iPLA$_2$-VIA is required for healthy aging in neurons, muscle, and female germline
in _Drosophila melanogaster_

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Short title: _Drosophila iPLA2-VIA_ is required in female germ cells

Abbreviations: Phospholipase A$_2$ (PLA$_2$), calcium-independent phospholipase A$_2$-VIA
(iPLA$_2$-VIA), cardiolipin (CL), phosphatidylcholine (PC), phosphatidylethanolamine (PE),
endoplasmic reticulum (ER), spermatid individualization complex (IC), _PLA2G6_-
associated neurodegeneration (PLAN)

Abstract

Neurodegenerative disease (ND) is a growing health burden worldwide, but its causes and treatments remain elusive. Although most cases of ND are sporadic, rare familial cases have been attributed to single genes, which can be investigated in animal models. We have generated a new mutation in the calcium-independent phospholipase A$_2$ (iPLA$_2$) VIA gene *CG6718*, the *Drosophila melanogaster* ortholog of human *PLA2G6/PARK14*, mutations in which cause a suite of NDs collectively called *PLA2G6*-associated neurodegeneration (PLAN). Our mutants display age-related loss of climbing ability, a symptom of neurodegeneration in flies. Although phospholipase activity commonly is presumed to underlie iPLA$_2$-VIA function, locomotor decline in our mutants is rescued by a transgene carrying a serine-to-alanine mutation in the catalytic residue, suggesting that important functional aspects are independent of phospholipase activity. Additionally, we find that iPLA$_2$-VIA knockdown in either muscle or neurons phenocopies locomotor decline with age, demonstrating its necessity in both neuronal and non-neuronal tissues. Furthermore, RNA in situ hybridization shows high endogenous *iPLA$_2$-VIA* mRNA expression in adult germ cells, and transgenic HA-tagged iPLA$_2$-VIA colocalizes with mitochondria there. Mutant males are fertile with normal spermatogenesis, while fertility is reduced in mutant females. Mutant female germ cells display age-related mitochondrial aggregation, loss of mitochondrial potential, and elevated cell death. These results suggest that iPLA$_2$-VIA is important for germline mitochondrial integrity in *Drosophila,* which may be relevant for understanding how PLAN develops.

Introduction

As global population demographics have shifted toward older age,

neurodegenerative disease (ND) has become an increasing health burden worldwide

(1). Treatment has been confounded by the fact that loss of neurons in ND, which leads

to dementia and reduced motor control, is associated with numerous cytopathologies,

including DNA damage and epigenetic changes, mitochondrial and lysosomal

dysfunction, Ca^{+2} dysregulation, disrupted RNA and protein homeostasis, as well as

inflammation (1, 2). Thus, there is a pressing need to better understand the underlying

drivers of ND.

Parkinson's disease is the second most common ND, affecting ~1% of

individuals over the age of 60 (3). Most cases of Parkinson's disease are sporadic,

presumably arising from a complex interplay between genotype and environment. In

some cases, though, environmental toxins have been identified as direct causative

agents. For example, contamination of the synthetic opioid MPPP (1-methyl-4-phenyl-

4-propionoxy-piperidine) with MPTP (1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine),

which is metabolized to MPP^+ (1-methyl 4-pyridinium) in vivo, caused a cluster of acute

cases of parkinsonism amongst opiate users (4). The herbicide paraquat and the

pesticide rotenone also have been linked to the disease (5, 6). These toxins inhibit the

electron transport chain and promote oxidative stress, suggesting that mitochondrial

dysfunction is central, and potentially causative in some cases, to the disease pathology

(7, 8).

Several inherited disorders that bear striking resemblance to Parkinson's disease

have permitted identification of genetic contributors, the so-called *PARK* genes (9).

Many of these genes encode products that can localize to mitochondria and affect

mitochondrial activity and quality control, again suggesting a key role for mitochondrial

integrity in the disease and positioning it as a potential therapeutic target (7, 10).

PLA2G6/PARK14 encodes the group 6A calcium-independent phospholipase A_2 (iPLA$_2$-

VIA, also called iPLA$_2$-β). In 2006, this gene was linked to a group of severe NDs,

including infant neuroaxonal dystrophy and neurodegeneration with brain iron

accumulation, and three years later was found to be responsible for an autosomal

recessive dystonia-parkinsonism (11-14).

The iPLA$_2$-VIA enzyme, like other PLA$_2$s, hydrolyzes fatty acyl chains from the

sn-2 position of glycerophospholipids (15). Acting within the Lands Cycle of deacylation

and reacylation, PLA$_2$s promote phospholipid remodeling and repair (16). Acyl chain

remodeling seems to be especially important for the mitochondrial phospholipid

cardiolipin (CL), which is highly susceptible to oxidative damage due to its proximity to

the electron transport chain. In the absence of remodeling, accumulation of damaged

CL acyl chains is thought to reduce respiratory function and promote oxidative stress

and apoptosis (17, 18). iPLA$_2$-VIA can localize to mitochondria in several mammalian

cell types and has been implicated in CL remodeling (19-25). Moreover, *PLA2G6*

mutant animal models display features of ND along with mitochondrial abnormalities,

suggesting the possibility that *PLA2G6*-associated neurodegeneration (PLAN) arises

from mitochondrial dysfunction in the absence of CL repair (26-29). However, dramatic

CL molecular changes have not been found consistently in *PLA2G6* mutants (26, 27,

30), raising questions of how important iPLA$_2$-VIA is for CL remodeling and whether this

molecular process underlies PLAN.

iPLA$_2$-VIA hydrolyzes other phospholipids in addition to CL and can generate

signaling mediators (31). iPLA$_2$-VIA also bears near its N-terminus 8-9 ankyrin repeats,

which can serve as protein-protein interaction domains, although critical interactors

have yet to be characterized (32). It has been observed in a variety of subcellular

locations and has been implicated in numerous cellular activities, including cell cycle

progression, vesicle trafficking, Ca^{+2} homeostasis, ER stress, and apoptosis (15, 21, 31,

33-35). The relationships between iPLA$_2$-VIA's molecular, cellular, and physiological

functions currently are unclear. We investigated *iPLA$_2$-VIA* in *Drosophila melanogaster*

by determining its endogenous expression pattern and generating a new null mutant.

iPLA$_2$-VIA is expressed ubiquitously at low levels in imaginal tissues. Null mutants are

viable and show no synthetic lethality or sterility with two key phosphatidylcholine (PC)

metabolizing enzymes. Consistent with a number of recent reports, null *iPLA$_2$-VIA*

mutants show a striking decline in locomotor ability with age (26, 36, 37), which

surprisingly can be rescued by a catalytic-dead iPLA$_2$-VIA transgene. Whereas prior

reports have focused on neurons, for the purpose of modeling ND, we show here that

the locomotor decline can be phenocopied with either neuronal-specific or muscle-

specific knockdown in control flies, indicating the importance of this gene in multiple

adult tissue types. Furthermore, high endogenous expression is observed in both male

and female adult germ cells, and transgenic HA-tagged iPLA$_2$-VIA-PB localizes

prominently to mitochondria there. Although the mammalian homolog has been

implicated in male fertility (38), we observe normal fertility and spermatogenesis in male

iPLA$_2$-VIA mutant *Drosophila*. Still, female mutants have reduced fertility, with age-

dependent abnormal mitochondrial aggregation, reduced mitochondrial potential, and

elevated cell death in the germline. Taken together, our results demonstrate that iPLA$_2$-

VIA activity in both neurons and muscles protects from age-related locomotor decline

but implicate putative non-catalytic mechanisms in its protective function. We also show

that iPLA$_2$-VIA plays an important role at mitochondria in the female germline.

Results

A null iPLA$_2$-VIA mutation does not interact genetically with phospholipid metabolism genes

The *Drosophila melanogaster iPLA$_2$-VIA (CG6718)* locus encodes four predicted transcripts and two protein isoforms, which differ by 13 amino acids at their N termini (Fig. 1A). Both *Drosophila* isoforms are highly similar to mammalian iPLA$_2$-VIA, with a conserved ankyrin repeat region, catalytic residues, and a 1-9-14 calmodulin binding motif (Fig. 1B, (32), the *Drosophila* PA isoform shares 48% similarity and the PB isoform 47.5% similarity with the shorter human iPLA$_2$-VIA protein, and they are 50.4% and 49.9% similar to the longer human isoform, respectively). To generate a genomic mutation in *Drosophila iPLA$_2$-VIA,* we excised the P element EY5103 and isolated a 1.4 kb deletion, called *iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta23}$*, that spans the transcription initiation site as well as both predicted translation start codons (Fig. 1A). RT-PCR confirmed the absence of full-length *iPLA$_2$-VIA* mRNA in our mutant, while the EY5103 insertion line retains a low level of *iPLA$_2$-VIA* transcript (Fig. 1C, see also (36)). The null mutants are homozygous and hemizygous viable at room temperature (Table 1) but have reduced lifespans (not shown), as reported in previous studies (26, 36, 39).

Early studies implicated iPLA$_2$-VIA in phospholipid homeostasis (33). For example, overexpressing the phosphatidylcholine (PC) synthesis enzyme CDP phosphocholine cytidylyltransferase (Pcyt1) in mammalian cells led to compensatory upregulation of iPLA$_2$-VIA expression and activity, to catabolize the excess PC (40, 41). To explore whether this role is conserved at the organismal level in *Drosophila*, we obtained a Pcyt1 overexpression line, *GS15374,* and examined *iPLA$_2$-VIA* mRNA levels

by reverse transcription and PCR (RT-PCR). In whole flies, $iPLA_2$-VIA mRNA

expression does not increase when Pcyt1 is overexpressed (Fig. S1A, E). Additionally,

no lethality is observed when Pcyt1 is overexpressed in the $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta23}$ mutant (Table

2A), suggesting that $iPLA_2$-VIA is not uniquely essential to catabolize excess PC when

Pcyt1 is upregulated. We also tested for genetic interactions between our $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta23}$

mutation and $pcyt1$ loss of function (42), reasoning that removing $iPLA_2$-VIA from the

$pcyt1$ mutant might partially suppress its phenotype by allowing more PC to accumulate.

However, neither the lethality nor the sterility of $pcyt1^{16919}$ mutants is suppressed by the

absence of $iPLA_2$-VIA (Table 2B-D), and $iPLA_2$-VIA mRNA levels are not reduced in

$pcyt1$ mutant flies (Fig. S1B, F). Sws/NTE is a phospholipase in the same family as

$iPLA_2$-VIA and is known to be important for PC homeostasis (43). Loss of $iPLA_2$-VIA

does not enhance the lethality of sws^4 mutants (Table 3), suggesting that $iPLA_2$-VIA

does not compensate for Sws/NTE in processes that affect viability. Finally, $iPLA_2$-VIA

mRNA expression is unchanged in whole flies mutant for the ethanolamine kinase

$easily\ shocked\ (eas)$, a key enzyme in phosphatidylethanolamine (PE) synthesis (Fig.

S1C, G, (44)). Altogether, our results do not point to a major unique role for $Drosophila$

$iPLA_2$-VIA in phospholipid housekeeping.

$iPLA_2$-VIA in neurons and muscles maintains locomotor ability with age, via a

partially catalytic-independent activity

Because $iPLA_2$-VIA is associated with ND in humans, we tested our mutant flies

for their climbing ability, which is known to decline with age under conditions of

neurodegeneration (45). In accord with other reports, $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta23}$ mutants exhibit

climbing defects after 20 days of age, in contrast to background control and isogenic

control animals (Fig. 2A-B, light bars (26, 36, 39)). Ubiquitous expression of a C-

terminally HA-tagged iPLA$_2$-VIA-PB wild-type cDNA transgene rescues the climbing

ability of the mutant, confirming the locus-specificity of the defect (Fig. 2C-D, dark bars).

Surprisingly, a transgene in which the catalytic serine is replaced with an alanine

residue also rescues the climbing defect of mutant flies, although to a weaker extent

than the wild-type transgene, suggesting that iPLA$_2$-VIA function is partially independent

of catalytic activity (Fig. 2C-D, yellow bars, (32)).

Ubiquitous RNAi knockdown of *iPLA$_2$-VIA* using *tubulin-GAL4* phenocopies the

mutant in both males (Fig. 2E, gray bars) and females (Fig. 2F, gray bars). Knocking

down *iPLA$_2$-VIA* only in neurons with the *elav-GAL4* driver produces a climbing defect

that is markedly weaker than in the ubiquitous knockdown (Fig. 2G-H), suggesting a

possible requirement in additional tissues. In accord with this, RNAi knockdown of

iPLA$_2$-VIA with the muscle-specific driver *DJ667-GAL4* also reproduces the climbing

defect (Fig. 2I-J, gray bars). In comparison to knockdown of *pink1*, a gene required for

maintenance of muscle integrity with age (Fig. 2I-J, red bars, (46, 47)), *iPLA$_2$-VIA*

knockdown is comparable at 20 days in males and even stronger by 30 days of age in

both males and females. Thus, iPLA$_2$-VIA is required in neurons and muscle, and

possibly other tissues, for maintenance of normal locomotor activity with age. Publicly

available high throughput transcriptomic data show moderate to strong expression in

gut, fat body, and heart, all tissues known to affect aging (flybase.org; (48)).

Drosophila iPLA$_2$-VIA is expressed strongly in adult germline but is not required

for spermatogenesis

To explore further the endogenous expression of *Drosophila iPLA$_2$-VIA,* we

performed RNA in situ hybridization. We observe weak mRNA expression in wild-type

imaginal tissues and no detectable expression in wild-type larval brains (Fig. 3A-F).

Strikingly, strong expression is seen in the germ cells of both male and female adults

(Fig. 3G-H). Because iPLA$_2$-VIA has been implicated previously in mammalian male

fertility (38), we examined male fertility in our mutants. Surprisingly, *iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta23}$*

mutant males are fertile, even when they are aged (Fig. 4A-B).

Loss of function mutations in the enzyme Tafazzin (Taz), a mitochondrially-

localized transacylase responsible for most of the CL remodeling activity in cells, lead to

male infertility with defects in spermatid individualization in *Drosophila* (23, 49).

Previous results implicated iPLA$_2$-VIA in this pathway, with reduced *iPLA$_2$-VIA*

expression compensating for loss of *taz* in male fertility (23). We therefore closely

examined several aspects of spermatogenesis in *taz$^{\Delta161}$* or *iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta23}$* single mutants,

as well as in *taz$^{\Delta161}$; iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta23}$* double mutants. In both single mutants and the

double mutant, developmentally programmed mitochondrial aggregation is normal in

post-meiotic spermatids (Fig. 4C-F), and mitochondrial derivatives begin elongation

normally (Fig. 4G-J). At the individualization stage, the actin-rich individualization

complexes (ICs) can be detected by phalloidin staining (Fig. 4K, (50)). No IC defects

are seen in *iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta23}$* mutants (Fig. 4L). In contrast, ICs are highly disorganized in

taz$^{\Delta161}$ single mutants (Fig. 4M, (23)) and in *taz$^{\Delta161}$; iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta23}$* double mutants (Fig.

4N), with no rescue of the *taz* mutant phenotype by removal of *iPLA$_2$-VIA* (Fig. 4O). We

also tested the fertility of both $taz^{\Delta 161}$; $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta 23}$ double mutant males (n = 8) and

$taz^{\Delta 161}$; $iPLA_2$-VIA^{EY5103} double mutant males (n = 5) in individual crosses to *yw* females

and found both to be completely sterile (0 progeny produced over the course of five

days). Therefore, as the $iPLA_2$-VIA mutant neither shows similar defects to the *taz*

mutant nor rescues it, our data do not support the idea that $iPLA_2$-VIA is a critical unique

player in CL remodeling during *Drosophila* spermatogenesis.

Drosophila $iPLA_2$-VIA mutants have reduced female fertility with abnormal

mitochondrial distribution in the germline

Consistent with strong $iPLA_2$-VIA expression in the female germline (Fig. 3G),

there is a significant decrease in female fertility in $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta 23}$ homozygotes (Fig. 5A),

and the same effect is seen in hemizygotes, supporting the locus-specificity of the

phenotype (Fig. 5B). This is accompanied by a decrease in number of eggs laid (Fig.

5C-D) but not maternal lethality in embryos or larvae (Fig. S2), suggesting that $iPLA_2$-

VIA is necessary before fertilization, during oogenesis. Although major developmental

defects are not evident in $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta 23}$ mutant ovaries, we observe striking

mitochondrial aggregation in the germlines of aged mutant females. The

mitochondrially targeted fluorescent reporter transgene *Psqh-mito-EYFP*, which

consists of YFP fused to the mitochondrial localization signal of human cytochrome c

oxidase 8A, decorates a diffuse mitochondrial network in the nurse cells of young

females, in both null mutants and controls (Fig. 6A-B). By three weeks of age,

mitochondria aggregate abnormally in the mutant, despite maintaining their normal

diffuse localization in background control and heterozygous genotypes (Fig. 6C-D).

Aggregation is especially noticeable in mid-oogenesis stages 8-9. In younger egg

chambers, mitochondria are less diffuse even in control genotypes, making the mutant

phenotype harder to distinguish (for example, see Fig. 7A'). To quantify mitochondrial

aggregation, we used ImageJ to outline the mito-YFP signal areas. In egg chambers

with a normal diffuse mitochondrial network, the outlined mito-YFP signal is extensive

and complex, but in egg chambers with aggregated mitochondria, the outlines

separating areas of signal from background are sparser (Fig. 6E-F). Taking the raw

integrated density of the mito-YFP outlines in the area of the nurse cells in ImageJ

reveals a highly significant quantitative reduction in the intricacy of the mito-YFP

network in mutant germlines at mid-oogenesis compared to controls, in females three

weeks of age and older (Fig. 6G-H). Although $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta 23}$ mutant flies do not survive

to six weeks of age (26, 36, 39), neither control genotype nor mito-YFP stock

homozygotes show mitochondrial aggregation even at this late age (Fig. 6J, Fig. S3A-

B).

Because mitochondrial aggregation can result from damage (51, 52), we

examined mitochondrial potential in dissected ovaries using the potential-sensitive

fluorescent dye JC-1. $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta 23}$ mutant ovaries have reduced JC-1 fluorescence

compared to controls, indicating loss of mitochondrial potential (Fig. 6I). By five weeks

of age, germ cells of the mutant undergo apoptosis, with fragmented nuclei and cleaved

caspase-3 staining, in contrast to controls (Fig. 6K-M).

To confirm further that mitochondrial aggregation is independent of the mito-YFP

transgene, we examined another mitochondrial marker, immunofluorescence for the

ATP-5A protein. We again saw mitochondrial aggregation in germ cells from aged

iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$ mutant females and not in those from isogenic control flies (Fig. S3C-D),

but we were not able to quantify it due to the variability of the staining. We noticed,

though, that on average germ cells from aged *iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$* mutant females have lower

ATP-5A signal intensity than those from control flies (Fig. S3E-F), which might indicate

that damaged mitochondria in the mutant are subject to quality control mechanisms

involving degradation. We do not know why the mito-YFP marker appears more stable

than the endogenous ATP-5A protein.

iPLA$_2$-VIA-PB localizes to mitochondria in germ cells

Because iPLA$_2$-VIA has been implicated in many different activities in a variety of

cellular compartments, we generated an HA-tagged iPLA$_2$-VIA wild-type cDNA

transgene, PB isoform. After confirming that the transgene is active (Fig. 2C-D), we

examined its subcellular localization. In female germ cells, the transgene colocalizes

most strongly with a mitochondrial marker (Fig. 7A-C), consistent with the mitochondrial

defect in the mutant. The transgene also colocalizes strongly with a mitochondrial

marker in male germ cells (Fig. 7D-F). We additionally examined localization in somatic

cells using the large polyploid cells of the larval fat body and salivary gland (53).

Interestingly, colocalization in these tissues is strongest with a Golgi marker (Fig. S4A,

D), suggesting that subcellular localization of iPLA$_2$-VIA is regulated differently in

distinct cell types.

Discussion

iPLA$_2$-VIA in phospholipid metabolism

Tight regulation of iPLA$_2$-VIA levels and activity is important for cell cycle dependent phospholipid accumulation (54) and PC homeostasis (40, 41) in several mammalian cultured cell lines. However, genetic perturbation of the rate-limiting PC synthesis enzyme Pcyt1 in whole flies does not cause obvious changes in *iPLA$_2$-VIA* mRNA expression (Fig. S1), nor do we find evidence of genetic interactions between *iPLA$_2$-VIA* and *pcyt1* in viability or fertility (Table 2). To our knowledge, this is the first report on a possible genetic interaction between *iPLA$_2$-VIA* and *pcyt1* in an intact organism. *iPLA$_2$-VIA* also shows no genetic redundancy for viability with *sws/NTE,* a conserved paralog important for PC homeostasis (Table 3, (43)). We see no global downregulation of *iPLA$_2$-VIA* mRNA in an *eas* mutant with reduced PE levels either (Fig. S1). *iPLA$_2$-VIA* mRNA expression is very low in wild-type imaginal discs (Fig. 3), despite substantial cell proliferation there (55), and *iPLA$_2$-VIA* null mutants are developmentally viable (Table 1). Altogether, our data suggest that iPLA$_2$-VIA does not play unique roles in phospholipid accumulation in *Drosophila*, consistent with recent mass spectrometry analysis of another *iPLA$_2$-VIA* knockout mutant (39).

iPLA$_2$-VIA in male fertility and CL remodeling

We expected that, like the mouse ortholog, *Drosophila* iPLA$_2$-VIA would be important for male fertility, in accord with its high expression in the male germline (Fig. 3, (38)). Furthermore, it was reported to interact genetically with the mitochondrially-localized CL remodeling enzyme Taz in *Drosophila* male fertility (23). We observed

iPLA$_2$-VIA colocalization with mitochondria in male germ cells (Fig. 7), as has been

documented in cultured mammalian cells (19, 21). Surprisingly, however, *iPLA$_2$-VIA*

mutant males are fully fertile, with normal spermatid mitochondrial morphogenesis and,

unlike the *taz* mutant, normal spermatid individualization (Fig. 4). Moreover, we find no

evidence that *iPLA$_2$-VIA* loss of function mutations interact genetically with *taz,* in

contrast to a prior report (23). Our genetic data in the testis therefore may argue

against the idea that iPLA$_2$-VIA is a major unique player in CL remodeling. This is

consistent with mass spectrometry results showing minimal CL changes in *iPLA$_2$-VIA*

hypomorphic mutant heads or whole flies (26, 30) and with recent studies indicating that

Taz can remodel CL independently of phospholipases (56).

iPLA$_2$-VIA in female fertility

iPLA$_2$-VIA mRNA is highly expressed in the wild-type female germline (Fig. 3G),

and *iPLA$_2$-VIA* mutant females have reduced fertility compared to controls (Fig. 5).

Despite normal ovariole morphology, germ cells in aged *iPLA$_2$-VIA* mutant females have

abnormally aggregated mitochondria with decreased membrane potential, and they

eventually die by apoptosis (Fig. 6). In HeLa cells, pharmacological disruption of

mitochondrial membrane potential induces aggregation via stabilization of the

mitochondrially targeted kinase PINK1 and recruitment of its substrate and partner

Parkin, an E3 ubiquitin ligase. Ubiquitinated Parkin substrates on the outer

mitochondrial surface recruit the autophagy receptor p62/SQSTM1, which promotes

aggregation, possibly for sequestration before degradation by mitophagy (51, 52).

Intriguingly, mitochondrial aggregation in *Drosophila* female germ cells has been

observed in *pink1* and *parkin* mutants, similarly to *iPLA$_2$-VIA* mutants (57, 58). This

might suggest a parallel mechanism for mitochondrial damage detection and

aggregation, independent of the PINK1-Parkin pathway, that perhaps relies on another

mitophagy receptor, for example BNIP3, which is known to be active in the female

germline (59, 60). It is tempting to propose that in the absence of iPLA$_2$-VIA, PINK1, or

Parkin, mitochondrial damage accumulates and leads to aggregation. Eventually,

persistent mitochondrial damage may overwhelm cytoprotective mechanisms like

aggregation and mitophagy, leading to apoptosis. We thus hypothesize that iPLA$_2$-VIA

protects germline mitochondria from accumulated injury that can result in apoptosis, as

in other contexts (19, 22, 25). A direct effect is supported by the localization of iPLA$_2$-

VIA to mitochondria in germ cells (Fig. 7). Reduced mitochondrial membrane potential

also has been observed in brains of an *iPLA$_2$-VIA* hypomorph (26), possibly suggesting

a mechanistic connection between the germline and neuronal phenotypes

iPLA$_2$-VIA in neuromuscular degeneration

Our *iPLA$_2$-VIA* mutants show a severe decline in locomotor ability with age, like

other *Drosophila* and mouse mutant models (Fig. 2, (26, 36, 37, 61-63)). Phenocopy by

RNAi knockdown in neurons is consistent with the idea that iPLA$_2$-VIA acts

autonomously to protect against neurodegeneration (26, 36). Our data suggest that

iPLA$_2$-VIA also is important in other tissues to prevent locomotor decline, notably

muscle, in accord with a report of muscle degeneration in two human PLAN patients

(64). The strength of the phenocopy with muscle-specific knockdown is comparable to

that seen for *pink1* (Fig. 2)*. PINK1* and its partner *parkin* are well-established disease

loci for autosomal recessive parkinsonism in humans (10). As discussed above, PINK1

accumulates on the outer mitochondrial membrane under stress conditions and recruits

Parkin to activate quality control mechanisms, including mitophagy, that maintain the

overall integrity of the cellular mitochondrial network (65). In their absence,

accumulation of damaged mitochondria leads to degeneration of neurons, as well as

muscle in *Drosophila* (46, 47). The parkinsonism in human patients, as well as the

locomotor defects and germline mitochondrial aggregation in flies, suggest some

similarities between loss of *iPLA$_2$-VIA* and loss of *pink1* or *parkin* (57, 58). Notably,

however, *Drosophila pink1* and *parkin* mutants display locomotor defects at earlier time

points, as well as other indications of muscle degeneration, including crushed thoraces

and wing posture abnormalities, not seen in *iPLA$_2$-VIA* mutants (46, 47). Additionally,

the normal fertility and spermatid mitochondrial morphology in *iPLA$_2$-VIA* mutant males

stand in contrast to the highly penetrant male germline defects of *pink1* and *parkin*

mutants (46, 47, 66).

Although many studies have implicated iPLA$_2$-VIA in mitochondrial maintenance

via catalytic removal of damaged phospholipid acyl chains, our data show that a

transgene with a serine-to-alanine mutation in the catalytic site can rescue the climbing

defect of the mutant, consistent with another report in which a human iPLA$_2$-VIA

transgene carrying the analogous catalytic site mutation rescued bang-sensitivity and

lifespan defects of *iPLA$_2$-VIA* mutants (39). This suggests that phospholipase activity is

not the only important aspect in iPLA$_2$-VIA mediated cytoprotection, possibly explaining

the observation that mutations associated with dystonia-parkinsonism do not disrupt

catalytic activity (67). Moreover, while loss of iPLA$_2$-VIA is associated with aberrant

mitochondrial morphology in neurons, it also is accompanied by defects in numerous

other processes, including Ca^{+2} homeostasis, ER membrane equilibrium, and vesicle

trafficking (26-28, 34, 39).   Thus, as with other forms of neurodegeneration, further

investigation is necessary to determine which defects are drivers and which are

passengers in PLAN.

Materials and Methods

Drosophila strains

Drosophila were raised on standard media at 23°C. *yw (BDSC_6599), P[EPgy2]iPLA2-VIA^{EY5103} (BDSC_15947), Df(3L)BSC394 (BDSC_24418), Df(3L)BSC282 (BDSC_23667), pcyt1^{16919} (BDSC_7319), sws^4 (BDSC_28121), HMS01544 (BDSC_36129), UAS-mCherry-mitoOMM (BDSC_66532* and *BDSC_66533), Psqh-mito-EYFP (BDSC_7194), DJ667-GAL4 (BDSC_8171),* and *pink1-RNAi (HMS02204, BDSC_41671)* were from Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center; *P[GSV6]GS15374* (*DGGR_206187*) was from Kyoto *Drosophila* Genomics and Genetic Resource Center; *tubulin-GAL4* and *elav-GAL4* were gifts from J. Treisman; *bam-GAL4-VP16* was a gift from Y. Yamashita; *NGT40-GAL4* was a gift from R. Lehmann; *eas^{KO}* and isogenic controls were gifts from the Jan lab (44); *taz^{Δ161}* mutants were a gift from M. Schlame and M. Ren (68).

The *iPLA$_2$-VIA^{Δ23}* mutant was generated by excision of the P element EY5103, which is marked with mini-w+. The location of EY5103 was confirmed by inverse PCR before excision. Over 450 w- lines were screened for lesions in the region of interest by PCR with primers flanking the insertion site (F: 5'-CCGTGCTCTGTGGAATCAGT-3', R: 5'-GCGCCAAAGCTAGAATTCCG-3'). Mutant line Δ23 was identified in the PCR screen, and the genomic region of *iPLA$_2$-VIA* was sequenced to confirm the lesion. Several precise excision lines from the screen were kept as isogenic controls and confirmed by sequencing to be wild-type in the *iPLA$_2$-VIA* gene region. This sequencing also confirmed that the same polymorphisms were present in the Δ23 line and the precise excision lines. Revertant line Δ11 was used as the isogenic control in all

experiments described here. All recombinant chromosomes made with the *iPLA$_2$-*

VIA^{Δ23} allele were confirmed by PCR.

RT-PCR

Whole fly RNA was prepared from mixed sex samples (5-15 flies per sample,

flies < 1 week old) with Trizol reagent (Invitrogen) according the manufacturer's

protocol. RNA preparations were treated with DNase I to remove genomic DNA (New

England Biolabs) and quantified using NanoDrop (ThermoFisher). cDNAs were reverse

transcribed using Superscript III (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's protocol,

from an equal mass of RNA for each sample per experiment (1-1.5 µg).

Qualitative PCRs were 25 cycles, unless noted otherwise. Experimental (*iPLA$_2$-*

VIA) and control primers (*actin*) were included in the same tube to control for pipetting.

All experiments were repeated in triplicate. Quantifications were performed using Bio-

Rad ImageLab 5.0. PCR primers were as follows:

Gene	Forward primer	Reverse Primer
iPLA$_2$-VIA	5´-CGACCCACCTCGGATTCC-3'	5´-GACCACCAGACATTGGACG-3'
actin	5'-CCATCAGCCAGCAGTCGTCTAATC-3'	5'-GGTTGGCCTTGGGGTTCAGC-3'
pcyt1	5'-TCAATGGCGAAAGCACTCGT-3'	5'-CGAATCGCGGGTATCTGGA-3'

425 Quantitative PCRs were performed on cDNA samples diluted 6x, using SYBR

426 green + regular ROX mix (MCLab, HSM-400). Reactions were run on an Applied

427 Biosystems 7300 Real-Time PCR System. Primers were:

Gene	Forward primer	Reverse Primer
iPLA$_2$-VIA	5´-CGGCCCTATAACAGCGAGTT-3'	5´-AAATGTCACTGGCGCTCGTA-3'
rp49	5'-CCAAGCACTTCATCCGCCACC-3'	5'-GCGGGTGCGCTTGTTCGATCC-3'

Climbing assays

Climbing tests were performed as in (69). Groups of 6-13 male or female flies

were tapped to the bottom of a fresh food vial and given 20 s to climb 6 cm, into a new

empty vial placed on top of the old one. Each group was given five climbing trials per

assay. Each fly in the group was given one point for every success, and the total

number of points for the group was divided by the number of flies in the group to yield

the climbing index. Climbing indices were averaged for at least 6 groups per condition

and plotted with standard deviations. Climbing indices for each condition were verified

for normal distribution around the average. Statistical comparisons by unpaired t-tests.

Transgene generation

The wild-type iPLA$_2$-VIA-PB transgene was generated by PCR from publicly

available iPLA$_2$-VIA cDNA (https://dgrc.bio.indiana.edu/, clone RE23733) using

Platinum *Pfx* polymerase (Life Technologies, 11708013) and cloned into pUASg-

HA.attB (http://www.flyc31.org/) or pPWH

(https://dgrc.bio.indiana.edu/vectors/Catalog?product_category=3) using the Gateway

system (Life Technologies). PCR primers were: 5'-

(CACC)ATGGCGTGGATGGCGTTAG-3' and 5'-AATCCGTCTTGCATGCGATTTTAG-

3'. To introduce the serine-to-alanine mutation, an upstream PCR product was

generated with primers 5'-TCTGTACCGGTCGCCGGTG-3' and 5'-

TAGAATTCCGCCAGTAGCGGTGCCGG-3', and a downstream PCR product was

generated with primers 5'-ATTGCCGGCACCGCTACTGGCGGAATT-3' and 5'-

CATGGCGTCTAGAGTCGGGTTGT-3'. The upstream and downstream PCR products

were annealed and used as template to generate a PCR product spanning the entire

segment. The mutated segment was cloned to replace the corresponding wild-type

segment using the unique SgrA1 and Xba1 restriction sites. PCR products were

cleaned with QIAquick PCR Purification kit (Qiagen 28104), digested DNA was cleaned

with QIAquick Gel Extraction kit (Qiagen 28704), and plasmid DNA was prepared with

QIAprep Spin Miniprep kit (Qiagen 27104) and Qiagen Plasmid Midi kit (Qiagen 12143).

All constructs were verified by sequencing (Eton Bioscience) before injecting into flies

(Genetivision).

RNA in situ hybridizations

iPLA$_2$-VIA cDNA plasmid (https://dgrc.bio.indiana.edu/, clone RE23733) was

linearized with BamH1 (sense) or Not1 (antisense) restriction digest, and digoxigenin-

labeled RNA probes were transcribed using a digoxigenin-UTP in vitro transcription

labeling mix (Roche) and either T7 or T3 RNA polymerase (Roche). Transcripts were

carbonate-treated to reduce their size.

For imaginal discs, protocol was adapted from (70). Third instar larvae were

dissected in PBS and fixed in 4% formaldehyde/PBT (PBT is PBS/0.1% Tween-20) for 1

h at 4°C. Tissues were washed once in 50% PBT:methanol and once in 100%

methanol before overnight storage in 100% methanol at -20°C. After two ethanol

washes, tissues were incubated in 1:1 xylenes:ethanol for 1 h at 4°C. Tissues were

washed again twice in ethanol and once in 50% methanol, and then incubated in 80%

acetone for 10 min at -20°C. Tissues were washed twice in PBT and re-fixed in 4%

formaldehyde/PBT for 20 min at 4°C. After three PBT washes, tissues were equilibrated

into hybridization buffer and hybridized overnight at 65°C with digoxigenin-labeled RNA

probes. The next day, tissues were equilibrated back into PBT, washed extensively,

and incubated with alkaline phosphatase conjugated anti-digoxigenin antibody (1:1000,

Roche) for 1 h at room temperature. After several PBT washes, tissues were washed in

AP buffer and color was developed using NBT and BCIP substrates. Hybridization and

color development were performed as in (71). Larval and imaginal tissues were

mounted in 80% glycerol.

For ovaries, protocol was performed as in (71).

For testes, protocol was performed as in (72). Stained testes were mounted in

60% glycerol:PBS.

Tissue staining and immunofluorescence

For phalloidin staining, testes were dissected in PBS and fixed in 5%

formaldehyde/PBX (PBS/0.1% Triton X-100) for 20 min at room temperature, washed in

PBX for 15–20 min, and stained with rhodamine-phalloidin (1:200, Sigma-Aldrich) and

DAPI (1:4000, Roche) for 20 min at room temperature. Following three washes in PBX,

tissues were mounted in Fluoromount G (Southern Biotechnology).

For antibody staining, testes were fixed and washed as above. Testes were

blocked in PBS + 5% normal donkey serum + 1% Triton X-100 before the primary

antibody incubation. Primary antibody incubations were performed overnight (in PBX +

5-10% normal donkey serum) at 4°C, washed three times in PBX, and incubated with

secondary antibodies, DAPI, and rhodamine-phalloidin for 2 hours at room temperature.

Larvae were dissected in PBS and fixed in 4% formaldehyde for 30 min at 4°C.

Tissues were blocked in PBS + 5% normal donkey serum before the primary antibody

incubation. For ovary antibody staining, adult females were mated to males on live

yeast paste for 1-2 days before dissections. Ovaries were dissected in PBS and

combed open, fixed in 5% formaldehyde for 13 min at room temperature, rinsed in PBX,

washed 3-4 times in PBX, and blocked in PBS + 5% normal donkey serum + 1% Triton

X-100 before primary antibody incubation. Antibody incubations were performed as

above.

Primary antibodies used were mouse anti-ATP-5A (1:1000, Abcam), mouse anti-

Calnexin 99A (1:2, Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, ER marker), mouse anti-

Golgin 84 (1:2, Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, Golgi marker), rat anti-HA

(1:100, Roche 3F10), rabbit anti-cleaved caspase 3 (1:100, Cell Signaling Technology

9664), and rabbit anti-GFP (1:5000, Life Technologies A6455). Secondary antibodies

were Alexa Fluor® 488-AffiniPure Donkey Anti-Rat or Anti-Rabbit IgG and Cy3-

AffiniPure Donkey Anti-Mouse IgG or Anti-Rat IgG (1:200, Jackson ImmunoResearch).

Images were captured using an Olympus IX-81 motorized inverted microscope

with XM-10 monochrome camera (lenses: 10x/0.3 NA, 20x/0.75 NA, 40x oil/1.3 NA, 60x

oil/1.35 NA), Zeiss LSM510 Confocal (lenses: 10x/0.3 NA, 20x/0.8 NA, 40x/0.75 NA,

40x oil/1.30 NA), or Zeiss LSM800 Confocal (lenses: 10x/0.3 NA, 20x/0.8 NA, 40x

oil/1.3 NA). ICs were scored as described in (73).

Testis squashes

Internal reproductive organs were dissected from newly eclosed males in PBS,

placed in a drop of PBS on a coverslip and punctured. A glass microscope slide was

placed on top of the coverslip to squash the testes, and phase-contrast images were

collected within 30 min of dissection using an Olympus IX-71 inverted microscope with

Nikon Digital Sight camera with DS-U2 controller (20x lens/0.40 NA).

Fertility tests

For male fertility tests, ten males of each genotype were mated individually to two

3-4 day old *yw* virgin females at 23ºC. The males were discarded after one day, and

the females were transferred to fresh vials each day for three more days and discarded

on day 5. Progeny per vial were counted and averaged.

For homozygous female fertility tests, ten virgin females of each genotype were

mated individually to two *yw* males at 23^oC. All flies were 3 days old at the time of

mating. For hemizygous female fertility tests, virgin females less than one week old

were mated to 1-day old w^{1118} males at 23^oC. The males were discarded after one day,

and the females were transferred to fresh vials each day for three more days and

discarded on day 5. Progeny per vial were counted and averaged.

For egg laying tests, 20 virgin mutant or control females were mated individually

to one 7-day old w^{1118} male each at 23^oC. Young females were 7 days old at the time of

mating; aged females were 18-19 days old at the time of mating. The males were

discarded after one day, and the females were transferred to fresh vials each day for

three more days and discarded on day 5. Eggs per vial were counted daily.

Maternal lethality tests were conducted by mating 20-25 young (<10 day old)

iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta23}$ or isogenic control females to control males and transferring them to cages

with grape juice plates and live yeast paste overnight at 23°C. After 20 hours of egg-

laying, 90-120 eggs from each genotype were collected per experiment and moved to

new plates at 23°C. Larvae were collected and counted every 24 hours at 23°C. Third

instar larvae were moved to vials, and pupae were counted at 23°C. The results of

three experiments were averaged.

Mito-YFP quantification

iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta23}$ mutant (*Psqh-mito-EYFP, iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta23}$/iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta23}$*), heterozygote

(*Psqh-mito-EYFP,   iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta23}$/revertantΔ11*),   and   control   females   (*Psqh-mito-*

EYFP/revertantΔ11) expressing *Psqh-mito-EYFP* were aged in groups of 10-20 flies at

23°C. Females were mated to males on live yeast paste 1-2 days before dissection.

Ovaries were dissected and stained with anti-GFP antibodies as described above.

Every stage 8 or 9 egg chamber from each sample was photographed using identical

confocal settings and 40x oil objective. After drawing an ROI around the nurse cell area

and removing background signal with the same threshold, each image was converted to

binary in ImageJ. Each binary image was converted to outlines, and the raw integrated

density was measured for the ROI.

JC-1 fluorimetry

18-30 ovaries per sample were dissected from age-matched *iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta23}$*

mutant, heterozygote, and control flies (genotypes and aging conditions as above).

Tissues were immediately transferred to cold 1x PBS. Sigma mitochondrial isolation kit

(Sigma, MITOISO1) was used to extract mitochondria and perform the JC-1 assay

according to the manufacturer's protocol, as follows. After discarding the PBS, each

tissue sample was rinsed twice with cooled 1x Extraction Buffer using a glass Pasteur

pipet. In a 3 ml glass homogenizer, the lysate was prepared in 1 mL of cooled 1x

Extraction Buffer containing 2 mg/ml albumin and transferred to a microcentrifuge tube.

The lysate was spun at 1000 x g for 5 minutes at 4°C to remove cell debris, and the

transferred supernatant was spun at 13,000 x g for 10 minutes at 4°C to obtain the

mitochondrial pellet. The pellet was resuspended in cooled 1x Extraction Buffer

(without albumin) by pipetting, and the two centrifugation steps were repeated to get the

mitochondria-enriched pellet, which was resuspended in cooled 1x Storage Buffer and

stored on ice for immediate use or at 4°C for a maximum of 24 hours. Mitochondrial

protein concentration was determined by Bradford assay using a Beckman DU800

spectrophotometer. Sample concentrations were equilibrated with storage buffer. JC-1

assays were performed in clear bottom 96-well plates using a Beckman Coulter

DTX800 spectrofluorometer. Each JC-1 reaction mixture of 100 µl was prepared with

the same amount of mitochondrial sample (5-7 µg of mitochondrial protein per reaction),

1 µl of the JC-1 solution (final concentration 10 µg/ml) and 0.5 µl of the electron

transport chain complex III inhibitor Antimycin A (final concentration 200 µg/ml) or 0.5 µl

of the vehicle DMSO. Three technical replicates were prepared for each sample along

with a blank lacking mitochondrial sample. After 10 minutes in the dark at room

temperature, fluorescence intensity was measured using excitation wavelength of 485

nm, emission wavelength of 595 nm, and integration time of 1000 ms. The average

fluorescence per mg of protein of each biological sample was calculated across

technical replicates and converted to relative percentage of the isogenic control. For

each genotype, 3-4 biological replicates were averaged.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. A new mutant allele of *Drosophila iPLA₂-VIA*. (A) Map of the *CG6718*

iPLA₂-VIA gene (light blue) showing the insertion site of the EY5103 P element

(triangle), predicted transcripts with start codons (green arrows), and the 1.4 kb Δ23

deletion (breakpoints indicated by the dark blue lines). (B) Domain mapping of primary

structures demonstrates high homology between *Drosophila* and human iPLA₂-VIA.

Colors are as in (32), with red indicating the ankyrin repeats (Ank; the ninth ankyrin

repeat in the shorter mammalian iPLA₂-VIA isoform is disrupted by additional residues

in the fly proteins and in the longer mammalian iPLA₂-VIA isoform, indicated here in

orange), green indicating the oxyanion hole that coordinates the substrate during

catalysis (Oxy), pink indicating the catalytic site (Cat, GT$\underline{S}$TG) and catalytic aspartate

residue (Cat D), and blue indicating the 1-9-14 calmodulin binding motif (CaM). (C)

Whole fly RT-PCR demonstrates the absence of full-length *iPLA₂-VIA* mRNA in the Δ23

mutant. The EY5103 insertion line retains low levels of *iPLA₂-VIA* mRNA.

Figure 2. Impaired climbing ability in aged *iPLA₂-VIA^{Δ23}* mutants can be rescued

by a catalytic dead *iPLA₂-VIA-PB* transgene and phenocopied with neuronal or

muscle knockdown. (A-B) Male (A, light blue) and female (B, light pink) *iPLA₂-VIA^{Δ23}*

mutant adults have normal climbing ability until 20 days of age at room temperature.

After 20 days, climbing ability declines compared to *yw* (black) and isogenic controls

(dark blue in A, and dark red in B). Newly eclosed isogenic control males (A, dark blue)

show slightly reduced climbing ability compared to *yw* males. (C-D) *Tubulin-GAL4*

driven expression of wild-type *UAS-iPLA₂-VIA-HA* in males (C, dark blue bars) and

females (D, dark red bars) at 26°C rescues the climbing defect of aged *iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$*

mutants at 15 and 20 days of age. 26°C was used to increase GAL4 activity in rescue

and knockdown experiments. Note that mutant flies show climbing defects by 15 days

at this higher temperature. In this experiment, mutants carry the GAL4 driver without

the resue transgene (light blue bars in C, and light pink bars in D). *Tubulin-GAL4* driven

expression of a *UAS-iPLA$_2$-VIA-SA* transgene carrying a serine-to-alanine mutation in

the catalytic residue at 26°C also partially rescues the climbing defect (yellow bars),

although rescue is weaker than with the wild-type transgene. Wild-type and SA

transgenes were transformed into the same genomic locus using the phi-C31 system.

(E-F) Ubiquitous expression of *UAS*-driven double stranded RNA targeting *iPLA$_2$-VIA*

(*HMS01544*) with *tubulin-GAL4* at 26°C phenocopies the climbing defect in male (E)

and female (F) flies (gray bars, compared to *GAL4*-only controls, black bars).

Knockdown flies die by 35 and 40 days of age in males and females, respectively. (G-

H) Expressing *HMS01544* in neurons only with *elav-GAL4* at 26°C weakly phenocopies

the climbing defect in male (G) and female (H) flies (gray bars, compared to *GAL4*-only

controls, black bars). (I-J) Expressing *HMS01544* in muscles only with *DJ667-GAL4*

produces a strong phenocopy of the age-induced climbing defect in male (I) and female

(J) flies, similar to that resulting from knockdown of *pink1 (HMS02204,* red bars). Note

that *pink1* knockdown flies also have moderately reduced climbing ability at 10 days of

age compared to *iPLA2-VIA* knockdown flies, but this was not statistically significant

compared to GAL4-only controls. Number of groups (first number) and number of flies

(second number) assayed for each condition is shown on the graphs. Bars represent

the average climbing index for each condition. Error bars are standard deviations.

Differences assessed by unpaired t-test, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.005, ****p <

0.0005.

Figure 3. *iPLA$_2$-VIA* mRNA is highly expressed in the adult germline. In situ

hybridization to endogenous *iPLA$_2$-VIA* mRNA (purple) in *w^{1118}* animals shows weak

ubiquitous expression in wild-type wing imaginal discs (A) and eye-antennal discs (C).

Sense probes (B, D) were used as controls. Expression is negligible in larval brains (E,

compare to sense probe control in F). Strong expression is seen in both female (G) and

male (H) adult germlines. Scale bars: 100 µm.

Figure 4. Male fertility and spermatogenesis are normal in *iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$* mutants.

(A-B) Young (A, 4-5 day old) and aged (B, 20-21 day old) *iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$* mutant males

(light blue bars) show no fertility defect compared to isogenic controls (dark blue bars).

Bars depict average number of adult progeny produced by 10 individual males over the

course of four days, error bars represent standard deviation. (C-J) Testis squashes

reveal normal post-meiotic mitochondrial Nebenkerne (phase-dark structures, indicated

by the magenta arrow in C) in *iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$* mutants (D), *taz$^{\Delta 161}$* mutants (E), and *taz$^{\Delta 161}$*

iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$ double mutants (F), and each Nebenkern is paired with a similarly sized

nucleus (phase-light structures, indicated by the magenta arrowhead in C). In slightly

later spermatogenic cysts (G-J), mitochondrial derivatives (indicated by magenta arrows

in G) elongate normally in all genotypes. Scale bars: 20 µm. (K-N) Phalloidin staining

reveals the individualization complexes (ICs) of the maturing spermatids. In *iPLA$_2$-*

VIA$^{\Delta 23}$ mutants, ICs are normal (L), in contrast with *taz$^{\Delta 161}$* mutants, in which ICs are

highly disorganized (M). $taz^{\Delta 161}$ $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta 23}$ double mutants show disorganized ICs

(N), like $taz^{\Delta 161}$ single mutants. Scale bar: 20 µm. (O) IC quantification shows no

rescue of the $taz^{\Delta 161}$ individualization phenotype by $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta 23}$ mutation. Number of

testes (first number) and number of individualization complexes (second number)

quantified for each genotype are indicated on the graph. Bars depict the average

number of normal ICs for each genotype, error bars represent standard deviation.

Differences assessed by unpaired t-test, *****$p < 10^{-5}$, n.s. indicates not significant.

Figure 5. Female fertility is reduced in *$iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta 23}$* mutants. (A) Young (<1 week

old) *$iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta 23}$* homozygous mutant females (light pink bars) produce fewer adult

progeny compared to isogenic controls (dark red bars). Bars depict average number of

adult progeny produced by 10 individual females over the course of four days, error

bars represent standard deviations. (B) Hemizygous mutant females (*$iPLA_2$-*

$VIA^{\Delta 23}$/Df(3L)BSC282) produce fewer adult progeny compared to isogenic controls.

Dark red bars represent average number of adult progeny produced by 10 individual

females over the course of four days, error bars are standard deviations. (C-D) Egg

laying by *$iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta 23}$* mutants is reduced compared to isogenic controls in young (C,

one week old) and aged (D, 18-19 day old) females. Dark red bars represent average

number of eggs produced by 20 individual females over the course of four days, error

bars are standard deviations. Differences assessed by unpaired t-test, n.s. not

significant, *$p < 0.1$, **$p < 0.02$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$.

Figure 6. Germ cells from *iPLA2-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$* mutant females have abnormal mitochondrial distribution, reduced mitochondrial potential, and elevated apoptosis. (A-B) *Psqh-mito-EYFP* (white) was used to observe the mitochondrial distribution in female germ cells from young (<1 week old) *iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$* mutants (*Psqh-mito-EYFP, iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$/iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$*) and heterozygous controls (*Psqh-mito-EYFP, iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$/revertant$\Delta 11$*). Nuclei are stained with DAPI (magenta). (C-D) Mito-YFP labeled mitochondria appear clumpy in germ cells from aged (3 week old) *iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$* female flies (D) but not controls (C, *Psqh-mito-EYFP/revertant$\Delta 11$*; for *Psqh-mito-EYFP, iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$/revertant$\Delta 11$* heterozygotes see quantification in G and H). (E-H) Mito-YFP signal within the area of the germline nurse cells was outlined using ImageJ (E-F, yellow outlines) and the raw integrated density of the outline signal was used to quantify clumpiness (G-H). Homozygous *iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$* mutants (dark red, *Psqh-mito-EYFP, iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$/iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$*, n=39) show significantly reduced mito-YFP outline signal compared to heterozygotes (gray, *Psqh-mito-EYFP, iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$/revertant$\Delta 11$,* n=43) and isogenic controls (black, *Psqh-mito-EYFP/revertant$\Delta 11$,* n=19) at 3 weeks (G) and 4 weeks old (H; black, *Psqh-mito-EYFP/revertant$\Delta 11$,* n=42; gray, *Psqh-mito-EYFP, iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$/revertant$\Delta 11$,* n=67; dark red, *Psqh-mito-EYFP, iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$/iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$*, n=50), indicating increased clumpiness. Bars represent averages and standard deviations for each condition. Differences assessed by unpaired t-test, ****$p < 0.0001$, *****$p < 10^{-6}$. (I) Ovaries from 4 week old *iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$* females (dark red bar) show reduced JC-1 fluorescence compared to age matched controls (black, *Psqh-mito-EYFP/revertant$\Delta 11$;* gray, *Psqh-mito-EYFP, iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$/revertant$\Delta 11$*) using plate-based fluorimetry. In each experiment, the red (595 nm) JC-1 fluorescence of the

heterozygote or the mutant is expressed as a percentage of the fluorescence of the

control, and 3-4 biological replicates are averaged. Error bars are standard deviations.

Antimycin A was used as a mitochondrial poison to demonstrate the specificity of the

JC-1 signal. (J) Controls (*Psqh-mito-EYFP/revertantΔ11*) do not show mito-YFP

clumpiness even at 6 weeks of age, while *iPLA₂-VIA$^{\Delta23}$* mutant females do not survive to

6 weeks. (K) By 5 weeks of age, *iPLA₂-VIA$^{\Delta23}$* mutants show increased levels of

germline apoptosis, marked by cleaved caspase-3 staining (green) and fragmentation of

the nurse cell nuclei (DAPI, magenta), quantified in M. (L-M) The percentage of

ovarioles containing dying egg chambers (green bars) is elevated in *iPLA₂-VIA$^{\Delta23}$*

mutants compared to isogenic controls at 5 weeks of age (M, >1300 ovarioles counted

for each genotype across four biological replicates) but not 4 weeks (L, >900 ovarioles

counted for each genotype across three biological replicates). Dying egg chambers

were identified by their fragmented nurse cell nuclei and cleaved caspase-3 staining, as

shown in (K). Statistical comparison by two proportion z-test, ****p < 0.0001. Scale

bars: 20 μm.

Figure 7. iPLA₂-VIA-PB protein localizes to mitochondria in the female and male

germ cells. (A-C) In the female germline, HA-tagged wild-type iPLA₂-VIA-PB (green,

grayscale shown in A"-C", expressed with *NGT40-GAL4*) strongly colocalizes with a

mitochondrial marker (A, red, *Psqh-mito-EYFP*, arrowheads) and shows minimal

colocalization with Golgi (B, red, anti-Golgin 84) and ER (C, red, anti-Calnexin 99A)

markers. Individual channels for mitochondria, Golgi, and ER shown in A', B', C',

respectively. (D-F) In male germ cells, iPLA₂VIA-PB (green, expressed with *bam-GAL4-*

VP16) also colocalizes more strongly with a mitochondrial marker (D, red, *UAS-*

mCherry-mitoOMM) than Golgi (E, red) or ER (F, red) markers. Scale bars: 20 μm.

A. iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$ sib-mate

	Observed	Expected	Viability
Homozygotes	73	64	114%
Balancer siblings	128		
		p=	0.260

B. iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$ x Df(3L)BSC394

	Observed	Expected	Viability
Hemizygotes	105	99	106%
Balancer siblings	99		
		p=	0.546

C. iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$ x Df(3L)BSC282

	Observed	Expected	Viability
Hemizygotes	126	138	91%
Balancer siblings	138		
		p=	0.307

Table 1. iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$ mutants are viable. iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$ mutants are homozygous (A)

and hemizygous (B, C) viable. Numbers are F1 progeny ("observed"). Expected

numbers are derived from the observed number of balancer siblings and the expected

Mendelian ratios. "Viability" represents the proportion of observed homozygous or

hemizygous F1 flies compared to the expected number. Statistical comparison by chi-

square test.

A. *Pcyt1 overexpression*	Observed	Expected	Viability
tub-GAL4 > UAS-pcyt1; iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$	48	45	107%
UAS-pcyt1; iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$	45		
		p=	0.655
tub-GAL4 > UAS-pcyt1; iPLA$_2$-VIA$^+$	29	29	100%
UAS-pcyt1; iPLA$_2$-VIA$^+$	29		
		p=	1.00

B.	*pcyt1^{16919} iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$ sib-mate*			*pcyt1^{16919} sib-mate*		
	Observed	Expected	Viability	Observed	Expected	Viability
Homozygotes	29	63.5	46%	21	41	51%
Balancer siblings	127			82		
					p=	0.720

C.	*pcyt1^{16919} iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$ females* (n = 10)	*pcyt1^{16919} females* (n = 9)
Average number of progeny	0	0

D.	*pcyt1^{16919} iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$ males* (n = 10)	*pcyt1^{16919} males* (n = 10)
Average number of progeny	0.4 ± 0.843	1.6 ± 2.55
		p= 0.185

Table 2. *iPLA$_2$-VIA* and *pcyt1* do not show synthetic effects on viability or fertility.*

(A) Overexpressing Pcyt1 does not cause lethality in a control background or in the

iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$ mutant. Numbers of flies overexpressing Pcyt1 and sibling flies lacking the

tubulin-GAL4 driver are shown. "Viability" represents the proportion of overexpressing

flies compared to the matched siblings without the *tubulin-GAL4* driver. Statistical

comparison by chi-square test. (B) Although *pcyt1^{16919}* homozygotes are sub-viable,

pcyt1^{16919} iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$ double mutants show no additional lethality. Numbers shown

are F1 progeny ("observed") from mated heterozygous parents. Expected numbers are

derived from the observed number of balancer siblings and the expected Mendelian

ratios. "Viability" represents the proportion of observed homozygous F1 flies compared

to the expected number. The proportion of *pcyt1^{16919}* homozygotes was compared to

the proportion of *pcyt1^{16919} iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$* double mutant homozygotes using two

proportion z-test. (C) Both *pcyt1^{16919}* homozygous females and *pcyt1^{16919} iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$*

double mutant homozygous females are completely sterile in individual crosses to single

yw males at 23$^{\text{o}}$C. Crosses were kept and monitored for signs of progeny for 8-10

days. (D) Both *pcyt1^{16919}* homozygous males and *pcyt1^{16919} iPLA$_2$-VIA$^{\Delta 23}$* double mutant

homozygous males are markedly sub-fertile in individual crosses to single *yw* females at

23$^{\text{o}}$C. Parental mating pairs were kept for 8-10 days. Average number of progeny from

individual crosses shown ± standard deviations, comparison by unpaired t-test.

	sws^4 $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta23}$ sib-mate		
	Observed	Expected	Viability
Double mutant	26	34	76%
$iPLA_2$-VIA mutant	34		
sws mutant	70	81	86%
Balancer siblings	81		
		$p=$ 0.691	

Table 3. $iPLA_2$-VIA and sws do not show synthetic loss of viability. Although sws^4
mutants are sub-viable, sws^4 $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta23}$ double mutants show no additional lethality.
Numbers shown are F1 progeny ("observed") from mated heterozygous parents (male
parents are heterozygous for $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta23}$ but hemizygous for sws^4).   Expected
numbers are derived from the observed number of balancer siblings and the expected
Mendelian ratios.   "Viability" represents the proportion of observed mutant F1 flies
compared to the expected number.   Proportion of sws^4 $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta23}$ double mutants
versus $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta23}$ single mutants was compared to the proportion of sibling sws^4
mutants versus balancer controls using two proportion z-test.

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1007

A Young male fertility

B Aged male fertility

■ Iso control
■ $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta23}$

C Isogenic control **D** $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta23}$ **E** taz **F** $taz; iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta23}$

G **H** **I** **J**

K Iso control **L** $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta23}$

M taz **N** $taz; iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta23}$

O Spermatid Individualization

*****

n.s.

17, 134   14, 95   14, 55   10, 32

Iso $iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta23}$ taz $taz;iPLA_2$-$VIA^{\Delta23}$

A Young control — mito-YFP / DAPI

B Young *iPLA₂-VIA^{Δ23}*

G 3 wk mito-YFP outlines
RawIntDen/Area
Iso control | *iPLA₂-VIA^{+/Δ23}* | *iPLA₂-VIA^{Δ23}*
****

C 3 wk control

D 3 wk *iPLA₂-VIA^{Δ23}*

H 4 wk mito-YFP outlines
RawIntDen/Area
Iso control | *iPLA₂-VIA^{+/Δ23}* | *iPLA₂-VIA^{Δ23}*
*****

E 3 wk control — mito-YFP outlines

F 3 wk *iPLA₂-VIA^{Δ23}*

I JC-1 in adult ovaries
Relative fluorescence
Iso control | Iso control + Ant-A | *iPLA₂-VIA^{+/Δ23}* | *iPLA₂-VIA^{Δ23}*

J 6 wk control — mito-YFP / DAPI

K Dying *iPLA₂-VIA^{Δ23}* — Casp-3 / DAPI

L 4 wk old — % ovarioles with dying ECs
Iso control | *iPLA₂-VIA^{Δ23}*
n.s.

M 5 wk old
Iso control | *iPLA₂-VIA^{Δ23}*
****

Dying | Alive