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1	Growth regulation by amino acid transporters in Drosophila larvae
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5	Gérard Manière ^{1,*,§} , Georges Alves ^{1,*} , Martine Berthelot-Grosjean ¹ , Yael Grosjean ^{1§}
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7	¹ : Centre des Sciences du Goût et de l'Alimentation, AgroSup Dijon, CNRS, INRA, Université
8	Bourgogne Franche-Comté, F-21000 Dijon, France.
9	
10	*: co-first authors
11	
12	[§] : co-corresponding authors: gerard.maniere@u-bourgogne.fr, yael.grosjean@u-bourgogne.fr
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26 Summary:

27 Drosophila larvae need to adapt their metabolism to reach a critical body size to pupate. 28 This process needs food resources and has to be tightly adjusted in order to control 29 metamorphosis timing and adult size. Nutrients such as amino acids either directly present in 30 the food or obtained via protein digestion play key regulatory roles in controlling metabolism 31 and growth. Amino acids act especially on two organs, the fat body and the brain, to control 32 larval growth, body size developmental timing and pupariation. The expression of specific 33 amino acid transporters in fat body cells, and in the brain through specific neurons and glial 34 cells are essential to activate downstream molecular signaling pathways in response to amino acid levels. In this review, we highlight some of these specific networks dependent on amino 35 36 acid diet to control DILP levels, and by consequence larval metabolism and growth. 37

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39 Keywords: neuron, glia, physiology, molecular signal, insulin producing cells, LAT1

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42 In order to grow and to survive, animals must constantly adapt to their environment where 43 they have to find all the essential components they need such as water, oxygen, and food. In 44 particular, they must find in their diet all the elements necessary to cover their daily 45 nutritional needs and to develop. To ensure an optimal supply of nutrients, animals constantly 46 adjust their food intake to their nutritional status [1]. The ingested food is broken down during 47 digestion into various nutrients such as fatty acids, sugars and amino acids, which are 48 essential for energy production and cellular functioning, division, growth and renewal [2-4]. 49 Among these, essential amino acids are key nutrients that animals cannot synthesize and need 50 to find from their food [5]. Most amino acids also represent signaling molecules that control 51 animal metabolism. They need to be finely regulated to assess vital requirements such as 52 energy balance, protein synthesis, and cell and tissue development [1]. In Drosophila, growth 53 occurs during four morphologically distinct developmental forms: embryo, larva (three instar 54 stages), pupa, and adult. The most important body size increase prevails during third larval 55 instar. This spectacular growth is concluded when a critical weight is reached, which 56 mobilizes hormonal signals such as PTTH, ecdysone, juvenile hormone, and insulin-like 57 peptides [6-9]. As a consequence, larvae must eat a lot during this third instar in order to gain 58 weight. This review will focus on the role of amino acids transporters affecting this larval 59 growth.

60 In Drosophila larvae, nutrients like amino acids go across the gut wall from the lumen of 61 the digestive tract to the hemolymph [4,10]. Thus, amino acids circulate in the whole body 62 before being detected and used by cells for protein synthesis or metabolic purposes. Organs 63 that are able to detect them include the fat body, and some neurons and glial cells located in 64 the brain. As in mammals, a permanent dialogue between these tissues exists to maintain an 65 amino acid homeostasis necessary for development and growth of *Drosophila* larvae [11]. 66 Amino acids can thus modify the physiology of the organism by direct cell-autonomous, or 67 indirect non-cell-autonomous detection (Fig. 1).

In *Drosophila* larvae, the regulation of metabolism involves many hormones including insulin-like peptides [12]. Eight insulin-like coding genes (*dilp1-8*) have been identified so far. DILPs 1–7 are thought to act through a single Drosophila insulin/IGF receptor (InR), whereas DILP8 acts through the neuronal relaxin receptor lgr-3 [13-17]. The corresponding peptides are expressed in many tissues such as the nervous system and the digestive system [14-15]. During the larval stage, when maggots feed, DILPs produced and secreted by the

- 74 brain couple nutrient uptake with systemic growth. DILP2 and DILP5 are specifically
- 75 expressed in 7 cell-pairs (IPCs, Insulin-Producing Cells) of the brain pars intercerebralis
- 76 region [14]. These cells can be compared to the mammalian pancreatic β cells that produce
- and secrete insulin [18, 19]. It has been shown that the genetic ablation of IPCs alone has a
- 78 major impact on metabolism and development [20, 21]. In particular, the level of circulating
- sugars in the hemolymph is drastically increased when IPCs are ablated [21]. Another DILP,
- 80 DILP6 is expressed in the fat body and in glial cells from the blood-brain barrier [22-25].
- 81 During post-feeding development, DILP6 plays an important role in growth regulation [22,
- 82 23].
- 83

84 Amino acid sensing and secretion of hormones by the fat body

85 The Drosophila fat body is considered to be the equivalent of both vertebrate liver and 86 adipose tissue [26]. It plays a key role in energy storage by converting fatty acids, proteins 87 and sugars into triglycerides that are stored in lipid droplets [27]. The fat body can then 88 mobilize these droplets when the animal needs high energy and compounds for cellular 89 functioning or larval growth. For this purpose, the fat body is able to detect nutrient variations 90 in the hemolymph, including amino acids. Sensing of amino acid in the fat body depends on 91 the activity of TORC1 (target of rapamycin complex 1) signaling, which then indirectly 92 induces the activation of the insulin pathway (InR/Pi3k) in salivary glands and imaginal discs 93 [28]. The fat body then secretes hormonal factors, which act on different organs to control 94 development and to adjust the metabolic status [28].

95 The role of two amino-acid transporters, Minidiscs (Mnd) and Slimfast (Slif), has been 96 characterized in the fat body (Fig. 2). Mnd is an amino acid transporter belonging to the L-97 type Amino Acid Transporter (LAT1) family [29-32], which catalyzes the cross-membrane 98 flux of large neutral amino acids. Mnd is expressed in several tissues including the fat body, 99 and is involved in the larval development of imaginal discs [33]. Mnd mutant imaginal discs 100 transplanted into a wild type larva continue to develop. This result indicates that Mnd action 101 on imaginal discs development is non-cell autonomous, and it suggests the existence of 102 messengers from other organs expressing Mnd [33]. Slif belongs to the cationic amino acid 103 family (CAT) and plays a major role in amino-acid transport in the fat body, leading to TORC1 activation [34]. The inhibition of *slif* expression in the fat body causes a larval 104 105 development defect that mimics an amino-acid deprivation and leads to smaller adults at 106 emergence (Fig. 2) [28].

In response to amino acids levels in the hemolymph, different factors are secreted from
the fat body and induce the release of insulin-like peptides by IPCs to regulate growth. These
factors have been revealed by brain and fat body co-cultures [35, 36]. Fat bodies from larvae
fed with a rich amino-acid medium (tryptone) are capable to stimulate the release of DILPs

111 that are normally stored in the IPCs during starvation conditions [35]. Depending on the

protein diet, two cytokines Eiger and Sun can be released by the fat body (Fig. 2A-B) [37,

113 38].

114 In low protein conditions, the fat body expresses and releases the transmembrane protein 115 Eiger, a cytokine homologous to TNF- α in mammals [37]. Eiger is cleaved by the TNF- α 116 converting enzyme (TACE). From this reaction a soluble form of Eiger can circulate in the 117 hemolymph (Fig. 2A). TACE is under the control of the TORC1 pathway that is sensitive to 118 the presence of amino acids in the hemolymph. Eiger then binds to its receptor Grindelwald 119 (Gnrd), a TNF-a receptor localized on the IPCs, and allows the activation of the Jun N-120 terminal Kinase (JNK) pathway. Then activated JNK inhibits *dilp2* and *dilp5* gene expression 121 and therefore blocks larval growth (Fig. 2A) [37].

In a rich protein diet, TORC1 inhibits TACE, thus, Eiger is not cleaved and remains attached to the adipocyte membrane leading to normal growth. Another cytokine, Stunted (Sun), is secreted by the fat body into the hemolymph after high amino-acid diet (Fig. 2B) [38]. This release is dependent on the TORC1 pathway. Sun then binds to its receptor Methuselah, a secretin-incretin receptor expressed in IPCs. This binding permits the release of DILP2 and DILP5, which in turn activates systemic organ growth [38].

In response to a rich amino-acid diet and to the activation of TORC1 pathway, the fat body secretes two other factors called GBP1 and GBP2 (Growth Blocking Peptide) that indirectly induce the release of DILP2 and DILP5 by IPCs (Fig. 2B) [36, 39]. Secreted GBP1 binds to its receptor, a transmembrane EGF receptor located on inhibitory neurons (IPC-

132 connecting neurons or ICNs) that synapse with IPCs [39]. The binding of GBP1 to its

133 receptor removes the inhibition of IPCs by ICNs and thus allows the release of DILPs (Fig.

134 2B) [39]. Thus, the intake of food or a rich amino-acid diet acts through the fat body and

135 inhibitory neurons to indirectly cause the release of DILPs by IPCs.

136

137

138 Direct amino acid sensing by brain cells

During the larval stages, food intake and the detection of amino acids are under thecontrol of the nervous system allowing the larvae to distinguish balanced and imbalanced

amino-acid diets (Fig. 3). This control depends on a cluster of dopaminergic neurons of the
dorsolateral cluster 1 (DA DL1 neurons) located in the larval brain [40]. Larvae avoid food
with low essential amino acids (EAA) content and prefer food with balanced amino acids.
The circulating amino acids in the hemolymph are directly detected by the DA DL1 neurons.
These dopaminergic neurons have an inhibitory role in food intake since the release of
dopamine reduces food consumption (Fig. 3).

In balanced amino-acid diet, GABA receptors located on DA DL1 neurons repress the secretion of dopamine allowing food intake [40]. The inhibition of the expression of the amino-acid transporter Slif in DA DL1 neurons reduces food intake in the presence of a rich diet (Fig. 3A) [40].

151 Similarly, an imbalanced amino-acid diet detected by DA DL1 neurons decreases food152 intake (Fig. 3B). In the DA DL1 neurons, an amino-acid sensor, conserved GC

153 nonderepressing 2 (GCN2) kinase, is activated in the absence of EAA and, in turn, leads to

154 the activation of the ATF4 transcription factor. Then ATF4 binds to and inactivates GABAR1

and GABAR2 receptors. The inactivation of GABA receptors allows the secretion of

dopamine and leads to a drop of food intake (Fig. 3B) [40].

157 Levels of essential amino acids can thus regulate food intake and therefore animal growth158 via dopaminergic DL1 neurons.

159

160 In mammals, amino acids such as leucine and isoleucine, which are BCAA-type amino 161 acids (Branched Chain Amino Acids), are transported by LAT-1-type amino-acid transporters 162 and stimulate insulin release from pancreatic ß-cells [41]. In Drosophila larvae, homologous 163 cells of pancreatic ß-cells are the 7 pairs of IPCs located in the median region of the pars 164 *intercerebralis* [14, 18, 19]. In fasting *Drosophila* larvae, leucine and isoleucine are able to 165 directly regulate the neuronal activity of these IPCs [31, 42]. Effectively, in ex vivo cultured 166 brains from fasting larvae, leucine induces the release of DILP2 and DILP5 by IPCs (Fig. 4). 167 The function of two amino-acid transporters of the LAT-1 family, Mnd and Juvenile hormone Inducible-21 (JhI-21), has been characterized in IPCs. Mnd is mostly present in the 168 169 endoplasmic reticulum of IPCs, while JhI-21 appears to be preferentially localized at the 170 plasma membrane of IPCs (Fig. 4) [31, 42]. Knockdown of Mnd or JhI-21 or both 171 transporters in IPCs impairs DILPs release in the presence of leucine and has an impact on 172 metabolism and on larval growth [31, 42]. Therefore, as in mammals, leucine stimulates a 173 leucine sensitive enzyme GDH located in the IPCs to promote insulin release in Drosophila 174 larvae (Fig. 4) [31].

175

176 In the brain, glial cells are also able to detect amino acids and regulate cell growth and 177 larval development (Fig. 5). They can directly react to amino acids transported by the amino-178 acid transporter, Slif. In response to amino acids, glial cells release an insulin-like peptide, 179 DILP6. Then, DILP6 binds to InR located on some acetylcholinergic neurons in the brain. 180 This neuronal activation allows the release of the Jelly belly (Jeb) peptide (Fig. 5) [43]. The 181 mechanism of Jeb secretion is unknown but is different from Acetylcholine release. Jeb 182 peptide binds to Alk (Anaplastic lymphoma kinase receptor) expressed by IPCs. It allows the 183 activation of a PI3K pathway that leads to the phosphorylation of the transcription factor 184 FoxO. The phosphorylated inactive form of FoxO remains in the cytoplasm allowing the 185 expression of *dilp5*. Finally, the secretion of DILP5 into the hemolymph promotes larval 186 growth (Fig. 5). In low protein diet condition, the transcription factor FoxO represses the 187 expression of *dilp5* gene in IPCs. Some glial cells expressing the InR receptor are sensitive to 188 DILP5 and other DILPs and express *dilp6* generating a feedback loop (Fig. 5) [43].

189

190 Larval development coordination involves also many hormones including the 191 prothoracicotropic hormone (PTTH) and ecdysone, a steroidogenic hormone [44]. These 192 hormones must be finely regulated to control the duration of the different larval stages and the transition to pupal stage. Before each larval or pupal molt, the increase of PTTH synthesis and 193 secretion by PTTH neurons located in the larval brain activates ecdysone secretion by cells 194 195 localized in the Ring Gland (Fig. 5). This ecdysone production may also depend on the 196 presence of various nutrients such as amino acids since it is under the control of DILPs [45]. 197 Moreover, it has been shown that the amino acid transporter coding gene Sobremesa (Sbm) 198 expressed in glial cells is involved in the timing of larval and brain development [46]. Sbm 199 downregulation causes an extension of the duration of the last larval instar together with an 200 increased body size, but leads to smaller brain lobes. Downregulation of Sbm in glia cells 201 does not affect *dilp6* expression in glia but reduces PTTH levels (Fig. 5) [46]. This drop of 202 PTTH might lead to a decrease of ecdysone synthesis inducing a developmental delay and a 203 reduction of the brain size due to less neuroblast division [47]. The mechanism of how glial 204 cells govern PTTH level in PTTH neurons remains elusive. In glial cells, Sbm could 205 participate to the transport of circulating amino acids in hemolymph to promote PTTH release 206 necessary for ecdysone synthesis required to regulate developmental timing [46]. 207 During the Drosophila larval development, some cells like neuroblasts remain quiescent 208 in the brain until they enter cell division to generate two cell types, neurons and glial cells

209 [48]. The activation of neuroblast division depends on amino acids present in the food

210 whereas differentiation of neuroblasts into neurons and/or glial cells is food independent [24,

211 25, 49]. The fat body senses the amino acids via the TORC1 pathway and produces an

unknown signal. This signal acts on brain glia cells which in turn release DILP6 [24, 25].

- 213 DILP6 binds to InR located on neuroblast membranes, inducing neuroblast reactivation and
- 214 division (Fig. 5) [24, 25].
- 215

216 Conclusion and outlook

Amino acids are essential as basic components for protein synthesis that are involved in 217 218 many cellular functions (membrane activities, enzymes, transports, signaling, and gene 219 expression). Amino acids can also act as neurotransmitters like glutamate and participate as 220 precursors in the synthesis of neurotransmitters (tryptophan for serotonin or phenylalanine for 221 dopamine). Some amino acids like glutamate can be synthesized by the cellular enzymatic 222 machinery. The so-called essential amino acids like tryptophan, phenylalanine or leucine are 223 not synthesized by the organism, and must absolutely be found in the food. Thus, among the 224 nutrients capable of regulating larval growth and development, amino acids play a major role.

225 Here, we highlight known internal detection mechanisms and pathways depending on 226 amino acids that regulate larval and tissue growth. Once in larval hemolymph, circulating 227 amino acids are mainly detected by the fat body, and by neurons and glial cells in the brain. 228 This detection leads to the release of various factors, which allow the coordination of larval 229 systemic growth. Usually to study the role of amino acids in Drosophila, a mix of amino 230 acids like yeast or peptone extracts are used as a source of amino acids [35, 50]. Few essential 231 amino acids have been shown to play a key role in development or in food intake [31, 40, 42]. 232 Other cells than the specific neurons and glial cell we described upper are also sensitive to

amino acids in larvae. For example, the fat body cells are sensitive to these nutrients, which in
turn can influence larval growth. In this regard, during mid-third instar Class IV

235 multidendritic nociceptive ppk peripheral neurons react to the loss of environmental arginine

via Slif. Then, they activate glutamatergic neurons in the ventral chord, which in turn

stimulate Dilp2 release by IPCs [51, 52]. Imaginal discs seem also to be sensitive to the

238 presence of nutrients including amino acids via the activity of the tumor suppressor PTEN

239 (phosphatase and tensin homolog deleted on chromosome 10). This effect of nutrients on

- 240 imaginal discs can potentially influence their growth and proliferation in specific conditions
- 241 [34].

242 In Drosophila adults, nutrients and amino acids are also crucial since flies need food 243 resources to regulate their life cycle, to survive, to have social interactions and to reproduce. 244 In adults, the essential amino acid threonine promotes sleep via GABA neurons in the brain 245 and three other amino acids (L-Glutamate, L-Alanine and L-Aspartate) are able to directly 246 stimulate DH44+ brain neurons to increase in food consumption via a putative amino acid 247 transporter, CG13248 [53, 54]. In adult females, nutrients play also an important role in 248 germline stem cells development. This requires specific nutrient-responsive signaling 249 pathways which includes insulin/IGF signaling, TOR signaling and GCN2-dependent amino 250 sensing [55]. This indicates that similar molecular pathways can be mobilized all along 251 Drosophila life cycle to sense amino acids in different cell types.

In mammals, amino acids are detected by the digestive tract to release gut hormones like cholecystokinin hormone (CCK) to regulate food intake. Surprisingly, in *Drosophila*, such mechanism of detection of amino acids by the gut to regulate DILPs or food intake has not been discovered yet. However, a recent study highlights the presence of intestinal cells capable to detect amino acids but the role of these cells remains unknown [56]. Further characterizations and analyzes are necessary to understand the exact role of amino acids on larval development and growth.

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- 514 **Figure Legends:**
- 515

516 Fig. 1 Internal amino acid sensing, and regulation of larval metabolism and growth

517 Amino acids and others nutrients go through the intestine wall into the hemolymph. Once in

the hemolymph, these molecules can circulate in the whole body and are detected by the fat

- body or by the brain. Then, these two organs secrete and exchange many signaling molecules
- 520 required to regulate metabolism and growth.
- 521

522 Fig. 2 Amino acid sensing by the larval fat body

523 A/ In low-protein diets, the fat body secretes Eiger cytokine, which is cleaved by the enzyme

524 TACE. Then, Eiger binds to its receptor Grindelwald (Gnrd) located on Insulin Producing

525 Cells (IPCs) to repress expression of *dilp2* and *dilp5* genes through the Jun N-terminal kinase

526 (JNK) activation. In addition, IPC-connecting neurons (ICNs) inhibit IPC neuronal activities

- and thus inhibit the release of DILPs. In consequence, metabolism and larval growth arereduced.
- 529 **B**/ In high-amino acids diets, TORC1 (Target of Rapamycin) inhibits TACE and induces the
- release of two growth blocking peptides (GBP1 and GBP2). These peptides repress the
- 531 inhibitory activity of ICNs allowing the release of DILPs and larval growth. TORC1 also
- 532 promotes the secretion of Stunted (Sun) cytokine. Sun binding to its receptor Methuselah
- 533 (Mth) promotes the release of DILPs, which influences metabolism and larval growth.
- 534 AA: amino acids, DILP: Drosophila Insulin-Like Peptide, EGFR: EGF Receptor, GBP:
- 535 Growth-Blocking Peptide, Gnrd: Grindelwald, ICNs: IPC-connecting neurons, IPCs: Insulin-
- 536 Producing Cells, JNK: Jun N-terminal Kinase, Mnd: Minidiscs, Mth: Methuselah, Slif:
- 537 Slimfast, Sun: Stunted, TACE: TNFα-Converting Enzyme, TORC1: Target Of Rapamycin.
- 538

539 Fig. 3 Amino acid sensing by larval dopaminergic neurons

- 540 In larva, food intake is under the control of dopaminergic neurons (DA DL1 neurons).
- 541 A/ In balanced amino-acid diet, the inhibition of dopamine release by GABA receptors on DA
- 542 DL1 neurons allows food intake and growth.
- 543 B/ In imbalanced amino-acid condition, dopaminergic neurons detect amino acids transported
- 544 by Slimfast (Slif) transporter. A sensor of amino acids GCN2 represses GABA receptors. The
- 545 inhibition of GABA receptors promotes the release of dopamine and thus blocks food intake.

- 546 AA: amino acids, GABAR: GABA Receptor, GCN2: GC nonderepressing 2 kinase, GDH:
- 547 Glutamate dehydrogenase, LAT-1: Large neutral Amino-acid Transporter, Mnd: Minidiscs,
- 548 Slif: Slimfast.
- 549

550 Fig. 4 Amino acid sensing by larval Insulin Producing Cells

- 551 Two LAT-1 transporters (Minidiscs (Mnd) and Juvenile hormone Inducible-21 (JhI-21) are
- 552 expressed in IPCs. Mnd is located on the endoplasmic reticulum whereas JhI-21 is on the
- 553 plasma membrane. They allow the transport of branched amino acids (Leucine and
- Isoleucine) that leads to the release of DILPs. DILPs are involved in metabolism regulationand in growth control.
- 556 AA: amino acids, ER: Endoplasmic Reticulum, GDH: Glutamate dehydrogenase, LAT-1:
- 557 Large neutral Amino Acid Transporter, Mnd: Minidiscs.
- 558

559 Fig. 5 Amino acid sensing by glial cells

- 560 Glial cells detect amino acids to control metabolism and growth.
- 561 Comparison of low- (5A) and high-protein diet (5B) situations shows that in a high-protein
- 562 diet, amino acids activate the secretion of an unknown factor by the fat body that induces the
- release of DILP6 by glial cells. Furthermore, glial cells can directly detect amino acids by
- 564 TORC1 via the Slif amino-acid transporter and secrete DILP6. DILP6 promotes the
- neuroblast reactivation and the release of Jelly belly (Jeb) by acetylcholinergic neurons. Jeb
- 566 promotes the FoxO phosphorylation in IPCs to allow the *dilp5* gene expression and DILPs
- 567 release. Glial cells express another amino-acid transporter Sobremesa (Sbm). Sobremesa is
- 568 involved in larval development by regulating PTTH secretion and therefore ecdysone.
- 569 AA: amino acids, Ach neuron: Acetylcholinergic neurons, Alk: Anaplastic lymphoma kinase
- 570 receptor, IPCs: Insulin Producing Cells, InR: Insulin Receptor, Jeb: Jelly belly, PTTH:
- 571 Prothoracicotropic Hormone, Sbm: Sobremesa, Slif: Slimfast, TORC1: Target of Rapamycin.









4)

High amino acid diet





