Insulin-like Signaling Promotes Glial Phagocytic Clearance of Degenerating Axons through Regulation of Draper

Derek T. Musashe
Oregon Health and Science University

Let us know how access to this document benefits you.

Follow this and additional works at: https://escholarship.umassmed.edu/oapubs

Part of the Molecular and Cellular Neuroscience Commons

Repository Citation
Musashe DT, Purice MD, Speese SD, Doherty JE, Logan MA. (2016). Insulin-like Signaling Promotes Glial Phagocytic Clearance of Degenerating Axons through Regulation of Draper. Open Access Publications by UMass Chan Authors. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2016.07.022. Retrieved from https://escholarship.umassmed.edu/oapubs/2926

Creative Commons License
This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 License.
This material is brought to you by eScholarship@UMassChan. It has been accepted for inclusion in Open Access Publications by UMass Chan Authors by an authorized administrator of eScholarship@UMassChan. For more information, please contact Lisa.Palmer@umassmed.edu.
**Cell Reports**

**Insulin-like Signaling Promotes Glial Phagocytic Clearance of Degenerating Axons through Regulation of Draper**

Graphical Abstract

**Authors**
Derek T. Musashe, Maria D. Purice, Sean D. Speese, Johnna Doherty, Mary A. Logan

**Correspondence**
loganm@ohsu.edu

**In Brief**
Musashe et al. find that the insulin-like signaling (ILS) pathway is stimulated in local glia after nerve axotomy thus upregulating expression of the engulfment receptor gene *draper* in a STAT92E-dependent manner. Activation of the ILS/Draper pathway is required for proper glial clearance of degenerating axonal debris.

**Highlights**
- InR and Akt are activated in ensheathing glia after axotomy
- InR/Akt signaling is required for upregulation *draper*
- InR/Akt induction of *draper* is required for glial clearance of degenerating axons
Insulin-like Signaling Promotes Glial Phagocytic Clearance of Degenerating Axons through Regulation of Draper

Derek T. Musashe,1 Maria D. Purice,1 Sean D. Speese,1 Johnna Doherty,2 and Mary A. Logan1,*

1Department of Neurology, Jungers Center for Neurosciences Research, Oregon Health and Science University, 3181 S.W. Sam Jackson Park Road, Portland, OR 97239, USA
2Department of Molecular, Cell and Cancer Biology, University of Massachusetts Medical School, 55 North Lake Avenue, Worcester, MA 01605, USA
*Correspondence: loganm@ohsu.edu
http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2016.07.022

SUMMARY

Neuronal injury triggers robust responses from glial cells, including altered gene expression and enhanced phagocytic activity to ensure prompt removal of damaged neurons. The molecular underpinnings of glial responses to trauma remain unclear. Here, we find that the evolutionarily conserved insulin-like signaling (ILS) pathway promotes glial phagocytic clearance of degenerating axons in adult Drosophila. We find that the insulin-like receptor (InR) and downstream effector Akt1 are acutely activated in local ensheathing glia after axotomy and are required for proper clearance of axonal debris. InR/Akt1 activity, it is also essential for injury-induced activation of STAT92E and its transcriptional target draper, which encodes a conserved receptor essential for glial engulfment of degenerating axons. Increasing Draper levels in adult glia partially rescues delayed clearance of severed axons in glial InR-inhibited flies. We propose that ILS functions as a key post-injury communication relay to activate glial responses, including phagocytic activity.

INTRODUCTION

Glial cells are highly sensitive to changes in neuronal health and respond swiftly to diverse forms of neural trauma. Acute injury triggers robust responses in glia, including altered gene expression, glial infiltration of damaged areas, and glial clearance of degenerating neurons through phagocytic engulfment (Logan and Freeman, 2007; MacDonald et al., 2006; Napoli and Neumann, 2009). Many of these reactive glial responses are neuroprotective. Impaired glial clearance of damaged axons and myelin can inhibit axonal regeneration after neural injury and provoke inflammation (Akiyama et al., 2000; Bamberger and Landreth, 2002; Glezer et al., 2007). Finally, there is growing evidence that defects in glial immunity are coupled to the onset and progression of numerous degenerative diseases (Giunti et al., 2014; Hamby and Sofroniew, 2010; Scuderi et al., 2013). As a result, there is intense interest in elucidating the molecular and cellular features of glial immunity that govern how glia sense and respond to neuronal stress and damage, including the extrinsic injury cues that rapidly activate robust intrinsic immune response programs in glia.

Drosophila is a powerful model for investigating fundamental aspects of neurodegeneration and glial responses to neural damage (Ayaz et al., 2008; Cantera and Barrio, 2015; Etchebarry et al., 2016; Fang and Bonini, 2012; Freeman et al., 2003; Kato et al., 2011; Lee and Sun, 2015; Logan and Freeman, 2007; Liu et al., 2015; Mishra et al., 2013; Rooney and Freeman, 2014; Ugur et al., 2016). Axotomy in adult flies elicits glial reactions that share many cellular hallmarks with mammalian glia responding to neurodegeneration, including altered morphology and increased phagocytic function (Kurant 2011; Logan and Freeman, 2007). Notably, conserved molecules essential for glial engulfment activity are conserved, including the Draper/MEGF10 receptor, which signals through a tyrosine-based activation motif (ITAM)/Src tyrosine kinase signaling cascade to regulate phagocytic removal of degenerating axons and apoptotic neurons (Chung et al., 2013; Logan et al., 2012; MacDonald et al., 2006; Scheib et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2009). In Drosophila, olfactory nerve axotomy triggers upregulation of Draper in local ensheathing glial cells, which is essential for efficient glial clearance of axonal debris (Doherty et al., 2014; Logan et al., 2012; MacDonald et al., 2006), but little is known about the upstream signals that trigger upregulation of Draper or other innate immune genes in responding glia.

The insulin-like signaling (ILS) pathway is a critical regulator of energy homeostasis, cellular growth, and cell survival during embryonic and postnatal development (Barbieri et al., 2003; Broughton and Partridge, 2009; Puig and Mattila, 2011). This highly conserved pathway is initiated by activation of the insulin receptor (IR) or insulin-like growth factor (IGF) receptors in vertebrates and the homologous insulin-like receptor (InR) in Drosophila to trigger downstream signaling cascades that modulate a range of molecular and cellular events, including transcription, translation, and autophagy. ILS is...
essential for development, but there is growing evidence that ILS also plays important roles in the mature brain. Boosting serum IGF-1 levels protects against various insults, including kainic acid injection (Miltiadous et al., 2010) and hypoxic-ischemic injury (Guan et al., 1993). Conversely, pharmacological inhibition of IGF-1 results in greater neuronal death after trauma (Carro et al., 2003; Guan et al., 2003), as well as faster cognitive decline in neurodegenerative disease models (Carro et al., 2006; Torres-Aleman, 2007). ILS may support functional integrity and survival of neurons in diverse contexts, but the mechanisms of ILS-mediated neuroprotection are not well understood.

Here, we show that activity of the insulin-like receptor (InR) and the downstream effector Akt1 are upregulated in ensheathing glia following olfactory nerve axotomy in Drosophila and are required for proper glial clearance of degenerating axonal debris. Inhibition of glial InR inhibits STAT92E-dependent transcriptional upregulation of draper after axon injury and also prevents recruitment of the Draper receptor to degenerating axons. We also show that dense core vesicle release from severed axons may be required for proper InR activation in local ensheathing glia. Our results implicate ILS as key signaling relay that promotes glial engulfment activity in response to axotomy through activation of STAT92E/Draper.

RESULTS

Glia InR Signaling Is Required for Glial Phagocytic Clearance of Severed Axons in the Adult Drosophila Brain

In an ongoing in vivo screen to identify genes required for glial engulfment of degenerating axons (Table S1), we found that RNAi against the serine/threonine kinase Akt1 (UAS-Akt1RNAi) in adult glia inhibited glial clearance of severed olfactory receptor neuron axons. We used flies that expressed membrane-tethered GFP in a subset of maxillary palp olfactory receptor neurons (ORNs) (OR85e-mCD8::GFP, tub-Gal80ts/++; repo-Gal4), as well as the pan-glial driver repo-Gal4, InRex15/UAS-Dominant-Negative InR, InRex15 (OR85e-mCD8::GFP, tub-Gal80ts/++; repo-Gal4, InRex15/UAS-InRex15), AktRNAi (OR85e-mCD8::GFP, tub-Gal80ts/++; repo-Gal4, InRex15/UAS-AktRNAi). See also Figure S1.
Figure 2. InR and Akt1 Are Acutely Activated in Local Glia Responding to Axon Injury

(A) Single confocal slice images of the antennal lobe region in uninjured, antennal nerve axotomized, and maxillary nerve axotomized animals. Phospho-InR signal (magenta) overlaps with GFP-labeled glial membranes (green) expanding after antennal nerve axotomy (white arrowheads) or accumulating on severed maxillary glomeruli post-maxillary nerve axotomy (white arrowheads). Insets: magnified view of outlined area (yellow rectangle).

(B) Phospho-InR signal in the dorsal half of antennal lobes was quantified after computationally segmenting to GFP (antennal injury in A). N ≥ 20 for each condition.

(C) Quantification of phospho-InR signal in OR85e-innervated glomeruli in (A) (maxillary injury). N ≥ 16 for each condition.

(D) Single confocal slice images of antennal lobes. Phospho-Akt (magenta) intensity is increased in ensheathing glia (green) responding to antennal (white arrowheads, middle panels) or maxillary nerve injury (lower panels). Insets: magnification of yellow boxed areas.

(legend continued on next page)
in adult glia significantly inhibited glial engulfment of OR85e
axonal debris (Figures 1B and 1C). We screened candidate
RNAi lines against receptors known to signal via Akt-dependent
cascades and discovered that knockdown of the insulin-like rec-
ceptor (InR) with UAS-InR\textsuperscript{RNAi} phenocopied the Akt\textsuperscript{I RNAi}
clearance phenotype. Significantly more GFP\textsuperscript{+} axonal debris was pre-
sent in glial InR\textsuperscript{RNAi}-expressing brains 4 days after axotomy
(white arrowheads in Figures 1D and 1E). To complement our
RNAi analysis, we independently inhibited InR activity by ex-
pressing a dominant-negative version (UAS-dnInR) (Demontis
and Perrimon, 2009) and similarly observed impaired glial clear-
ance of GFP\textsuperscript{+} debris post-injury (Figures 1D and 1E). These ma-
nipulations were performed in a InR heterozygous mutant back-
ground (InR\textsuperscript{ex15}) (Song et al., 2003), because it is well established
that numerous compensatory mechanisms exist to strengthen
ILS activity when inhibited (Ferguson et al., 2012; Kannan and
Fridell, 2013; Marr et al., 2007). Efficacy of Gaß0\textsuperscript{C2/B}Ga4 temporal
regulation was confirmed by testing each genotype maintained
at 18°C (Figures S1A–S1D). Importantly, we also confirmed
that delayed glial clearance of OR85e axonal debris was rescued in
glial Akt\textsuperscript{RNAi} and glial InR\textsuperscript{RNAi} animals with expression of UAS-
Akt1 (Wang et al., 2011) or UAS-InR (Martin-Peña et al., 2006)
(Figures S1E–S1H). Together, these results reveal that InR/Akt1
activity is required in adult glia for proper phagocytic clearance of
degenerating axons after injury.

**InR and Akt1 Activity Is Increased in Local Glia after ORN
Axotomy**

Basal changes in ILS can alter the metabolic state of cells but
activation of ILS cascades also serve as local signaling relays
to intrinsically alter events such as transcription, translation and/or cell motility (Fernandez and Torres-Alemán, 2012;
Gu et al., 2014; Hua et al., 2009; Luckhart and Riehle, 2007).
To determine if InR activity is altered in local glia following olfactory nerve axotomy, we took advantage of a
well-characterized phospho-specific InR antibody that recog-
nizes the activated form of Drosophila InR (Root et al., 2008).
We used flies that transgenically expressed membrane-teth-
ered GFP in glia, performed bilateral antennal nerve axotomy and
then stained brains with anti-phospho-InR and anti-GFP
at various time points after axotomy. Within 24 hr, glial cells
surrounding the antennal lobes expand their membrane as
they invade the antennal neuropil (MacDonald et al., 2006)
(Figure 2A). We also observed a striking increase in phos-
pho-InR signal on these glial membranes (Figures 2A and 2B).
Maxillary nerve axotomy severs a smaller cohort (~20%) of ORNs that project into the antennal lobes, but this still elicited a significant increase in phospho-InR signal
at sites where glial membranes were accumulating on degen-
erating maxillary axons (Figures 2A and 2C). Similarly, we
detected a significant increase in phosphorylated Akt1 (phos-
pho-Akt1) levels in ensheathing glia responding to antennal
or maxillary nerve axotomy (Figures 2D–2F). Our findings sug-
gest that InR/Akt1 activity increases in activated antennal
lobe glia within 1 day after axon injury, supporting the notion
that the ILS pathway functions as a local injury communica-
cascade required for proper innate glial immune responses to
axon degeneration.

**InR Signaling Is Required for Axotomy-Induced
Upregulation and Recruitment of Glial Draper to Injury
Sites**

The Draper receptor is essential for glial clearance of severed
ORN axons (Logan et al., 2012; MacDonald et al., 2006). draper
is transcriptionally upregulated in local glia within hours after
injury, and ~24 hr later, robust accumulation of Draper protein
is visible on olfactory glomeruli that contain degenerating axons
(Doherty et al., 2014, Logan et al., 2012; MacDonald et al., 2006).
We wondered if InR signaling might regulate phagocytic activity
of glia by influencing Draper levels. First, we compared basal
levels of Draper in central brain lysates of control flies compared
to dnInR or InR\textsuperscript{RNAi}-expressing flies and found no difference in
basal Draper levels (Figures 3A and 3B). Instead, we found that
Draper accumulation on degenerating OR85e axons was
dramatically reduced 1 day after maxillary nerve injury when
adult glia were depleted of InR (arrowheads in Figures 3C and
3D). This phenotype did not result from glial cell death as we de-
ected no change in the number of Repo\textsuperscript{+} nuclei in the central
brain region following 10 days of InR\textsuperscript{RNAi} expression (Figures
S3A and S3B), and gross glial morphology appeared normal
when InR activity was inhibited in adult glia for 10 days (Fig-
ure S3C). Finally, to confirm specificity of our RNAi constructs,
we confirmed that reduced Draper recruitment was reversed in
glial InR\textsuperscript{RNAi} and Akt1\textsuperscript{RNAi} following expression of UAS-InR or
UAS-Akt1, respectively (Figures S4B–S4E).

Next, we performed qPCR for draper-I transcript on dissected
central brains from uninjured flies and 3 hr post-axonotomy. There are three predicted splice variants of draper, Draper-I is the acti-
vating form essential for glial phagocytic activity in adults (Logan
et al., 2012). As previously reported (Logan et al., 2012), draper-I
was significantly increased after antennal nerve axotomy in con-
trol animals; however, draper-I was not upregulated in dnInR-ex-
pressing flies (Figure 3E). Surprisingly, basal levels of draper-I
transcript were not altered by inhibition of glial InR (2-\textsuperscript{dCt})
values in uninjured control and uninjured dnInR were 0.01908 ±
0.00155 and 0.01614 ± 0.000859, respectively; p = 0.22). The
Draper promoter contains several binding sites for the STAT92E
transcription factor, which are required for injury-induced upregulation of draper (Doherty et al., 2014). Activation of a
10XSTAT-dGFP in vivo reporter, which contains ten tandem
STAT92E binding sites driving expression of destabilized GFP
(dGFP), mirrors Draper upregulation in local ensheathing glia
following olfactory nerve axotomy (Doherty et al., 2014). Consis-
tent with our finding that ILS is required to upregulate draper in
ghia after axon injury, we found that activation of the 10XSTAT-
dGFP reporter was largely inhibited 24 hr post-axonotomy in adult

(E) Quantification of phospho-Akt signal in dorsal antennal lobes after computationally segmenting to GFP. N ≥ 18 for each condition.
(F) Quantification of phospho-Akt signal in OR85e-innervated glomeruli in (D) (bottom panels). N ≥ 20 for each condition. **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001.
Pooled data plotted as mean ± SEM. All image scale bars, 20 μm. Genotypes: UAS-mCD8::GFP, repo-Ga4/+. See also Figure S2.
glia depleted of InR or Akt1 (Figure 3F). Together, these results suggest that basal InR signaling does not appreciably influence glial Draper levels at the transcriptional or protein level but instead is essential for activation of a STAT92E-dependent transcriptional program to upregulate the phagocytic receptor gene draper at times when glial phagocytic loads are high.

**Activation of Glial InR Is Sufficient to Raise Draper Levels**

To determine if activation of the ILS could alter Draper expression levels in adult glia, we used tubulin-Gal80ts combined with the repo-Gal4 driver to express a constitutively active form of the InR (UAS-InRdel, referred to below as calnR) (Werz et al., 2009) specifically in adult glia for 24 hr prior to and after maxillary nerve axotomy (by shifting flies to 30 °C). We found that, even in the absence of injury, expression of calnR resulted in significantly higher levels of basal Draper in the central brain region (p < 0.001) (Figures 3G and 3H) and significantly higher levels of Draper on maxillary palpal glomeruli that contained degenerating axons 1 day after axotomy (p < 0.001) (Figures 3G and 3I), further supporting InR signaling as a positive regulator of Draper in adult glial cells.

**Forced Expression of draper Reverses Glial Clearance Defects in InR Knockdown Animals**

Upregulation of innate immunity factors, including engulfment receptors, occurs in many activated phagocytes; this provides a positive feedback loop that ensures an adequate number of receptors are available to recognize engulfment targets and efficiently shuttle them through phagolyssosomal destruction pathways (Kingsolver et al., 2013; A-Gonzalez and Hidalgo, 2014; Doherty et al., 2014). Because our findings indicated that InR is required for glial cells to upregulate Draper as phagocytic demands increase in response to local axon degeneration, we wondered if boosting glial Draper levels might reverse axon clearance defects in InR/Akt1-inhibited flies. We expressed UAS-InRRNAi and UAS-draper-I in adult glia under the control of repo-Gal4 and tubulin-Gal80ts in flies that also carried OR85e-mCD8::GFP. Notably, overexpression of Draper-I in a glial InRRNAi background partially restored clearance of degenerating axons 4 days post-axotomy (p < 0.0001) (Figures 3J–3L). Conversely, we also used a well-characterized RNAi transgenic line to knockdown Draper (UAS-DraperRNAi) in glial cells (MacDonald et al., 2006; Doherty et al., 2009; Logan et al., 2012) while also overexpressing calnR and then assessed clearance of severed OR85e axons. Notably, we found that inhibiting Draper expression was sufficient to block clearance of axonal debris, despite activating glial ILS (p < 0.0001) (Figures 3M and 3N). Taken together, our data suggest that glial InR/Akt1 activity promotes proper phagocytic clearance of damaged axons through STAT92E-dependent transcription of the engulfment receptor Draper.

**ILS Is Required in Adult Ensheathing Glia and Not Astrocytes for Proper Clearance of ORN Axonal Debris**

In the adult CNS, neuropil regions, including the antennal lobes, contain two major glial subtypes: ensheathing glia, which enwrap projections, and astrocytes (Awasaki et al., 2008; Doherty et al., 2009; Edwards and Meinertzhagen, 2010; Omoto et al., 2015). Draper is expressed in ensheathing glia, as well as the cell body glia that surround neuronal cell bodies in the cortex of the brain, but is not detectable in adult astrocytes (Doherty et al., 2009). To determine if ILS activity is increased in ensheathing glia and/or astrocytes following ORN axotomy, we expressed membrane-tethered GFP (UAS-mCD8::GFP) in astrocytes with alrm-Gal4 (Doherty et al., 2009) or in ensheathing glia with TIFR-Gal4 (Yao et al., 2007; Ziegensfuss et al., 2012) and immunostained for phospho-InR 18 hr after antennal nerve axotomy. We found that the increased phospho-InR signal largely overlapped...
Figure 4. InR Is Required in Ensheathing Glia, Not Astrocytes, for Proper Clearance of Degenerating Axonal Debris

(A) Representative confocal images of single antennal lobes. Brains immunostained with anti-phospho-InR (magenta) reveal little overlap between increased InR activity (white arrowheads) and astrocyte membranes labeled with mCD8::GFP (green).

(B) Zoomed image of region outlined in (A) (white box).

(C) Representative confocal images of single antennal lobes. Brains immunostained with anti-phospho-InR (magenta) reveal little overlap between increased InR activity (white arrowheads) and ensheathing glial membranes labeled with mCD8::GFP (green).

(D) Zoomed image of region outlined in (C) (white box).

(E) Representative confocal images of single antennal lobes. Brains immunostained with anti-phospho-InR (magenta) reveal little overlap between increased InR activity (white arrowheads) and astrocyte membranes labeled with mCD8::GFP (green).

(F) Graph showing Axonal debris remaining (normalized to uninjured) for different conditions.

(legend continued on next page)
with ensheathing glial membranes and not astrocytic membranes (Figures 4A and 4B, white arrowheads). Next, we expressed dnInR in each subtype and assessed clearance of GFP-labeled OR85 axons after maxillary nerve axotomy and, importantly, found that significantly more axonal debris persisted following ensheathing glial, but not astrocyte, expression of dnInR (Figures 4E and 4F). Together, these results indicate that InR activity is specifically required in ensheathing glia and may be selectively increased in this particular glial subtype after axon injury to drive Draper-dependent engulfment of degenerating axons in the adult brain.

**Dense Core Vesicles Are Distributed along Adult Olfactory Receptor Neuron Axons**

The *Drosophila* InR can be activated by eight unique insulin-like peptide (ilp) ligands (ilp1–ilp8) (Garelly et al., 2012; Grönke et al., 2010). Several neuropeptides are expressed in adult antennal lobes (Carlsson et al., 2010), and transcripts for ilp6 and ilp8 have been detected in adult ORNs (Menuz et al., 2014). Moreover, ilp4 is detectable by immunostaining in the adult brain, including the antennal lobes (Grönke et al., 2010). We wondered if severed ORN axons might release ilps to activate InR on ensheathing glia. First, we employed a common strategy to visualize neuropeptide distribution in ORN axons before and after axotomy. Neuropeptides, including ilps, are packaged into dense core vesicles (DCVs) for release. Atrial natriuretic factor (ANF)-tagged to GFP (ANF::GFP) is loaded into and released from DCVs along with endogenous neuropeptides, and reductions in ANF::GFP-positive vesicles track with high levels of neuropeptide release (Husain and Ewer, 2004; Rao et al., 2001). We used OR22a-Gal4 to express ANF::GFP in antennal ORNs and imaged uninjured and injury brains. ANF::GFP was highly enriched at synaptic terminals in OR22a glomeruli (Figure 5A, brackets). We also observed discrete GFP+ puncta along the length of the axons (arrows). We observed a 65% reduction in ANF::GFP+ vesicles along OR22a axonal tracts 30 min after antennal nerve axotomy (Figure 5A), suggesting that DCVs are released from injured axons shortly after injury.

**amontillado and Cadps Are Required in ORNs For Glial InR Activation and Draper Upregulation after Injury**

To identify additional insulin-like peptides (ilps) expressed in adult ORNs, we performed RT-PCR for ilps1–7 on RNA isolated from the third antennal segments of adult *Drosophila*, which houses all of the antennal ORN cell bodies (~1,200). We detected transcripts for all seven ilps, with the exception of ilp5 (Figure 5B). Next, we knocked down the expression of each ilp ligand in ORNs by expressing dsRNA with the pan-ORN driver orco-Gal4 (Larsson et al., 2004). Although we observed a trend toward attenuated Draper upregulation after olfactory nerve axotomy in some genotypes, these results were not statistically significantly (not shown).

Notably, there are robust compensatory mechanisms in place to boost the activity of ILS in flies when suppressed. One notable strategy is to raise the levels of one or more ilp ligands when the expression of other ilps is genetically inhibited (Broughton et al., 2008; Sousa-Nunes et al., 2011; Wigby et al., 2011). Thus, we took an alternative approach to broadly inhibit ilps/neuropeptides in ORNs. Ilps, like many neuropeptides, are initially formed as inactive precursors, which require proteolytic processing to form biologically active ligands. We tested two different RNAi lines that target unique regions of subtilisin-like proprotein convertases 2 (PC2), also known as *amontillado* in flies, which is involved in ilp proprotein cleavage (Rayburn et al., 2003; Rhea et al., 2010). We expressed each RNAi (Bi 28583 or VDRC 110788) under the control of orco-Gal4 and tubulin-Gal80ts to temporally restrict Gal4 activity in adult ORNs. We found that expression of PC2RNAi significantly inhibited phospho-InR increases and Draper upregulation in ensheathing glial regions after antennal nerve axotomy (Figures 5C–5F). Next, we targeted calcium-activated protein for secretion (Cadps), which is essential for DCV release (Renden et al., 2001; Wong et al., 2012, 2015). We expressed CadpsRNAi (VDRC 110055) in all ORNs with orco-Gal4 and found that phospho-InR and Draper increases after axon injury were also attenuated (Figures 5C and 5D). Collectively, these results suggest that severed ORNs may be an important source of secreted neuropeptide signals that elicit InR-dependent glial responses to axon degeneration.

**DISCUSSION**

Here, we show that the insulin-like signaling (ILS) pathway is required for two key events associated with glial responses to acute axon injury in the adult *Drosophila* brain: upregulation of the conserved engulfment receptor Draper and efficient phagocytic engulfment of degenerating axons. Previous studies ranging from invertebrates to humans have linked ILS and innate immunity. In *Drosophila*, the ILS pathway is an important homeostatic regulator of hemocyte responses to injury. Similar to our findings, repression of ILS inhibits responses to epidermal damage, including hemocyte recruitment to injury sites (Karpac et al., 2011). IGF-1 treatment of human phagocytes in vitro also boosts phagocytic activity. For example, in cultured neutrophils, IGF-1 induces upregulation of CD11b, a component of complement receptor 3, which functions as a widespread phagocytic pattern recognition receptor to facilitate recognition and engulfment of...
bacteria and protein aggregates (Bjerknes and Aarskog, 1995; Inoue et al., 1998). Our work now provides in vivo evidence that ILS positively drives phagocytosis by regulating expression of a key pro-engulfment factor and suggests that this is an evolutionarily conserved signaling mechanism to regulate both professional and unprofessional phagocytes.

Maintenance of basal Draper levels requires phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase (PI3K) signaling (Doherty et al., 2014). Although the InR can signal through PI3K, we did not detect a significant reduction in basal Draper levels (at the transcript or protein level) following InR knockdown/inhibition in adult glia, which argues against InR as the primary upstream receptor maintaining basal Draper expression via PI3K. Instead, we find that glial InR is required for transcriptional induction of draper after axotomy and for recruitment of Draper on severed axons, revealing the InR to be an upstream regulator of Draper expression in the context of neural injury. The transcription factor STAT92E is similarly required to boost Draper levels in local ensheathing glia post-injury through a positive Draper/STAT92E autoregulatory loop (Doherty et al., 2014). Interestingly, in addition to the highly conserved canonical PI3K/Akt cascade, STAT has also been identified as a signaling effector of the insulin receptor and the IGF-1 receptor (Himpe and Kooijman, 2009; Taniguchi et al., 2006); coupling of canonical and non-canonical signal transduction pathways provides spatial and temporal refinement of insulin-like signaling cascades. Because we find that basal Draper levels are normal in glial InR-depleted flies, it is unlikely that the failure of glia to upregulate draper-I or activate STAT92E-dependent transcription (Figure 3) is due to deficient pre-injury Draper levels. It will be important to define the signaling cascades, direct and indirect, that connect activation of glial InR/Akt1 with acute draper upregulation, Draper recruitment to degenerating axons and timely phagocytic removal of cellular debris. Based on the strong conservation of ILS and the Draper/MEGF10/Jedi glial engulfment...
pathway across species, we speculate that ILS could similarly be a part through regulated expression of MEGF10 and/or Jedi.

Our analysis of ANF::GFP, combined with our CadpsRNAi results, supports a model in which DCVs are released from severed axons. DCVs can be released extra-synaptically, including along axons following robust stimulation protocols (van de Bospoort et al., 2012; Matsuda et al., 2009), and CAPS1 is required for DCV fusion from extrasynaptic sites in mammalian neurons (Farina et al., 2015). Future work will provide important insight into the intrinsic axonal changes, including calcium-dependent mechanisms, that may promote DCV and neuropeptide release after injury. Our PC2 and Cadps loss of function results indicate that perturbing neuropeptide processing or DCV release attenuates InR signaling and Draper upregulation in local ensheathing glia. These phenotypes were not replicated in ilp-depleted flies, but it will important to determine if systematic disruption of a single ilp (or even several ilp ligands) in ORNs triggers compensatory responses, like those described in other areas of the CNS. For example, medial neurosecretory cells in the dorsal region of the fly brain express ilp2, ilp3, and ilp5, but knockdown of ilp2 in these cells results in increased production of ilp3 and ilp5, which functionally compensates for the loss of ilp2 (Broughton et al., 2008). Moreover, it remains to be determined if ilps are expressed uniformly throughout the antennal lobes or if different ilps are variably expressed in subsets of ORNs. We also cannot exclude that an as yet to be identified neuropeptide activates ensheathing glial InR after ORN axotomy. Finally, it will be important to also explore the possibility that glia-glia ILS communication, for example between local astrocytes and ensheathing glia, occurs after injury.

In invertebrates and mice, ILS is required in axons to execute a normal Wallerian degeneration program through the production of reactive oxygen species following neurotoxic insults (Calixto et al., 2012). It is interesting to speculate that the ILS pathway serves multiple roles at CNS trauma sites to simultaneously ensure that (1) axons degenerate promptly, and (2) local glia respond robustly to efficiently clear degenerating material. Whether this occurs in a variety of contexts (axotomy, neurodegenerative disease, etc.) remains to be explored. Nevertheless, there is growing interest in understanding the relationship between adult ILS pathways and neurological disorders because defects in insulin pathways and metabolic diseases are associated with increased risk for neurodegenerative diseases (Bassil et al., 2014; Fernandez and Torres-Alemán, 2012; Russo et al., 2005). Long-term changes in insulin/IGF signaling (e.g., ILS resistance) likely alter basal health and metabolic integrity of the nervous system (Bassil et al., 2014; Broughton and Partridge, 2009; Piriz et al., 2011), but our findings now provide in vivo evidence that highlights the importance of the glial ILS pathway as a critical neuroprotective signaling system in the damaged brain.

**EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

**Fly Stocks**

The following fly strains were used: repo-Gal4 (Leiserson et al., 2000); w1118, Oribase-mCD8::GFP, tubulin::Gal80 (Ziegenfluss et al., 2012); InR-1118, (Song et al., 2003); y w1118, UAS-InsR/K1409A (dominant-negative InsR, Bl 8253) (De-montis and Perrimon, 2009); w1118, UAS-mCD8::GFP, repo-ga114; y1 w1118, UAS-InsRRNAi (Bl 31037); w1118, UAS-LacZ::NLS (Bl 3955); y1 w1118, UAS-AKTRNAi (Bl 31701), 10XSTAT92E-dGFP (Bach et al., 2007); y1 w1118, UAS-Akt1 (Bl 8191); y w1118, UAS-InsR (Bloomington stock 8262); y w1118, UAS-InsR.del (constitutively active InsR, Bloomington stock 8248); w1118, TIFR-Gal4 (Yao et al., 2007); y1 w1118, DraperRNAi (MacDonald et al., 2008); UAS-ANF::GFP (Bl 7001); OR22a-Gal4 (Dobrila et al., 2003); UAS-PC2RNAi (VDRC 28583); UAS-PC2RNAi (VDRC 110786) (Dietz et al., 2007); orco-Gal4 (Bl 23292) (Larson et al., 2004); UAS-dicer2 (Bl 24590) (Dietz et al., 2007); and UAS-CadpsRNAi (VDRC 110055).

**Olfactory Neuron Injuries, Dissection, and Analysis**

Maxillary and antennal nerve transections, adult fly brain dissections, and whole brain antibody staining were performed using previously described methods (MacDonald et al., 2006). See the Supplemental Experimental Procedures.

**Confocal Microscopy**

All immunostained brains were imaged on a Zeiss LSM 700 with a Zeiss 4.10N oil immersion plan-apochromatic lens. Brains within each experiment were mounted under a single 1.5 cover glass and imaged on the same day with the same confocal microscope settings (laser power, photomultiplier tube gain, offset, filter configuration. The Z step in all experiments was 0.76 μm (pinhole 1.5-μm optical slice). Pixel dimensions ranged from 100–230 nm.

**Statistical Analysis**

GraphPad Prism software was used to perform ordinary one-way ANOVA tests, Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA tests, two-tailed Student’s t tests, two-tailed Welch’s t tests, two-tailed Mann-Whitney U tests, Dunnnett’s multiple comparisons post hoc tests, and Holm-Sidak multiple comparisons post hoc tests. Assumptions of normality were tested with the D’Agostino-Pearson normality test. Where applicable, outliers were identified using the ROUT method. In some analyses, log-transformations were uniformly performed on otherwise non-Gaussian datasets to allow for the appropriate use of parametric tests. When assumptions of normality could not be met for a given data set, non-parametric tests were used. Each n = 1 sample number represents pooled measurements taken from independent animals.

**SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION**

Supplemental Information includes Supplemental Experimental Procedures, four figures, and one table and can be found with this article online at http://doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2016.07.022.

**AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

D.T.M. conceived and performed experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript. M.D.P. designed and performed experiments and analyzed data. S.D.S. designed and performed experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript. J.D. performed experiments. M.A.L. conceived the project, designed and performed experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript.

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

We thank Leslie Pick, Tzumin Lee, the TRIP at Harvard Medical School (NIH/ National Institute of General Medical Science [NIGMS] R01 GM084947), the Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center (NIH P40OD018537), and the Vienna Drosophila Resource Center for flies. We thank members of the M.A.L. lab for discussions, Marc Freeman and Jolanda Muenzel for manuscript comments, and Erika Petitt for excellent technical assistance. This work was supported by NIH grants R01 NS073847 (to M.A.L.) and P30 NS069346 (to M.A.L.), the Medical Research Foundation of Oregon (to S.D.S. and M.A.L.), Fred W. Fields Foundation (to M.A.L.), Glenn/AFAR (to M.D.P.), and NIH training grant T32 AG023477 (to M.D.P.).
REFERENCES

A-Gonzalez, N., and Hidalgo, A. (2014). Nuclear receptors and clearance of apoptotic cells: stimulating the macrophage’s appetite. Front. Immunol. 5, 211.

Akiyama, H., Barger, S., Barnum, S., Bradt, B., Bauer, J., Cole, G.M., Cooper, N.R., Eikelenboom, P., Emmerling, M., Feibich, B.L., et al. (2000). Inflammation and Alzheimer’s disease. Neurobiol. Aging 21, 383–421.

Awasaki, T., Lai, S.L., Ito, K., and Lee, T. (2008). Organization and postembryonic development of glial cells in the adult central brain of Drosophila. J. Neurosci. 28, 13742–13753.

Ayaz, D., Leyssen, M., Koch, M., Yan, J., Srahna, M., Sheeba, V., Fogle, K.J., Holmes, T.C., and Hassan, B.A. (2008). Axonal injury and regeneration in the adult brain of Drosophila. J. Neurosci. 28, 6010–6021.

Bach, E.A., Ekas, L.A., Ayala-Camargo, A., Flaherty, M.S., Lee, H., Perrimon, N., and Baeg, G.H. (2007). GFP reporters detect the activation of the Drosophila JAK/STAT pathway in vivo. Gene Expr. Patterns 7, 323–331.

Bamberger, M.E., and Landreth, G.E. (2002). Inflammation, apoptosis, and Alzheimer’s disease. Neuroscientist 8, 276–283.

Barbieri, M., Bonafé, M., Franceschi, C., and Paolisso, G. (2003). Insulin/IGF-1-signaling pathway: an evolutionarily conserved mechanism of longevity from yeast to humans. Am. J. Physiol. Endocrinol. Metab. 285, E1064–E1071.

Bassil, F., Fernandes, P.O., Bezd, E., and Meissner, W.G. (2014). Insulin, IGF-1 and GLP-1 signaling in neurodegenerative disorders: targets for disease modification? Prog. Neurobiol. 118, 1–18.

Bjerkes, N., and Aarskog, D. (1995). Priming of human polymorphonuclear neutrophilic leukocytes by insulin-like growth factor I: increased phagocytic capacity, complement receptor expression, degranulation, and oxidative burst. J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab. 80, 1948–1955.

Broughton, S., and Partridge, L. (2009). Insulin/IGF-like signalling, the central nervous system and aging. Biochem. J. 418, 1–12.

Broughton, S., Alic, N., Slack, C., Bass, T., Ikeya, T., Vinti, G., Tommasi, A.M., Driege, Y., Haffen, E., and Partridge, L. (2008). Reduction of DILP2 in Drosophila triages a metabolic phenotype from lifespan revealing redundancy and compensation among DILPs. PLoS One 3, e3721.

Calixto, A., Jara, J.S., and Court, F.A. (2012). Diapause formation and downregulation of insulin-like signaling via DAF-16/FOXO delays axonal degeneration and neuronal loss. PLoS Genet. 8, e1003141.

Cantera, R., and Barrio, R. (2015). Do the genes of the innate immune response contribute to neuroprotection in Drosophila? J. Innate Immun. 7, 3–10.

Carlsson, M.A., Diesner, M., Schachtner, J., and Nasell, D.R. (2010). Multiple neuropeptides in the Drosophila antennal lobe suggest complex modulatory regulation of insulin-like signaling via DAF-16/FOXO delays axonal degeneration and can be rescued by TORC1 activation. J. Neurosci. 36, 3170–3183.

Fang, Y., and Bonini, N.M. (2012). Axon regeneration and degeneration: insights from Drosophila models of nerve injury. Annu. Rev. Cell Dev. Biol. 28, 575–597.

Farina, M., van de Bospoort, R., He, E., Persoon, C.M., van Weering, J.R., Broeke, J.H., Verhage, M., and Toonen, R.F. (2015). CAPS-1 promotes fusion competence of stationary dense-core vesicles in presynaptic terminals of mammalian neurons. eLife 4. http://dx.doi.org/10.7554/eLife.05438.

Ferguson, S.B., Blundon, M.A., Klovstad, M.S., and Schupbach, T. (2012). Modulation of gurken translation by insulin and TOR signaling in Drosophila. J. Cell Sci. 125, 1407–1419.

Fernandez, A.M., and Torres-Alemán, I. (2012). The many faces of insulin-like peptide signaling in the brain. Nat. Rev. Neurosci. 13, 225–239.

Freeman, M.R., Delrow, J., Kim, J., Johnson, E., and Doe, C.Q. (2003). Unwrapping glioblastoma: Gcm target genes regulating glial development, diversification, and function. Neuron 38, 567–580.

Garelli, A., Gontijo, A.M., Miguela, V., Caparros, E., and Dominguez, M. (2012). Imaginal discs secrete insulin-like peptide 8 to mediate plasticity of growth and maturation. Science 336, 579–582.

Giunti, D., Parodi, B., Cordano, C., Uccelli, A., and Kerlero de Rosbo, N. (2014). Can we switch microglia’s phenotype to foster neuroprotection? Focus on multiple sclerosis. Immunology 147, 328–339.

Glezner, I., Simard, A.R., and Rivest, S. (2007). Neuroprotective role of the innate immune system by microglia. Neuroscience 147, 867–883.

Grönke, S., Clarke, D.-F., Broughton, S., Andrews, T.D., and Partridge, L. (2010). Molecular evolution and functional characterization of Drosophila insulin-like peptides. PLoS Genet. 6, e1000857.

Gu, T., Zhao, T., and Hewes, R.S. (2014). Insulin signaling regulates neurite growth during metamorphic neuronal remodeling. Biol. Open 3, 81–93.

Gu, J., Williams, C., Cuningh, M., Mallard, C., and Glueckman, P. (1993). The effects of IGF-1 treatment after hypoxic-ischemic brain injury in adult rats. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab. 13, 609–616.

Guan, J., Bennet, L., Gluckman, P.D., and Gunn, A.J. (2003). Insulin-like growth factor-1 and post-ischemic brain injury. Prog. Neurobiol. 70, 443–462.

Hamby, M.E., and Sofroniew, M.V. (2010). Reactive astrocytes as therapeutic targets for CNS disorders. Neurotherapeutics 7, 494–506.

Himpe, E., and Kooijman, R. (2009). Insulin-like growth factor-I receptor signal transduction and the Janus Kinase/Signal Transducer and Activator of Transcription (JAK-STAT) pathway. Biofactors 35, 76–81.

Hua, K., Forbes, M.E., Lichtenwalner, R.J., Sonntag, W.E., and Riddle, D.R. (2009). Adult-onset deficiency in growth hormone and insulin-like growth factor-I alters oligodendrocyte turnover in the corpus callosum. Glia 57, 1062–1071.
Husain, Q.M., and Ewer, J. (2004). Use of targetable gfp-tagged neuropeptide for visualizing neuropeptide release following execution of a behavior. J. Neurobiol. 59, 181–191.

Inoue, T., Saito, H., Matsuda, T., Fukatsu, K., Han, I., Furukawa, S., Ikeda, S., and Muto, T. (1998). Growth hormone and insulin-like growth factor I augment bactericidal capacity of human polymorphonuclear neutrophils. Shock 10, 278–284.

Kannan, K., and Fridell, Y.W. (2013). Functional implications of Drosophila insulin-like peptides in metabolism, aging, and dietary restriction. Front. Physiol. 4, 288.

Karpac, J., Younger, A., and Jasper, H. (2011). Dynamic coordination of innate immune signaling and insulin signaling regulates systemic responses to localized DNA damage. Dev. Cell 20, 841–854.

Kato, K., Forero, M.G., Fenton, J.C., and Hidalgo, A. (2011). The glial regeneration function in Drosophila: pathways, effectors, and connections. J. Mol. Biol. 425, 4921–4936.

Kurant, E. (2011). Keeping the CNS clear: glial phagocytic functions in neurodegeneration. J. Neurogenet. 29, 69–79.

Lee, Y.M., and Sun, Y.H. (2015). Drosophila as a model to study the role of glia in neurodegeneration. J. Neurogenet. 10, 14185–14198.

Liu, L., Zhang, K., Sandoval, H., Yamamoto, S., Sanz, E., Li, Z., Hui, J., Graham, B.H., Quintana, A., and Bellen, H.J. (2015). Glial lipid droplets encoded by amontillado (amon) is required in Drosophila corpora cardiaca endocrine cells producing the glucose regulatory hormone AKH. PLoS Genet. 6, e1000967.

Rao, S., Lang, C., Levitan, E.S., and Deitcher, D.L. (2001). Visualization of neuropeptide expression, transport, and exocytosis in Drosophila melanogaster. Antioxid. Redox Signal. 14, 635–647.

Rooney, T.M., and Freeman, M.R. (2014). Drosophila models of neuronal injury. ILAR J. 54, 291–295.

Root, C.M., Masuyama, K., Green, D.S., Enelli, L.E., Nässel, D.R., Lee, C.-H., and Wang, J.W. (2008). A presynaptic gain control mechanism fine-tunes olfactory behavior. Neuron 59, 311–321.

Scuderi, C., Sullivan, C.S., and Carter, B.D. (2012). 70Kd and MEGF10 signal engulfment of apoptotic neurons through the tyrosine kinase Syk. J. Neurosci. 32, 13022–13031.

Sousa-Nunes, R., Yee, L.L., and Gould, A.P. (2011). Role of astrocytes in major neurological disorders: the evidence and implications. IUBMB Life 65, 957–961.

Song, J., Wu, L., Chen, Z., Kohanski, R.A., and Pick, L. (2003). Axons guided by axonal ensheathment. Neuron 39, 647–656.

Taniguchi, C.M., Emanuelli, B., and Kahn, C.R. (2006). Critical nodes in signaling pathways: insights into insulin action. J. Cell Biol. 170, 199–208.

Verhage, M., and Toonen, R.F. (2012). Munc13 controls the location and efficiency of dense-core vesicle release in neurons. J. Cell Biol. 199, 883–891.
Wang, B., Moya, N., Niessen, S., Hoover, H., Mihaylova, M.M., Shaw, R.J., Yates, J.R., 3rd, Fischer, W.H., Thomas, J.B., and Montminy, M. (2011). A hormone-dependent module regulating energy balance. Cell 145, 596–606.

Werz, C., Köhler, K., Hafen, E., and Stocker, H. (2009). The Drosophila SH2B family adaptor Lnk acts in parallel to chico in the insulin signaling pathway. PLoS Genet. 5, e1000596.

Wigby, S., Slack, C., Grönke, S., Martinez, P., Calboli, F.C., Chapman, T., and Partridge, L. (2011). Insulin signalling regulates remating in female Drosophila. Proc. Biol. Sci. 278, 424–431.

Wong, M.Y., Zhou, C., Shakiryanova, D., Lloyd, T.E., Deitcher, D.L., and Levitan, E.S. (2012). Neuropeptide delivery to synapses by long-range vesicle circulation and sporadic capture. Cell 148, 1029–1038.

Wong, M.Y., Cavolo, S.L., and Levitan, E.S. (2015). Synaptic neuropeptide release by dynamin-dependent partial release from circulating vesicles. Mol. Biol. Cell 26, 2466–2474.

Wu, H.-H., Bellmunt, E., Scheib, J.L., Venegas, V., Burkert, C., Reichardt, L.F., Zhou, Z., Fariñas, I., and Carter, B.D. (2009). Glial precursors clear sensory neuron corpses during development via Jedi-1, an engulfment receptor. Nat. Neurosci. 12, 1534–1541.

Yao, Y., Wu, Y., Yin, C., Ozawa, R., Aigaki, T., Wouda, R.R., Noordermeer, J.N., Fradkin, L.G., and Hing, H. (2007). Antagonistic roles of Wnt5 and the Dri receptor in patterning the Drosophila antennal lobe. Nat. Neurosci. 10, 1423–1432.

Ziegenfuss, J.S., Doherty, J., and Freeman, M.R. (2012). Distinct molecular pathways mediate glial activation and engulfment of axonal debris after axotomy. Nat. Neurosci. 15, 979–987.