during the relaxation delay, 8 scans per increment, 2-sec total repetition time, 45-msec mixing time, and a total acquisition time of 29 min. 2D $^1$H, $^{13}$C-heteronuclear single quantum coherence (HSQC) (38) spectra were acquired using an echo-time phase sensitive standard pulse sequence (hsqcedetgp) and 0.5-sec relaxation delay, 1.725 msec evolution time, 2 kHz spectra width in f2, 2K data point (Time Domain, TD), 128 scans for increment, 17 kHz spectra width in f1, 256 increments, heteronuclear scalar J (13C, 1H) coupling 145 Hz (CNST2), presaturation of water resonance, in combination with gradient selection, to suppress the water signal; total acquisition time 16 h.

In vivo $^1$H HRMAS MRS data processing. MR spectra of specimens were analyzed using MestReC software (Mestrelab Research, www.mestrec.com). A 0.5-Hz line-broadening apodization function was applied to CPMG HRMAS $^1$H FIDs prior to Fourier transformation (FT). MR spectra were referenced with respect to TSP at $\delta=0.0$ ppm (external standard), manually phased, and a Whittaker baseline estimator was applied to subtract the broad components of the baseline.

The parameters for processing the 2D TOBSY MR spectra were: QSINE=2 window function in both dimensions, FT with 2K points in the direct dimension and zero-filling to 1K in the second dimension, phase correction in both dimensions and baseline correction in the second dimension. The parameters for processing the 2D HSQC MR spectra were: QSINE=2 window function in both dimensions, FT with 2K points in the direct dimension and zero-filling to 512 in the second dimension, phase correction in both dimensions. Processing of all 2D MR spectra was completed using XWINNMR 3.5 software (Bruker Bruker Biospin Corp., Billerica, MA). To quantify and illustrate the 2D NMR spectra we used the Sparky program (T.D. Goddard and D.G. Kneller, SPARKY 3, USCF, http://www.cgl.ucsf.edu/home/sparky/).

Figure 1. Experimental set up of in vivo HRMAS $^1$H MRS for the investigation of live Drosophila at 14.1 T. External standard trimethylsilyl-propionic-2,2,3,3-d4 acid (TSP).

Figure 2. In vivo 1D HRMAS $^1$H CPMG spectra of: (A) young wt injured, (B) old wt injured, and (C) young imd injured flies. Lipid components: $\mathrm{CH}_3$ (0.89 ppm), (CH2)n (1.33 ppm), CH2C=C (1.58 ppm), acetate (Ac, 1.92 ppm), CH2C=C (2.02 ppm), CH2C=O (2.44 ppm), $\beta$-alanine ($\beta$-Ala, 2.55 ppm), phosphocholine (PC, 3.22 ppm), and phosphoethanolamine (PE, 3.22 ppm) glycerol (4.10, 4.30 ppm 1,3-CH; 5.22 ppm 2-CH2), CH=CH (5.33 ppm). The spectra in the insert are from the thorax of dissected flies and thus represent primarily skeletal muscle; note their similarity to spectra for whole flies. Shown spectra were normalized to TSP at each echo time and therefore do not exhibit T2 decay.

Quantification of metabolites from 1D CPMG spectra. For metabolite quantification, we used the ‘external standard’ technique, which provides highly accurate values. For the quantification, we used the 1D $^1$H CPMG HRMAS spectra. Metabolite concentrations were calculated using the MestReC software (Mestrelab Research, www.mestrec.com). An automated fitting routine based on the Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm (39,40) was applied after manual peak selection; peak positions, intensities, linewidths and Lorentzian/Gaussian ratios were adjusted until the residual spectrum was minimized. Metabolite concentration (mol/kg) was calculated using the following equation (41):

$$\frac{\text{mass}_{\text{met}} \times \text{PM}_{\text{met}} \times \text{Met}_{\text{area}} / \text{TSP}_{\text{area}} \times N_{\text{TSP}} / N_{\text{met}}}{\text{wt}}$$

where, mass$_{\text{met}}$ was constant (0.069 mg), PM$_{\text{met}}$ was the molecular weight of TSP (172.23 g/mol), Met signifies metabolites, N$_{\text{TSP}}$ was the TSP proton number (9 $^1$H), N$_{\text{met}}$ was the metabolite proton number, and wt was the sample weight in mg.

Quantification of metabolites from 2D TOBSY spectra. To quantify more metabolites, we used the ratio of the Cross Peak Volume of the Metabolites [CVP(M)] to the TSP Diagonal Peak Volume [DPV/TSP] as described previously (14). This ratio was further divided by sample weight (wt) to yield normalized metabolite intensity, $I_c$ = (1/wt) * CVP(M)/DPV(TSP).

Statistics. Statistical comparison was done using ANOVA with the Bonferroni correction to account for multiple of comparisons. A P-value of 0.05 (corrected) was used for significance and P-values are reported with two significant
Calculations were performed using SPSS (SPSS Inc.).

Results

Fig. 2 presents 1D 1H HRMAS CPMG spectra from young and aged wt flies as well as young imd flies that had been injured. Also shown (insert) is an 1D 1H HRMAS CPMG summed spectrum from the thorax of dissected flies; this spectrum represents primarily skeletal muscle because fly thorax is highly enriched in skeletal muscle and is similar to the spectra from whole flies (rest of the spectra shown herein). Principal lipid components [CH3 (0.89 ppm), (CH2)n (1.33 ppm), CH2C=CO (1.58 ppm), CH2C=CH (2.02 ppm), CH2C=O (2.24 ppm), CH=CH (5.33 ppm)], glycerol (4.10, 4.30 and 5.24 ppm), acetate (Ac, 1.92 ppm), β-alanine (β-Ala, 2.55 ppm), phosphocholine (PC, 3.22 ppm), and phosphoethanolamine (PE, 3.22 ppm) were detected in accordance with prior reports (11,42). Signals at 2.02 ppm were assigned to methylene protons of the CH2-CH=CH moiety of mono-unsaturated fatty acids (i.e. palmitoleic). Interestingly, we did not detect poly-unsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), and thus the signal at 2.78 ppm, attributable to the methylene protons between two double bonds (=C-CH2-C=) in poly-unsaturated acids, was not present. However, PUFAs were detectable in female flies (unpublished data). The unsaturated acids were identified by a signal at 5.33 ppm produced by protons of the -CH=CH- moiety.

In the NOESY experiments (data not shown) when we increased the mixing time (from 70 msec to 100 msec) the lipids components decreased but not in favor of small metabolites, in other words the lipid signals were attenuated, RIGHI et al: In vivo HRMAS MRS IN Drosophila

Table I. Chemical shift and quantity (μmol/g) of selected lipid components in live Drosophila from 1D CPMG measurements.

| Lipid components | CH3 | (CH2)n | CH2C=CO | CH2C=CH | CH2C=O | CH=CH |
|------------------|-----|--------|---------|---------|--------|-------|
|                  | 0.89 ppm | 1.33 ppm | 1.58 ppm | 2.02 ppm | 2.24 ppm | 5.33 ppm |
| wt               |       |        |         |         |        |       |
| Young Not injured | 0.14±0.01 | 1.17±0.10 | 0.050±0.008 | 0.13±0.01 | 0.090±0.009 | 0.07±0.02 |
| Young Injured    | 0.18±0.02 | 1.50±0.14 | 0.08±0.01 | 0.16±0.02 | 0.12±0.01 | 0.09±0.01 |
| % change         | 28.57 | 28.21 | 60.00 | 23.08 | 33.33 | 28.57 |
| P-value          | 0.30 | 0.080 | 0.33 | 0.19 | 0.26 | 0.64 |
| Young Not injured | 0.18±0.01 | 1.41±0.08 | 0.060±0.003 | 0.13±0.01 | 0.07±0.01 | 0.08±0.01 |
| Young Injured    | 0.27±0.03 | 2.10±0.25 | 0.16±0.08 | 0.24±0.06 | 0.13±0.03 | 0.13±0.02 |
| % change         | 50.0 | 48.94 | 166.67 | 84.62 | 85.71 | 62.50 |
| P-value          | 0.022* | 0.024* | 0.26 | 0.085 | 0.071 | 0.015* |
| Old Not injured  | 0.34±0.02 | 2.48±0.19 | 0.13±0.02 | 0.26±0.02 | 0.21±0.02 | 0.17±0.01 |
| Old Injured      | 0.38±0.04 | 2.56±0.26 | 0.15±0.01 | 0.27±0.03 | 0.22±0.02 | 0.19±0.02 |
| % change         | 11.76 | 3.23 | 15.38 | 3.85 | 4.76 | 11.76 |
| P-value          | 0.38 | 0.80 | 0.52 | 0.81 | 0.88 | 0.40 |
| imd              |       |        |         |         |        |       |
| Young Not injured | 0.34±0.02 | 2.48±0.19 | 0.13±0.02 | 0.26±0.02 | 0.21±0.02 | 0.17±0.01 |
| Young Injured    | 0.38±0.04 | 2.56±0.26 | 0.15±0.01 | 0.27±0.03 | 0.22±0.02 | 0.19±0.02 |
| % change         | 11.76 | 3.23 | 15.38 | 3.85 | 4.76 | 11.76 |
| P-value          | 0.38 | 0.80 | 0.52 | 0.81 | 0.88 | 0.40 |
| abhr             |       |        |         |         |        |       |
| Isogenic control | 0.13±0.02 | 1.01±0.13 | 0.05±0.01 | 0.11±0.01 | 0.06±0.01 | 0.06±0.01 |
| Knockout         | 0.35±0.05 | 2.67±0.38 | 0.14±0.02 | 0.26±0.04 | 0.19±0.03 | 0.12±0.01 |
| % change         | 169.23 | 164.36 | 180.00 | 136.36 | 216.67 | 100.00 |
| P-value          | 0.0015* | 0.0050* | 0.74 | 0.044* | 0.68 | 0.12 |
| chico            |       |        |         |         |        |       |
| Control          | 0.20±0.03 | 1.30±0.14 | 0.06±0.02 | 0.15±0.04 | 0.10±0.02 | 0.08±0.02 |
| Chico null       | 0.37±0.03 | 2.09±0.14 | 0.07±0.01 | 0.29±0.05 | 0.17±0.03 | 0.12±0.01 |
| % change         | 17.43 | 78.54 | 1.62 | 14.30 | 7.16 | 3.42 |
| P-value          | 0.0021* | 0.0024* | 0.53 | 0.046* | 0.077 | 0.10 |

Values are expressed as means ± standard errors (SE); % change = percent change; P-values were calculated using ANOVA with the Bonferroni correction to account for multiple comparisons; *statistical significance.

digits. Calculations were performed using SPSS (SPSS 12, SPSS Inc.).

Results

Fig. 2 presents 1D 1H HRMAS CPMG spectra from young and aged wt flies as well as young imd flies that had been injured. Also shown (insert) is an 1D 1H HRMAS CPMG summed spectrum from the thorax of dissected flies; this spectrum represents primarily skeletal muscle because fly thorax is highly enriched in skeletal muscle and is similar to the spectra from whole flies (rest of the spectra shown herein). Principal lipid components [CH3 (0.89 ppm), (CH2)n (1.33 ppm), CH2C=CO (1.58 ppm), CH2C=O (2.02 ppm), CH2C= (2.24 ppm), CH=CH (5.33 ppm)], glycerol (4.10, 4.30 and 5.24 ppm), acetate (Ac, 1.92 ppm), β-alanine (β-Ala, 2.55 ppm), phosphocholine (PC, 3.22 ppm), and phosphoethanolamine (PE, 3.22 ppm) were detected in accordance with prior reports (11,42). Signals at 2.02 ppm were assigned to methylene protons of the CH2–CH=CH moiety of mono-unsaturated fatty acids (i.e. palmitoleic). Interestingly, we did not detect poly-unsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), and thus the signal at 2.78 ppm, attributable to the methylene protons between two double bonds (=C–CH2–C=) in poly-unsaturated acids, was not present. However, PUFAs were detectable in female flies (unpublished data). The unsaturated acids were identified by a signal at 5.33 ppm produced by protons of the CH2–CH=CH moiety.

In the NOESY experiments (data not shown) when we increased the mixing time (from 70 msec to 100 msec) the lipids components decreased but not in favor of small metabolites, in other words the lipid signals were attenuated,
but this signal reduction was not in favor of smaller metabolites. Thus, the NOESY and CPMG findings were similar to each other.

In Table I, we report the chemical shifts obtained from 1D 1H CPMG MR spectra and the quantities of lipid components that characterized the flies in our study. Most lipid resonances were significantly elevated. Note that apart from the 1.33 ppm and other lipids, the ceramide derived olefinic protons (CH=CH at 5.33 ppm) were significantly increased after injury in wt and akhr flies (Table I). Injury did not significantly affect the metabolite profile of young wt flies (Table I). Injury, however, did affect the metabolic profile of aged wt flies was similar to the profile of old imd flies (Table I).

We measured the T2 of metabolites and TSP from 1D 1H CPMG spectra at different echo times (TE at 30, 60, 100, 300, 450 and 600 msec). Our results showed that the T2 decay rate of TSP (1,125±103 msec) is almost identical to that of CH3 group at 0.89 ppm (1,156±72 msec); moreover, the T2s of (CH2)n at 1.33 ppm (516±14 msec), CH2C=O at 2.02 ppm, CH=CH at 5.33 ppm (469±27 msec) were almost identical to each other and half of the T2 of TSP and CH3, CH2CO at 1.58 ppm (292±16 msec) and CH2CO at 2.24 ppm (265±16 msec). Even at an echo time of 600 msec, these peaks would not have totally decayed, meaning that TSP and lipid do not relax differently.

Metabolites that could not be assigned or were not visible using the 1D spectrum were detected using selected 2D experiments such as 2D TOBSY (Fig. 3), and HSQC (Fig. 4); and their assignment was confirmed by comparison with literature data. HSQC spectra revealed directly bonded carbon-proton pairs, thus enabling the assignment of singlets (which do not give correlations in homonuclear TOBSY spectra), and the discrimination among compounds having similar protons but diverse 13C chemical shifts. The experiments provided complete and unambiguous identification of the metabolic pattern characterizing Drosophila. The main mobile lipids and small metabolites are reported in Table II.

Representative in vivo 1D HRMAS 1H CPMG spectra of (A) adipokinetic hormone receptor mutant Drosophila akhrmut, and its isogenic control akhrrev (B). The (CH2)n lipids at 1.33 ppm and the CH2C=O lipids at 1.58 ppm attributed to both IMCLs and EMCLs were increased in the akhrmut mutant. Note: Shown spectra were normalized to TSP at each echo time and therefore do not exhibit T2 decay.
increase in both \((\text{CH}_2\text{n})\) lipids at 1.33 ppm and \(\text{CH}_2\text{C}=\text{O}\) lipids at 1.58 ppm, as well as increases in other lipids (Table I). The \textit{akhr\textsuperscript{null}} mutant flies also showed an increase in the amount of bonded glycerol (signals at 4.10, 4.30 and 5.24 ppm), with respect to the control \textit{akhrev} flies. On the other hand, \textit{chico} flies which are mutated at the insulin signaling pathway exhibited significantly increased lipid peaks at 0.89 ppm (CH\(_3\)), at 1.33 ppm (CH\(_2\text{n}\)) and also at 2.02 ppm (CH\(_2\text{C}=\)) with respect to the genetic control (Fig. 6, Table I).

### Discussion

In the present study, we demonstrate the implementation of a novel \textit{in vivo} HRMAS \(^1\text{H}\) NMR approach for detecting biologically important molecules. Specifically, we detected lipids and small metabolites in live \textit{Drosophila} at 14.1 T in ~45 min. Our results confirmed our expectations in that we were able to reduce acquisition time, thus achieving zero mortality. We introduced a novel \textit{in vivo} HRMAS \(^1\text{H}\)-MRS approach in \textit{Drosophila} which we used to test the hypothesis that trauma and innate immunity are linked to reduced insulin signaling, a phylogenetically conserved pathway for regulation of glucose and lipid metabolism (27,28).

The use of a rotor-synchronized WURST-8 adiabatic pulse (C\(_{915}\)) permitted us to obtain a satisfactory SNR and good resolution of tissue spectra relative to the use of an isotropic mixing pulse (MLEV-16), in agreement with previous studies (16,43). Our ability to use TOBSY to detect an improved metabolic profile of \textit{Drosophila} suggests that TOBSY used with 1D CPMG is well suited for simultaneous qualitative and quantitative analysis of metabolite concentrations and enables improved evaluation of metabolic dysfunction in \textit{Drosophila}.

Our \textit{in vivo} fly spectra compare well to other published \textit{in vivo} skeletal muscle spectra (11,44,45). All of these works show high amounts of lipids (in particular triglycerides). Other HRMAS reports on skeletal muscle show spectra with more metabolites (8,46). In our case, the samples and set conditions in our experiments were different, we used a small amount of sample (between 0.6 and 1.1 mg) and performed the experiment with a lower spin rate, which may
have an effect on spectral resolution. Since a single *Drosophila*
fly weighs ∼0.7-0.8 mg total body weight, the NMR-visible
non-lipid components are expected to contribute only a small
percentage to the total signal with concomitantly little
sensitivity of detection. Even spectra from the thorax of
dissected flies representing primarily skeletal muscle since
fly thorax is highly enriched in skeletal muscle are similar
to the spectra from whole flies (insert of Fig. 1). However,
as shown we were able to detect certain metabolites from the
1D experiment (Fig. 2) and then we improved and
confirmed our results using the 2D TOBSY experiment
(Fig. 3).

From a biomedical perspective, a principal finding of our
experiments was that mobile lipids accumulated in muscle
tissue in response to injury (Fig. 2). Although determining
the source of these accumulated lipids is beyond the scope of
this study, it has previously been shown that EMCLs, IMCLs,
and triglycerides can all contribute to cellular lipid peaks
(19,47,48). Indeed, EMCLs and IMCLs can be distinguished by
*vivo* MRS due to differences in bulk magnetic susceptibility
and geometric arrangements (49) and 1.33-ppm lipids have
been attributed to IMCLs whereas 1.58-ppm lipids have been
attributed to EMCLs. However, in our study this discrimina-
tion may not be possible. Spinning a sample at the magic
angle (HRMAS) with respect to the static field direction
averages the second-order tensors of the anisotropic chemical
shift, the dipolar interaction, and the susceptibility variations
in heterogeneous samples (50-52). Garroway (51) indicated
that MAS not only eliminates the broadening effect due to
magnetic susceptibility but also the shift itself. Later, Chen
*et al* (53) clarified that irrespective of the system geometry, MAS
removes only the anisotropic contribution of bulk susceptibility
inside an homogeneous susceptibility region. Inspecting the
isotropic part of the susceptibility tensors available for IMCLs
and EMCLs (47,54) we can deduce that under MAS conditions
IMCLs and EMCLs have the same chemical shift due to bulk
susceptibility.

IMCLs probably serve as an energy substrate for oxidative
metabolism (55), and can be mobilized and utilized with a
turnover times of several hours (56). In insects, triglycerides
are located in body fat (57-59) and are used both for energy
storage and for storage of fatty acid precursors, such as
transported lipids, phospholipids (membrane structure),
hydrocarbons, and wax esters (minimize water loss from the
cuticle due to evaporation) (60). In our study, mobility of fat
body contents may have been affected by trauma or immune
status, thus giving rise to increased IMCL and EMCL signals
(61). However, this is only speculation as the intracellular
signaling cascade mediating mobilization of triglycerides has
not been as fully elucidated in insects as it has in mammals
(30). Nevertheless, we propose that there was mobilization of
triglycerides in the *akhr* flies because the peaks indicative of
triglycerides at 1.33 ppm and 1.58 ppm were increased
(Table I). The significant increase in triglycerides (both due
to IMCLs and EMCLs) detected in the *akhr* mutants is in
agreement with their obese phenotype and abnormal
accumulation of both lipids and carbohydrates (62,63). Indeed,
elevated IMCL levels are associated with insulin resistance,
a major metabolic dysfunction of diabetes (64,65), aging
(66,67), burn trauma (68-70) and obesity (71).

Previous measurements of muscle triglyceride content by
biopsy and IMCL content by 1H NMR spectroscopy have
shown a strong relationship between intramuscular fat
content and insulin resistance in muscle. While increased
fatty acid delivery from lipolysis could also produce the
observed IMCL increase, free fatty acid concentrations may
be highly variable in traumatized patients (72). Also, impaired
lipoprotein and PUFa metabolism occurs in the early post-
trauma period, implicating their involvement in subsequent
healing and immune function. The presently observed IMCL
increase, however, was not accompanied by evidence of
detectable PUFAs in our experiments. According to Chertemps
*et al* (73), however, elongase involved in the hydrocarbon
biosynthesis of sex pheromones (which is a long-chain
hydrocarbon but shorter in females by one double carbon
bond) may be absent or present in very low amounts in male
flies. Thus, the absence of PUFa in our data may be related
to our use of male flies. Previous genomic (74) and gene
expression data in human diabetes (75) suggest that increased
IMCL levels could be the result of decreased mitochondrial
oxidative capacity. Increased IMCL levels have also been
reported to be associated with insulin resistance in type 2
diabetes, suggesting reduced mitochondrial oxidation and
phosphorylation.

Interestingly, we observed a marked increase in the same
peaks at 1.33 ppm and 1.58 ppm in injured, aged *wt* flies,
which can also be attributed to mobilization of triglycerides.
Thus, metabolism of body fat in the aged injured flies may be
similar to that in *akhr* obese phenotype flies (31). These
observations suggest that *Drosophila* could be a useful model
not only for studying aging but also obesity. Nevertheless, they
do not clearly indicate whether the increase of triglycerides is
attributed to insulin resistance, which is not only associated
with obesity (76,77) but also with trauma.

On the other hand, our observations of significantly
increased peaks indicative of triglycerides at 1.33 ppm in
*chico* flies (Table I) suggest that *Drosophila* could be also a
useful model for studying insulin signaling since these flies
with mutation in insulin receptor substrate (IRS), a
*Drosophila* homolog of vertebrate IRS1-4, indeed show
substantial increase in triglycerides (32,78) due to a mutated
insulin signaling pathway (27), which causes reduced
signaling through this pathway and insulin resistance.
Clearly, in the *chico* flies the increase at 1.33-ppm peak is
due to IMCLs and not due to EMCLs since these flies are not
reported to be obese. Interestingly, the *chico* flies do not exhibit
significantly increased 1.58-ppm peaks which are frequently
attributed to EMCLs. It is anticipated that the *chico* flies
should not have increased EMCLs since they are dwarf flies
and not obese. Thus, it may be, in spite of the theoretical
considerations of HRMAS, that the lipids that give rise to the
peak at 1.33 ppm are due primarily to IMCLs whereas the
lipids that give rise to the peak at 1.58 ppm are primarily due
to EMCLs. In any case, the *chico* flies are the proper control
for the aged-traumatized and immune-deficient flies, which
also exhibit increased triglycerides, evidently due to increased
IMCLs and not due to EMCLs since they are not obese,
and thus not expected to have increased EMCLs. The aged
traumatized and immune-deficient flies show a very similar
metabolic profile to the *chico* flies by exhibiting significantly
increased lipids at 0.89 and 1.33 ppm, which suggests derangements in the insulin signaling pathway and possibly insulin resistance observed in mammals. On the other hand, the *akhr* flies exhibit a metabolic profile with significantly increased peaks in all assigned lipids, which agrees with their obese phenotype.

Another principal finding of our experiments was that ceramide accumulated in aged injured, or obese flies (Table I and Fig. 3). Ceramide accumulation decreases insulin stimulated GLUT4 translocation to the plasma membrane and, consequently, decreases glucose transport (79), resulting in insulin resistance. Honjo and co-workers demonstrated that saturated fatty acids (such as palmitoleic acid, signal at 2.02 ppm in our study) induce de novo synthesis of ceramide and programmed cell death (79). They suggested that inhibition of carnitine palmitoyltransferase I activity induced both sphingolipid synthesis and palmitate-induced cell death. Meanwhile, Ruddock et al. (80) suggested that long chain saturated fatty acids (palmitoleic acid C16:0) inhibit insulin action and attenuate insulin signal transduction in hepatoma cell lines. Their work suggests that an increase in palmitoleic acid signifies insulin resistance. If so, the signal at 2.02 ppm in our study may also be a biomarker of insulin resistance and this peak was increased in aged *imd, akhr* and *chico* flies (Table I).

Finally, from a biomedical perspective, the findings of this study support the hypothesis that trauma and innate immunity are linked to insulin signaling and suggest that IMCL may be a biomarker of insulin resistance in injury, aging, obesity and immuno-deficiency. Insulin resistance has been suggested to develop following critical illness and severe injury (76). Whether IMCL is an instigator or a marker of insulin resistance is currently a topic of debate (81). Insulin resistance has not been previously demonstrated in flies using currently available assays. Furthermore, direct links between innate immune deficiency and signaling which lead to insulin resistance in mammals, as suggested in this study, have not been made previously, with the exception of a recent study of biological data in *Drosophila* that confirm our HRMAS findings (82). The common characteristics shared among innate immunity activation, obesity, and insulin resistance, as recently described, also support the findings of this study.

In conclusion, we demonstrated that a novel solid-state HRMAS TOBSY NMR method is a sensitive tool in the molecular characterization of metabolic perturbations in *Drosophila*. We observed increased levels of triglycerides in injury, innate immunity, aging and obesity that may be indicative of insulin resistance. These findings may thus be directly relevant to the mitochondrial dysfunction and muscle wasting that occur in trauma, aging and immune system deficiencies that lead to heightened susceptibility in infection. Our approach advances the development of novel in *vivo* non-destructive research approaches in *Drosophila*, offers biomarkers to investigate biomedical paradigms, and thus may direct novel therapeutic development.

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