**TITLE**: Modelling dementia in *Drosophila* uncovers shared and specific targets of TDP-43

proteinopathy across ALS and FTD relevant circuits

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**ABSTRACT** (150-200 words)

Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) and fronto-temporal dementia (FTD) comprise a spectrum of

neurodegenerative diseases linked to TDP-43 proteinopathy, which at the cellular level, is

characterized by loss of nuclear TDP-43 and accumulation of cytoplasmic TDP-43 puncta that

ultimately cause RNA processing defects including dysregulation of splicing, mRNA transport

and translation. Complementing our previous models of ALS, here we report a novel model of

FTD based on overexpression of TDP-43 in the *Drosophila* mushroom body (MB) circuit. This

model recapitulates several aspects of FTD pathology including age-dependent neuronal loss,

and nuclear depletion and cytoplasmic accumulation of TDP-43, accompanied by behavioral

deficits in working memory and sleep that occur before axonal degeneration ensues. RNA

immunoprecipitations identify several candidate mRNA targets of TDP-43 in MBs, some of

which are unique to the MB circuit while others are shared with motor neurons. Among the latter

is the glypican Dally-like-protein (Dlp), a modulator of Wg/Wnt signaling. Using genetic

interactions we show that overexpression of Dlp in MBs mitigates TDP-43 dependent working

memory deficits. These results highlight the utility of modelling TDP-43 proteinopathy in

*Drosophila* and provide a novel platform for studying the molecular mechanisms underlying

FTD, and potentially uncovering shared and circuit specific vulnerabilities in ALS/FTD.

## INTRODUCTION

Characterized by extensive overlap in cellular pathology, genetic mutations, and molecular markers, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) and frontotemporal dementia (FTD) comprise a neurodegenerative disease spectrum affecting multiple subsets of neurons in the spinal cord, motor cortex, cingulate cortex, and frontal and temporal lobes (Arai et al., 2006; Ferrari et al., 2011; Ling et al., 2013; Neumann et al., 2006). Notably, nearly 97% of ALS cases (Mackenzie et al., 2007) and approximately 45% of FTD cases (Cairns et al., 2007) exhibit neurodegeneration with ubiquitin-positive cytoplasmic inclusions that contain transactive response (TAR) DNA binding protein 43 (TDP-43). A number of point mutations in *TARDBP*, the gene encoding TDP-43, have been identified as causative of ALS (Kabashi et al., 2008; Rutherford et al., 2008; Sreedharan et al., 2008) while others have been linked to FTD (Borroni et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2019). Although mutations in at least 20 other genes have been associated with ALS/FTD (Al-Chalabi et al., 2012), the majority of ALS/FTD cases are sporadic.

Substantiating its significance as a marker of pathology, TDP-43 has also been identified as a component of cytoplasmic aggregates in dementias other than FTD, including Alzheimer's disease (AD) (Chang et al., 2015; Josephs et al., 2014b; Rohn, 2008), AD with Lewy body dementia (AD/LBD) (McAleese et al., 2017), Parkinsonism-dementia complex (PDC) (Hasegawa et al., 2007), and hippocampal sclerosis (Amador-Ortiz et al., 2007). Up to 57% of AD cases exhibit TDP-43 positive intracellular inclusions (Josephs et al., 2014a); notably, AD patients with TDP-43 proteinopathy show accelerated disease progression with more severe cognitive impairment (Josephs *et al.*, 2014b; Meneses et al., 2021). In addition to the presence of TDP-43 proteinopathy, dementias such as FTD and AD also share TDP-43 associated cellular pathology, including dystrophic neurites (Mackenzie et al., 2011). Thus, despite differences in underlying genetic risk factors and specific neural populations affected, a large proportion of dementias exhibit overlapping TDP-43 pathology, providing a common entry point for understanding shared mechanisms of neurodegeneration (Gao et al., 2018; Jo et al., 2020).

Wild-type TDP-43 is localized primarily to the nucleus where it regulates transcription

(Swain et al., 2016) and splicing (Fiesel et al., 2012; Freibaum et al., 2010; Ling et al., 2015;

Polymenidou et al., 2011; Tollervey et al., 2011) necessary for nervous system development

and function. TDP-43 also shuttles between the nucleus and cytoplasm and has been shown to

play a role in axonal and dendritic mRNA localization (Alami et al., 2014; Chou et al., 2018;

Fallini et al., 2012), stress granule dynamics (Colombrita et al., 2009; Khalfallah et al., 2018;

McDonald et al., 2011) and translation (Altman et al., 2021; Coyne et al., 2017; Lehmkuhl et al.,

2021). During severe or prolonged cellular stress and in disease, TDP-43 exits the nucleus and

associates with ubiquitin-positive cytoplasmic inclusions (Ramaswami et al., 2013). Indeed,

cellular dysfunction and subsequent degeneration associated with TDP-43 pathology have been

attributed to both loss-of-function of nuclear TDP-43 (Ling et al., 2015) and cytoplasmic gain-of-

function (Walker et al., 2015) whereby cytoplasmic inclusions sequester mRNAs and perturb

protein homeostasis (Ramaswami et al., 2013).

Following the identification of TDP-43 as a protein of pathological interest in numerous

neurodegenerative diseases, model organisms have been critical to understanding the normal

biological functions of TDP-43 and how disruption of these functions leads to disease. Despite

having diverged from a common ancestor with vertebrates over 600 million years ago (Erwin,

2015), the fruit fly (*Drosophila melanogaster*) genome contains a homolog of *TARDBP*, namely

*TBPH*, which displays sequence similarity and functional overlap with human TDP-43 (Ayala et

al., 2005; Estes et al., 2011).

In addition to extensive overlap in neurogenetic homology, circuit-level conservation in

the central nervous system has also been demonstrated between invertebrates and vertebrates

(Bier, 2005; Bridi et al., 2020; Strausfeld and Hirth, 2013), making invertebrate models relevant

for understanding diseases of cognition. Indeed, flies display several behaviors affected in

human disease (Muqit and Feany, 2002) including associative learning (Heisenberg, 2003),

long-term memory (Isabel et al., 2004), sleep (Shaw et al., 2000), social interactions (Baier et

al., 2002; Kamyshev et al., 2002), and addiction (Bellen, 1998) that can serve as system-level

readouts of molecular- and/or cellular-level dysfunction. Models of TDP-43 proteinopathy in

*Drosophila* have recapitulated the locomotor phenotypes, motor neuron dysfunction, and

shortened lifespan (Estes et al., 2011; Li et al., 2010; Romano et al., 2012) observed in ALS and

highlighted degeneration in central brain structures (Li et al., 2010) reminiscent of FTD. Beyond

simply simulating disease states, these fly models have identified translational targets (Coyne et

al., 2017; Coyne et al., 2014; Lehmkuhl et al., 2021) and genetic modifiers of TDP-43

proteinopathy (Azpurua et al., 2021; Coyne et al., 2015; Sreedharan et al., 2015; Zhan et al.,

2013), and exposed systemic effects on metabolic pathways (Loganathan et al., 2022; Manzo et

al., 2019).

While TDP-43 proteinopathy has been extensively studied in motor neurons and glia as

a model of ALS, a robust fly model of dementia based on TDP-43 proteinopathy has not yet

been established. This is in part because the mushroom bodies (MBs) of the fly brain, which

were originally described as essential to odor learning (de Belle and Heisenberg, 1994) have

only recently been recognized as being required for multi-modal and context-dependent learning

(Liu et al., 1999; Vogt et al., 2014) including place learning (Ostrowski et al., 2015). The MBs

also regulate sleep (Driscoll et al., 2021; Joiner et al., 2006), satiety (Tsao et al., 2018), social

behavior (Sun et al., 2020) and gate behaviors attributed to other brain regions such as

decision-making (Zhang et al., 2007) and aggression (Zwarts et al., 2015). Therefore, the MBs

share functional overlap with regions of the vertebrate cortex (Wolff and Strausfeld, 2016).

Existing fly models of intellectual disability (Mariano et al., 2020) and AD(Chakraborty et al.,

2011) have either focused on, or identified phenotypes in the MBs of the fly brain, suggesting

that this structure is appropriate for modelling diseases of cognition.

Here we describe the development of a novel fly model of FTD based on TDP-43

proteinopathy induced by overexpression of wild-type or mutant human TDP-43 in a subset of

MB neurons. Our model recapitulates key cellular and behavioral characteristics of human

dementias with TDP-43 pathology, including age-dependent loss of nuclear TDP-43, axonal

degeneration, and working memory and sleep deficits that parallel those observed in dementia

patients. Using RNA immunoprecipitations we show that in MBs, TDP-43 associates with

several mRNAs, a subset of which are unique to MBs while others are shared with mRNA

targets previously identified in motor neurons. Interestingly, among the latter group we identified

*dlp* mRNA, encoding the heparan sulfate proteoglycan (HSPG) Dally-like protein (Dlp)/GPC6,

which we previously showed that is a target of TDP-43 in fly models of ALS and altered in ALS

spinal cords (Lehmkuhl et al., 2021). We report that *dlp* mRNA is enriched in TDP-43 complexes

in MBs and Dlp protein is decreased within axons in an age-dependent manner, consistent with

TDP-43 dependent axonal transport and/or translation deficits. Notably, Dlp overexpression in

MBs rescues TDP-43 dependent deficits in working memory consistent with Dlp being a

physiologically significant target of TDP-43 in the MB circuit. These findings demonstrate that

TDP-43 proteinopathy in MBs causes dementia-like phenotypes that are mediated at least in

part by the heparan sulfate proteoglycan (HSPG) Dally-like protein (Dlp)/GPC6, a regulator of

the Wg/Wnt signaling pathway. Furthermore, we identify candidate targets of TDP-43 unique to

MBs that suggest distinct neuronal vulnerabilities across the ALS – FTD spectrum.

**RESULTS**

*Overexpression of TDP-43 in Kenyon cells results in age-dependent cell loss and nuclear to*

*cytoplasmic mislocalization*

The insect MBs are comprised of large, complex neurons called Kenyon cells, referred

herein as MB neurons (MBNs), which form a layered network with reticular feedback

(Crittenden, 1998), structural characteristics reminiscent of vertebrate cortical neurons and

networks. There are three subtypes of MBNs based on developmental origin, cell morphology,

and wiring. Axons of these three types form five layered lobes, the $\alpha/\beta$ , $\alpha'/\beta'$, and $\gamma$ lobes, which

are further compartmentalized into columnar-like regions based on neuromodulatory inputs and

excitatory or inhibitory postsynaptic partners (Aso et al., 2014). To model FTD-like TDP-43

proteinopathy we used a split-GAL4 driver line *SS01276* available from the Janelia FlyLight

split-GAL4 driver collection (Aso, 2021) to express human TDP-43 (Estes et al., 2013) in a

subset of MBNs that form the $\alpha/\beta$ and $\gamma$ lobes of the adult *Drosophila* mushroom bodies.

Mushroom body development is well-characterized in *Drosophila* . Neurons forming the $\gamma$ and

$\alpha'/\beta'$ lobes are embryonic and larval in origin, respectively (Kunz et al., 2012) and persist

through metamorphosis, whereas those comprising the $\alpha/\beta$ lobes are born after puparium

formation (Lee et al., 1999).

We characterized expression driven by *SS01276* in the 3$^{rd}$ instar larva (L3) and found

that cytoplasmic YFP, YFP tagged TDP-43 (*TDP-43::YFP*) and membrane targeted RFP

(*mCD8:: RFP*) are limited to MBNs (Figure 1-supplement 1). Signal is detected in approximately

50 larval MBNs in both TDP-43$^{WT}$ overexpression (OE) and TDP-43$^{G298S}$ OE brains (Figure

1A,1F *TDP-43$^{WT}$::YFP mCD8::RFP*; Figure 1-supplement 2,*TDP-43$^{G298S}$::YFP mCD8::RFP*). In

L3, the MBs comprise approximately 60 $\gamma$ lobe MBNs and 40 $\alpha'/\beta'$ lobe MBNs (Lee et al., 1999)

thus at this stage *SS01276* could possibly be driving expression in some combination of $\gamma$ lobe

or $\alpha'/\beta'$ lobe MBNs. However, since adult expression of *SS01276* was determined to be limited

to $\gamma$ and $\alpha/\beta$ lobe MBNs (Aso, 2021), and given that both $\gamma$ and $\alpha'/\beta'$ lobe MBNs persist through

metamorphosis, it is likely that the expression we observed during L3 for *SS01276* corresponds

to $\gamma$ lobe MBNs.

Visual inspection of larval MBNs indicated that TDP-43 YFP was largely confined to the

nucleus in L3 brains (Figure 1A) but became mislocalized outside the nucleus in young adults.

The nucleus comprises nearly all of the cell body in MBNs, making it challenging to accurately

assess cytoplasmic mislocalization or nuclear depletion. Therefore, to determine age-dependent

changes in TDP-43 localization, we measured mean signal intensity of TDP-43 YFP in the

nucleus by tracing the nucleus in the Hoechst channel, then measured mean signal intensity of

TDP-43 YFP in the entire cell by tracing the YFP signal of the entire cell boundary (see

Materials and Methods and Figure 1-supplement 3) and calculated the ratio of nucleus to total

cell signal mean intensity (Figure 1D, E). Since the MBN cytoplasms are extremely thin, this

ratio should be nearly 1.0 when TDP-43 is localized to both the nucleus and the cytoplasm

(single arrow, Figures 1B, D), less than 1.0 when TDP-43 YFP is depleted from the nucleus and

mislocalized to the cytoplasm (see double arrows, Figures 1B, D) and slightly above 1.0 when

TDP-43 is contained largely in the nucleus (see stacked arrows, Figures 1C, D).

Using this measure of nuclear depletion, we found a significant decrease in the mean

signal intensity ratio across the population of MBNs from juvenile to young adults in the context

of both TDP-43 OE variants (Figure 1E, *TDP-43$^{WT}$::YFP mCD8::RFP* 0.978$\pm$0.005 in L3 vs.

0.869$\pm$0.009 in young adults, P < 0.0001; Figure 1-supplement 2, *TDP-43$^{G298S}$:: YFP*

*mCD8::RFP* 0.967$\pm$0.002 in L3 vs 0.906$\pm$0.012 in young adults, P = 0.0004; supplemental

table S1E). Surprisingly, the ratio of nucleus to total cell signal mean intensity increased in old

adult brains compared to young adults, however, it was still significantly lower than at the

juvenile age time point (L3) in our TDP-43$^{WT}$ OE model (Figure 1E, 0.978$\pm$0.005 in L3 vs.

0.927$\pm$0.009 in old adults, P = 0.0041; supplemental table S1E). A plausible explanation for this

result is provided by our findings that there are significantly fewer TDP-43 YFP positive MBNs in

old compared to younger TDP-43 OE brains or to old YFP controls (*TDP-43$^{WT}$:: YFP*

*mCD8::RFP,* 445$\pm$96 cells in old adults vs 1089$\pm$40 cells in young adults vs. 1206$\pm$150 cells in

YFP old adults, P < 0.001; Figure 1F). Similar results were obtained for TDP$^{G298S}$ YFP

expressing brains (*TDP-43$^{G298S}$:: YFP mCD8::RFP* 473$\pm$79 cells in old adults vs 1097$\pm$55 cells

in young adults vs 1206$\pm$150 cells in YFP old adults, P < 0.001; Figure1-supplement 2;

supplemental table S1F). These results are consistent with TDP-43 OE causing age-dependent

cell loss and suggest that the MBNs exhibiting increased levels of cytoplasmic TDP-43 are more

vulnerable and lost during aging, likely through increased cell death.

*Mushroom body axons exhibit age-dependent TDP-43 puncta accumulation and progressive*

*degeneration*

To determine the effect of TDP-43 proteinopathy on axonal integrity and overall lobe

morphology, we co-expressed TDP-43 and the membrane marker mCD8 RFP. Signal intensity

of mCD8 RFP showed progressive decrease in the $\gamma$ lobe over time (young, 1.01$\pm$0.04, middle-

aged, 0.87$\pm$0.25, and old, 0.40$\pm$0.10 fluorescence intensity ratio to age matched controls;

Figure 2A, B, insets b, e, h; quantified in C; supplemental table S2A), suggesting that axonal

thinning occurred in an age-dependent manner. Simultaneously, TDP-43 formed increasingly

larger axonal puncta in the $\gamma$ lobe with age (young, 1.00$\pm$0.04, middle-aged, 1.19$\pm$0.05, and old,

1.35$\pm$0.05 area normalized to age matched controls Figure 2B, insets c, f, i; quantified in D;

supplemental table S2B). These findings are consistent with the formation of dystrophic axons,

membrane fragmentation and cytoplasmic aggregation of TDP-43. A similar pattern of axonal

loss and fragmentation in the $\gamma$ lobe, coincident with increased TDP-43 puncta size, was

observed in TDP-43$^{G298S}$ OE flies (Figure 2-supplement 1A, B insets c, f, i, quantified in C and

D; supplemental tables S2A, S2B). We could not detect statistically significant changes in

mCD8 RFP signal intensity nor TDP-43 cytoplasmic puncta in the $\alpha/\beta$ lobes of TDP-43$^{WT}$ OE

flies, however these lobes showed dramatic, age-dependent thinning not observed in controls

(Figure 2B inset i). In TDP-43$^{G298S}$ OE brains, we observed both an increase in the size of TDP-

43 YFP cytoplasmic puncta within $\alpha/\beta$ lobes between young and middle-aged adults, and a

thinning of these lobes (Figure 2-supplement 1B inset i). Interestingly, these phenotypes are

reminiscent of the age-dependent pathophysiology observed in human patients. Given that $\gamma$

lobe neurons are born earlier than those within the $\alpha/\beta$ lobes, the more severe phenotypes

observed in this neuronal subpopulation highlight the potential contribution of aging to TDP-43

proteinopathy.

*TDP-43 proteinopathy causes working memory deficits*

In humans, working memory is disrupted in FTD and other TDP-43 associated

dementias (Poos et al., 2018; Stopford et al., 2012). To test whether flies overexpressing TDP-

43 exhibit working memory deficits, we used miniature Y-mazes to measure spontaneous

alternation behavior by scoring the number of three consecutive arm entries over a period of ten

minutes (see Materials and Methods, Figure 3A, Lewis et al., 2017). These experiments showed

that although TDP-43 OE results in increased overall movement (males: *TDP-43$^{WT}$::YFP* in an

*Oregon-R background*, 146.00$\pm$7.51 mm vs. *Oregon-R*, 106.19$\pm$8.18 mm, P = 0.018; females:

*TDP-43$^{WT}$::YFP* in an *Oregon-R background*, 110.53$\pm$7.51 mm vs. *Oregon-R*, 81.12$\pm$5.24 mm;

Figure 3B; for means of individual replicates see supplemental table S3), percent alternation is

significantly decreased in young adult males (*TDP-43$^{WT}$::YFP* in an *Oregon-R background*,

0.57$\pm$0.01 vs. *Oregon-R*, 0.61$\pm$0.01, P = 0.012) and females (*TDP-43$^{WT}$::YFP* in an *Oregon-R*

*background*, 0.60$\pm$0.02 vs. *Oregon-R*, 0.65$\pm$0.01, P = 0.006; Figure 3C), consistent with TDP-

43 proteinopathy causing working memory deficits in the MB circuit.

*TDP-43 expression in the MB circuit causes sleep alterations*

In humans, frontal and temporal lobe degeneration is associated with increased daytime

somnolence (Sani et al., 2019), but overall sleep disturbances are highly variable in FTD and

may be detectable in earlier stages than in AD (Bonakis et al., 2014). To determine whether

TDP-43 proteinopathy in the MB circuit alters sleep, we used *Drosophila* Activity Monitors

(DAMs, see Materials and Methods) to measure total daytime and nighttime sleep. Our

experiments show that on average, both male and female TDP-43 OE flies appear to be

lethargic; they spent a greater proportion of their time sleeping during both the day and night

compared to controls (approximately 11% more for TDP-43$^{WT}$ OE and approximately 8% more

for TDP-43$^{G298S}$ OE). However, there are subtle differences in how TDP-43 OE affects sleep

patterns based on age and sex. While males consistently sleep more during the day, this effect

is weaker in females flies where we found trends towards increased daytime sleep at some but

not all age time points in each genotype (Figure 4A; supplemental table S4A). At night, males

and females also exhibited a general tendency towards increased sleep with the exception of

young TDP-43 OE adult males which, when compared to $w^{1118}$ controls, showed signs of sleep

fragmentation as evidenced by more frequent, shorter sleep bouts (Figures 4B, C for TDP-43$^{WT}$

OE and Figure 4-supplement 1B, C for TDP-43$^{G298S}$ OE; supplemental tables S4C sleep bout

length and S4C sleep bout number).

Interestingly, both humans and flies show decreased nighttime sleep with age (Li et al.,

2018); in line with this, $w^{1118}$ flies of both sexes showed age-related declines in nighttime sleep,

whereas TDP-43 OE males showed no such declines (all pairwise comparisons P > 0.05) and

female declines appear less steep (TDP-43$^{WT}$ OE, Figure 4B; TDP-43$^{G298S}$ OE, Figure 4-

supplement 1; supplemental tables S4A), consistent with our findings that TDP-43 proteinopathy

causes lethargy. By middle age, TDP-43$^{WT}$ OE males showed a pattern of longer, less frequent

nighttime sleep bouts as compared with $w^{1118}$ (Figure 4C). Within each genotype, female $w^{1118}$

and TDP-43$^{WT}$ OE flies exhibited age-related sleep fragmentation as evidenced by a greater

number of shorter bouts at 60 - 63 days compared with 1 – 3 days. TDP-43 OE flies still spent a

greater proportion of their time sleeping than controls (Figure 4B; supplemental table S4A), an

effect driven by longer sleep bouts at this aged time point (Figure 4C; supplemental table S4C).

Taken together, these results indicate that TDP-43 OE in the MB circuit causes sleep deficits

resembling those reported in FTD patients, including increased sleep during the day and sleep

fragmentation at night, albeit the latter was detected in young males only. Notably, the sleep

fragmentation phenotype occurs concomitant with the nuclear depletion of TDP-43 and before

axonal degeneration suggesting that this may be a direct consequence of TDP-43

mislocalization while lethargy is likely an indirect consequence of large-scale neuronal

degeneration.

*TDP-43 overexpression in Kenyon cells is sufficient to reduce lifespan in Drosophila*

Life expectancy for FTD patients after diagnosis is approximately 8 – 12 years and, while patients do not often die from the disease itself, there is a measurable, if subtle, effect on life expectancy (Kansal et al., 2016; Loi et al., 2021). We therefore tested whether TDP-43 proteinopathy affects lifespan in our fly model and found that overexpression of TDP-43 in MBNs significantly reduces median survival time (TDP-43$^{WT}$ OE, 84 days, 95% CI [84,84]; TDP-43$^{G298S}$ OE, 89 days, 95% CI [88,91]) when compared with *YFP* controls (94 days, 95% CI [90, 95]; P < 0.0001 and P = 0.028, respectively; Figure 5 and Figure 5-supplement 1). These results indicate that overexpression of TDP-43 in a subset of MBNs in flies is sufficient to produce a nearly 10% reduction in median lifespan.

*mRNAs enriched with TDP-43 in mushroom body neurons show partial overlap with those previously identified in motor neuron and include components of the Wnt/Wg signaling pathway*

To understand how TDP-43 overexpression influences the MBN proteome, we immunoprecipitated YFP-tagged TDP-43$^{WT}$ or TDP-43$^{G298S}$ from *Drosophila* heads overexpressing TDP-43 YFP in MBNs using the *SS01276* Split-GAL4 driver. Next, we used DESeq2 (Love et al., 2014) to assess differential expression of mRNAs enriched in TDP-43 complexes compared to the whole brain transcriptome. We chose to identify TDP-43-enriched candidate mRNA targets using young adult flies (1 – 3 days post-eclosion), before age-dependent axonal neurodegeneration is detected in the MB lobes, to avoid detection of gene expression alterations that could be an indirect consequence of neurodegeneration. Of the 13,302 transcripts detected in the fly brain, we identified 1055 and 1393 candidate mRNA targets based on their enrichment in TDP-43$^{WT}$ YFP and TDP-43$^{G298S}$ YFP complexes, respectively (Log2FC > 1 compared to the brain transcriptome, P$_{adj}$ < 0.05 ) (Figure 6A, Figure 6-supplement 1A). A total of 876 candidate mRNAs were shared by both variants (83% of

targets in TDP-43$^{WT}$ OE and 63% of targets in TDP-43$^{G298S}$ OE), for a total of 1572 mRNAs

enriched across both models (with 179 unique to TDP-43$^{WT}$ OE and 517 to TDP-43$^{G298S}$ OE,

respectively). Notably, differential expression analyses also recovered previously identified

TDP-43 target mRNAs including *futsch* (TDP-43$^{WT}$ OE Log2FC = 1.81, $P_{adj}$ = 2.66E-07; TDP-

43$^{G298S}$ OE Log2FC = 2.14, $P_{adj}$ = 9.57E-10) (Coyne et al., 2014) and *dscam2* (TDP-43$^{WT}$ OE

Log2FC = 1.29, $P_{adj}$ = 6.01E-04; TDP-43$^{G298S}$ OE Log2FC = 1.81, $P_{adj}$ = 2.42E-3) (Xiao et al.,

2011).

While TDP-43 has been found to regulate mRNA processing in a cell type specific

manner, there is also overlap among TDP-43 splicing targets in neuronal and muscle cell lines

(Susnjar et al., 2022). Consistent with these findings, we found that nearly 44% of TDP-43$^{WT}$ OE

and 42% of TDP-43$^{G298S}$ OE highly associated mRNAs in MBNs overlapped with those we

identified previously in motor neurons (MNs) when modelling ALS by overexpressing TDP-43

with the D42 GAL4 driver (Figure 6B, Figure 6-figure supplement 1C).

Functional annotation of mRNA candidate targets in the MBs identified neuron-specific

as well as neuromuscular junction molecular pathways in both the TDP-43$^{WT}$ OE and TDP-

43$^{G298S}$ OE models (Figure 6-supplement 2A). Components of the Wingless (Wg/Wnt) signaling

pathway were overrepresented in the TDP-43 proteinopathy model of FTD (Figure 6-

supplement 2B). Highly enriched members of these pathways include *frizzled* (*fz*), a Wg/Wnt

receptor, *dally-like protein* (*dlp*), a heparan sulfate proteoglycan (HSPG) that interacts with

multiple Wnt ligands (Waghmare et al., 2020), and the Wg/Wnt receptor *frizzled 2* (*fz2*) (Yan et

al., 2009). Interestingly, *dlp* mRNA was also found to be enriched with TDP-43 in fly motor

neurons, where TDP-43 proteinopathy causes depletion of Dlp from the neuromuscular junction

and simultaneous accumulation of Dlp puncta in cell bodies (Lehmkuhl et al., 2021). To validate

that *dlp* mRNA is a target of TDP-43 in MBNs as predicted by RNA seq, we used RNA IPs

followed by RT-qPCR and confirmed that *dlp* mRNA is enriched in immunoprecipitated TDP-

43$^{WT}$ and TDP-43$^{G298S}$ complexes compared to input (Figure 6-supplement 1).

Among the mRNAs enriched with TDP-43 in fly MBNs we identified several orthologs of

human genes exhibiting altered expression in the frontal cortices of FTD patients including the

Ras family member RHOQ (*Rac2*, *TDP-43^{WT}* Log2FC = 3.68, $P_{adj}$ = 9.66E-24), the glypican

GPC4 (*dlp*, *TDP-43^{WT}* Log2FC =3.33, $P_{adj}$ = 9.14E-23), heat shock 70kDa protein 2, HSPA2

(*Hsp70Bb*, *TDP-43^{WT}* Log2FC = 2.77, $P_{adj}$ = 1.59E-7), and the frizzled family receptor protein

FZD7 (*fz*, *TDP-43^{WT}* Log2FC = 2.18. $P_{adj}$ = 4.25E-12) (Santiago et al., 2020).

In addition to TDP-43 candidate targets shared in MB and MN circuits, we also assessed

the pool of mRNAs significantly enriched with TDP-43 in MBNs only, higlighting circuit specific

aspects of TDP-43 proteinopathy. For TDP-43^{WT} OE we found 461 enriched mRNAs that are

shared in both MB and MN, and 594 mRNAs uniquely enriched in MBs (Figure 6). DAVID

analyses of the unique candidate targets for TDP-43^{WT} OE in MBs uncovered several kegg

pathways altered in the context of TDP-43 proteinopathy including "Basal transcription factors",

"RNA polymerase", "Ribosome biogenesis" and "Spliceosome" (supplemental table S6A). For

TDP-43^{G298S} we found 592 enriched mRNAs that are shared in both MB and MN, and 802

mRNAs uniquely enriched in MBs (Figure 6-supplement 1). DAVID analyses of TDP-43^{G298S}

specific targets in the MB circuit revealed several significantly represented pathways including

"mTOR signaling pathway", "Other types of O-glycan biosynthesis", "TGF-beta signaling

pathway", "Nicotinate and nicotinamide signaling pathway", "Autophagy", "Nucleotide

metabolism" and "Spliceosome" (supplemental table S6B).

Taken together, these results show that while some mRNAs enriched with TDP-43 in the

MB circuit are specific to MBNs, others are shared with MNs and highlight the Wg/Wnt signaling

pathway as a functional target of TDP-43 proteinopathy across the ALS/FTD spectrum.

*TDP-43 proteinopathy causes severe age-related loss of Dally-like protein in MBNs*

Given *dlp* mRNA's enrichment with TDP-43, we hypothesized that the expression of Dlp protein,

a Wg/Wnt regulator, may be affected in MBNs, as we previously found in motor neurons

(Lehmkuhl et al., 2021). While Dlp has been shown to be highly expressed in developing MBN

axons, where it is thought to be involved in axon guidance (Rawson et al., 2005), its expression

and function in adult MBNs has not been characterized. We found that, despite *dlp* mRNA being

enriched in TDP-43 complexes in young adult brains, the levels and distribution of Dlp protein in

TDP-43 OE flies are comparable with controls at that age (Figures 7A, B). Interestingly, Dlp

levels decline with age in both controls and TDP-43 OE flies, however while Dlp is still visible in

control fly brains at 50 days, Dlp is nearly undetectable in the brains of TDP-43 OE flies (Figures

7A, B, P < 0.05). A similar age-dependent reduction in Dlp expression was also detected in the

context of TDP-43$^{G298S}$ OE in MBNs (Figure 7-supplement 1). These findings are consistent with

*dlp* mRNA being a target of TDP-43 in MBNs and suggest mRNA localization and/or translation

as possible mechanisms for the observed reduction in Dlp protein expression.

*Dlp overexpression rescues TDP-43 dependent working memory deficits*

We next evaluated the physiological significance of *dlp* mRNA as a target of TDP-43 in

MBs. To address this, we tested whether overexpression of *dlp* mRNA (dlp OE) in the context of

TDP-43 proteinopathy could mitigate TDP-43 dependent working memory deficits. Using the Y-

maze working memory assay we found that the percent alternation deficits displayed by TDP-

43$^{WT}$ OE flies could indeed be mitigated by dlp OE in MBNs (Figure 7D). To account for altered

movement caused by TDP-43 OE (*TDP-43$^{WT}$::YFP,* 147.52 $\pm$ 13.52 mm, *w$^{1118}$,* 229.89 $\pm$ 7.43

mm, P < 0.0001, see Figure 7C), we also compared distance-scaled alternations across

genotypes and found that TDP-43 dependent alternation deficits were still mitigated by dlp OE

*(TDP-43$^{WT}$::YFP T,* 0.0221 $\pm$ 0.0028 alternation/mm, *TDP-43$^{WT}$::YFP dlp OE,* 0.0286 $\pm$ 0.0036

alternation/mm, P < 0.0001) while no significant difference was detected between co-

overexpression of TDP-43 and Dlp, and dlp OE alone (*TDP-43$^{WT}$::YFP dlp OE,* 0.0286 $\pm$ 0.0036

alternation/mm, *dlp OE,* 0.0252 $\pm$ 0.0032 alternation/mm, P > 0.05, not shown). We note that

although total movement in the Y-maze assay is influenced by the genetic background (*w$^{1118}$*

versus *OR-R*, compare Figures 3B and 7C), the significant reduction in spontaneous alternation

is consistent in TDP-43 OE flies in both cases (Figures 3C and 7D). These experiments indicate

that dlp OE in the MB circuit mitigates TDP-43[WT] OE dependent working memory deficits as

evidenced by the rescue of alternation behavior in the Y-maze assay. Notably, this rescue effect

is not due to reduced TDP-43 expression or to diluted GAL4 activity by the presence of an

additional UAS promoter, as evidenced by similar TDP-43 levels with or without dlp OE (Figures

7-supplement 2, supplement 3). Surprisingly, OE of TDP-43[G298S] in MBNs did not cause a

significant spontaneous alternation phenotype (see raw data in Supplemental Table 7). Taken

together, these findings support the notion that *dlp* mRNA is a functional target of TDP-43 *in*

*vivo* and mediates, at least in part, TDP-43 dependent, FTD relevant phenotypes in *Drosophila* .

**DISCUSSION**

Neurodegenerative diseases have historically been classified by shared symptomology

and post-mortem pathology. More recently, the integration of molecular markers and genetic

testing has uncovered evidence that cell-type susceptibility and dysregulation of specific

molecular pathways can interact to produce similar clinical presentations across different

disease etiologies (Pennington et al., 2011). These findings highlight convergent

pathomechanisms during the degeneration process (Gao et al., 2018; Ling et al., 2013) and

suggest inroads for better understanding of these complex diseases.

A common pathological feature of several neurodegenerative diseases including ALS,

FTD and other dementias is the nuclear depletion of the RNA binding protein TDP-43

accompanied by the accumulation of cytoplasmic, ubiquitinated foci (Mackenzie et al., 2010)

(Amador-Ortiz et al., 2007; Chang et al., 2015; Josephs et al., 2014b; McAleese et al., 2017;

Rohn, 2008). Since these dementias are often confirmed post-mortem by the presence of TDP-

43 pathology, animal models play an important role in elucidating the molecular mechanisms

underlying TDP-43 proteinopathy and its role in neurodegeneration. Among these, fly models

have proven their utility in this research landscape in part because the availability of powerful

molecular and genetic tools allowing multiple hypotheses to be pursued in parallel on a large

scale. Indeed, fly models of TDP-43 proteinopathy based on loss of function or overexpression

in the entire nervous system (Feiguin et al., 2009; Lu et al., 2009; Romano et al., 2012), or in

subsets of neurons including associative regions of the central brain (Li et al., 2010),

motoneurons (Estes et al., 2011) or the retina (Elden et al., 2010) have revealed a broad

repertoire of altered pathways that have subsequently been confirmed in patient tissues (Coyne

et al., 2017; Coyne et al., 2014; Lehmkuhl et al., 2021).

It has been previously shown that overexpression of TDP-43 in all MBNs using the driver

line OK107 GAL4 (RRID:BDSC_854) caused age-dependent cell loss and axonal degeneration

in MBs, however degeneration severity varied widely across nearly isogenic individuals,

challenging its utility as a disease model (Li et al., 2010). This variability could be in part

attributed to driver line "leakiness" as OK107 GAL4 drives expression beyond MBs, in optic lobe

neuropils (Aso et al., 2009; Morante and Desplan, 2008) and neurosecretory cells (Enell et al.,

2010; Hampel et al., 2011).To develop a robust and MB specific model of TDP-43 driven

dementia in *Drosophila melanogaster,* we leveraged a split-GAL4 driver line with limited

expression to a subset of Kenyon cells ($\gamma$, $\alpha/\beta$ MBNs). Notably, this model exhibits nuclear

depletion and cytoplasmic accumulation of TDP-43, accompanied by age-dependent axonal

degeneration and cell loss, all of which recapitulate key aspects of disease pathology.

Importantly, the onset of FTD relevant behavioral symptoms is detectable prior to widespread

degeneration, as observed in human disease. Additionally, this model identifies both novel, MB

specific, and motor neuron-shared mRNA candidate targets that have previously been

associated with TDP-43 pathology. Of the latter, here we chose to focus on the glypican Dlp, a

Wg/Wnt signaling regulator and show that Dlp is a functional target of TDP-43 in the MB circuit

that mediates, in part, TDP-43 dependent working memory deficits in the fly model.

Neurodegeneration in ALS/FTD is thought to be driven by both loss of nuclear function,

as some nuclei become devoid of TDP-43, and cytoplasmic gain of toxic function, as evidenced

by TDP-43 accumulation in cytoplasmic puncta. While thus far invertebrate models of TDP-43

proteinopathy have not faithfully recapitulated TDP-43 mislocalization (e.g., Ash et al., 2010;

Estes et al., 2013), here we found that TDP-43 overexpression in MBNs more closely resembles

disease pathology. Indeed, TDP-43 displays normal localization in the juvenile stage but

becomes depleted from the nucleus and mislocalized to the cytoplasm in young adults.

Although changes in TDP-43 localization could reflect developmental regulation (Park et al.,

2020), our finding that the number of cells with increased cytoplasmic TDP-43 is reduced from

young to old age concomitant with an overall reduction in MB neuron numbers, suggests that

cytoplasmic TDP-43 is toxic.

Axonal degeneration is evident only in older adult flies and differentially affects MBNs

that form the $\alpha/\beta$ and $\gamma$ lobes, with the latter showing the greatest degeneration severity. This is

particularly interesting because MBNs that form the $\gamma$ lobe are embryonic in origin and therefore

older than the pupal-born MBNs that form the $\alpha/\beta$ lobes (Ito et al., 1997; Kunz et al., 2012; Yu

and Lee, 2007), highlighting the aging component of neurodegeneration. It is also possible that

the differences in the onset and effects of TDP-43 proteinopathy we observed in $\gamma$ lobe MBNs

may be due to their remodelling during metamorphosis (Kunz et al., 2012), which may increase

their vulnerability to TDP-43. Taken together, these findings parallel differential susceptibility

observed in human cortical neurons (Nana et al., 2019; Seeley, 2008). Given the availability of

split-GAL4 driver lines for subsets of MBNs (Aso et al., 2014) future studies could focus on

better understanding what drives this susceptibility by modelling TDP-43 proteinopathy in

various neuronal subpopulations within the MB circuit. It will be interesting to combine these

powerful genetic tools with single cell RNA seq efforts in patients and flies in order to pinpoint

specific cell sub-types that may be more vulnerable.

Frontotemporal lobar degeneration with TDP-43 proteinopathy (FTLD-TDP) is

pathologically classified based on the cortical layers affected, the number of dystrophic neurites,

and the extent of neuronal cytoplasmic inclusions (Mackenzie et al., 2011). This pathology is

also commonly observed in AD/LBD that exhibit TDP-43 proteinopathy, although different brain

regions are selectively affected (Josephs et al., 2014a; Josephs et al., 2014b). Interestingly, we

find that neuronal cytoplasmic inclusions are absent in juveniles, appear first in young adult

brains and increase in size during aging. This neuropathology precedes observations of

dystrophic neurites, which are first visible around middle age, increase in severity during aging,

and ultimately degenerate. This age-dependent pathology observed in the fly brain parallels that

observed in human disease and provides a platform for studying the progression of

neurodegeneration in the genetically tractable *Drosophila* model.

In humans, behavioral symptoms of FTD precede widespread degeneration by years

suggesting that behavioral deficits arise prior to neuronal pathology, in the absence of complete

loss of nuclear TDP-43 function or cytoplasmic accumulation (Perry et al., 2017). Therefore, we

chose to focus primarily on working memory and sleep deficits using young adult flies, in which

a subset of MBNs show nuclear depletion accompanied by widespread TDP-43 mislocalization

to the axonal cytoplasm while MBN axons still appear largely intact. At this young age, we found

both working memory and sleep fragmentation phenotypes, albeit the latter were only significant

in males. We also assessed these behaviors in aged flies, however the distinct age-dependent

deficits exhibited by the controls themselves confounded the detection of TDP-43 specific

phenotypes.

Behavioral variant frontotemporal dementia (bvFTD) is diagnosed based on often subtle

behavioral symptoms including a lack of empathy, increased apathy and compulsive behaviors,

and deficits in executive function (Rascovsky et al., 2011). FTD was classically distinguished

from AD using a perceived lack of memory deficits, however recent patient studies and meta-

analyses indicate that memory deficits are common in bvFTD and at times indistinguishable

between AD and bvFTD (Graham et al., 2005; Pennington et al., 2011), challenging the validity

of the exclusion of episodic memory deficits in the clinical diagnoses of bvFTD (Hornberger and

Piguet, 2012). Although sleep symptoms are notoriously variable and understudied across

different FTD diagnoses, the most common sleep disturbances observed in bvFTD patients are

sleep fragmentation and daytime sleepiness that may or may not be accompanied by insomnia

(Bonakis et al., 2014; McCarter et al., 2016; Sani et al., 2019). Our findings of limited sleep

fragmentation and daytime sleepiness highlight potential differences between the fly model and

human disease presentation. That said, the limited yet specific deficits caused by TDP-43 OE in

MBNs provide a robust measurable sleep disruption that can serve as an organism-level output

for future molecular or pharmacological intervention experiments.

In addition to observed behavioral deficits, flies with TDP-43 proteinopathy show an

approximately 10% reduction in median lifespan. This may be roughly comparable to human

patients where FTD exerts a subtle effect on lifespan. In humans, mean age at diagnosis is 61.9

for early onset disease (< 65 years) with mean survival after diagnosis around 8 years (Kansal

et al., 2016), meaning survival is reduced in comparison with the general population in most

countries were clinical data are collected (e.g., 78.8 years in the United States Murphy et al.,

2021). Effects on lifespan may be far more severe than a simple comparison of life expectancy

would indicate, as Loi et al. (2021) report an increase in mortality risk for FTD patients when

compared with age-matched controls. From the perspective of a fly model, it is somewhat

surprising to see a lifespan effect given that MBNs comprise a small fraction of total neurons in

the fly brain and are often thought to be largely dispensable for viability (de Belle and

Heisenberg, 1994). There is evidence that lifespan is regulated at least in part by the $\alpha/\beta$ MBNs

(Lien et al., 2020), a subset of MBNs included in our model, however loss of key MB proteins

such as DCO (Yamazaki et al., 2007) or overexpression of vertebrate TAU in MBNs result in

severe memory deficits without affecting lifespan (Mershin et al., 2004). Thus, our model

provides additional evidence that specific populations of MBNs may play a role in lifespan

regulation in flies, while reproducing an important, subtle characteristic of FTD.

Sequestration of mRNAs is one the mechanisms by which TDP-43 is thought to

contribute to neurodegeneration and identifying candidate mRNA targets has helped better

understand disease etiology (Bjork et al., 2022; Ramaswami et al., 2013). Although our model is

based on TDP-43 overexpression, we note that among the mRNAs enriched with TDP-43 in

MBNs we found 12 of 15 physiological targets of TDP-43 previously identified bioinformatically

as potential targets of *Drosophila* TDP-43 (*i.e.*, TBPH) based on UG-richness (Langellotti et al.,

2018). In future studies, it will be interesting to explore the relationship between splicing and

translational targets of TDP-43. Furthermore, the overlap and specificity of some targets for

MNs versus MBNs may provide insights into shared mechanisms and neuronal vulnerability in

ALS and FTD, respectively.

Functional analyses of the mRNAs associated with TDP-43 identify numerous cellular

pathways including Wg and Hippo that have been previously implicated in sleep regulation in

flies (Harbison et al., 2017). Additionally, our findings of dopamine receptors as candidate

mRNA targets is consistent with findings that loss of mesocortical dopaminergic tracts and

dopamine receptors in the frontal lobes could contribute to the behavioral symptoms in FTLD

(Murley and Rowe, 2018).

For functional validation we chose to focus on *dlp*, an mRNA target of TDP-43 that we

previously identified in the ALS model of TDP-43 proteinopathy, and a known regulator of

Wg/Wnt signaling. Indeed, Wnt signaling is dysregulated in ALS (Chen et al., 2013; Gonzalez-

Fernandez et al., 2019), and mRNAs associated with Wg/Wnt pathway are enriched in FTD

patient frontal cortices (Santiago et al., 2020), however, this pathway has not yet been broadly

implicated in FTD pathophysiology. Using genetic interactions, we found that *dlp* OE in MBNs

mitigates TDP-43 dependent working memory deficits, as evidenced by improved alternation in

the Y-maze assay. Taken together, these findings support the notion that Wg/Wnt signaling is

altered in ALS/FTD and modulating its activity via Dlp mitigates behavioral deficits caused by

TDP-43 proteinopathy. In future studies it will be interesting to see how different mRNA targets

mitigate specific phenotypic aspects of FTD and identify ALS versus FTD specific targets of

TDP-43 proteinopathies.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

*Drosophila genetics and maintenance*

Flies were maintained at 25°C in 12-hour light-dark cycle with 25-30% humidity. Specific

information on *Drosophila* lines used in this study and specific experiments where each line was

employed can be found in the Key Resources table (Supplementary information). For aging and

lifespan studies, newly eclosed virgin male and female flies were collected and maintained on

standard fly cornmeal/molasses media refreshed weekly. Flies harboring *UAS TDP-43::YFP*

and *UAS dlp* transgenes for co-overexpression of TDP-43 and Dlp were generated using

standard genetic recombination techniques. The presence of *UAS TDP-43::YFP* was confimed

by YFP expression when crossed with the pan-neuronal driver, elav GAL4 while Dlp

overexpression was confirmed using RT-qPCR (*dlp OE* = 2.45 FC, $TDP\text{-}43^{WT}\text{::}YFP$ ; *dlp OE* =

3.09 FC, $TDP\text{-}43^{G298S}\text{::}YFP$ ; *dlp OE* = 1.71 FC compared to $w^{1118}$ controls; Figure 6-supplement

1B).

*Western Blotting*

1 – 3 day old flies were collected from *SS01276* crossed with 1) $w^{1118}$; $TDP\text{-}43^{WT}\text{::}YFP$, 2) $w^{1118}$;

$TDP\text{-}43^{WT}\text{::}YFP$; *dlp OE*, 3) $w^{1118}$; $TDP\text{-}43^{WT}\text{::}YFP$ mCD8::RFP, and 4) $w^{1118}$ in triplicate . Heads

(N = 15 for each genotype) were decapitated and homogenized in 100 µl 2X Laemmli Sample

Buffer (BIO-RAD 1610737) containing 5% of 2-Mercaptoethanol (Sigma-Aldrich M3148). The

homogenized protein samples were boiled for 5 min in the digital Heat Block (Benchmark), and

spun for 1 min. Supernatants were collected and 10 µl of protein sample was loaded in each

well of precast Mini-PROTEAN TGX 4-20% gradient Gel (BIO-RAD 4561096). Following SDS-

PAGE, the proteins were transferred to Nitrocellulose membrane (BIO-RAD 1620215). After

transfer, the membrane was blocked in 5% nonfat milk in PBST (PBS and 0.1% TWEEN20) and

incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies mouse anti-GFP Living Color (Cell Signaling

Technology 2955, 1:1000) to detect TDP-43 YFP and rabbit anti-Beta-Actin (Cell Signaling

Technology 4967S, 1:1000) as loading control, followed by washes in TBST and incubation with

secondary antibody (IRDye® 800CW, Goat anti-Mouse D21115-25, 1:10,000) and

(IRDye®680RD Goat anti-Rabbit D21207-05, 1:10,000) for 1 hour at RT. The blot was imaged

using a LICOR scanner (Odyssey®DLx) and protein bands intensities were quantified with

LICOR "Image Studio Lite" (Figure 7-supplement 2).

*Statistical analyses*

Statistical analyses were conducted in R (v. 4.1.2, R CoreTeam, 2021) and RStudio (v.

2021.09.0+351, RStudioTeam, 2022) unless specified otherwise in specific methods. The

tidyverse (Wickham et al., 2019) and ggpubr (Kassambara, 2020) packages were used for

summary statistics and graphics. Other analysis-specific packages are cited in the

corresponding Methods section. While data for the mutant TDP-43$^{G298S}$ model is presented as a

supplement to our main findings, statistical analyses were conducted simultaneously for both

TDP-43 genotypes and p-values were corrected for multiple comparisons that included both

genotypes. For any given analysis when males and females did not differ statistically or sample

sizes were low (*e.g.*, histological preparations), they were pooled to increase power. Where

necessary, outliers were removed prior to hypothesis testing. When data did not fit the

assumptions of parametric models and non-parametric analyses were used, hypothesis testing

proceeded by first using a Kruskal-Wallace to test for a difference among groups, followed by

pairwise comparisons using the Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test with p-values adjusted for multiple

comparisons using the false discovery rate method (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995). Specific

statistical methods are described for each assay. Summary statistics for each figure can be

found in the supplemental tables file.

*Mushroom body morphological analyses*

Mushroom body morphology was evaluated using membrane-targeted RFP (mCD8 RFP) driven

by *SS01276* (Aso, 2021). Adult brains were dissected in cold HL-3 saline (Stewart et al., 1994),

fixed for 60 minutes in 4% paraformaldehyde, then rinsed in phosphate buffered saline (PBS,

3X), permeabilized in PBS with 0.25% Triton X-100 (PBST), and blocked in PBST plus 5%

normal goat serum (Sigma-Aldrich 566380) 2% bovine serum albumin (Sigma-Aldrich A5611)

for 45 minutes prior to antibody labeling. YFP was detected by incubating brains overnight at

4°C with a mouse monoclonal anti-GFP FITC antibody (1:300, Rockland 600-302-215). mCD8

RFP was visualized using native fluorescence. All brains were mounted on slides with the

ventral side containing the mushroom body lobes (MBLs) facing the coverslip. For cell body

imaging, brains were additionally incubated in Hoechst (1:10,000, Invitrogen H3570) for 10

minutes and mounted on slides with the dorsal side containing the calyx facing the coverslip.

*Image acquisition and analysis*

TDP-43 cytoplasmic localization and MBN cell loss: Images were acquired using a Zeiss 880

Laser Scanning Confocal inverted microscope with a Plan-Apochromat 63x/1.4 oil DIC M27

lens. TDP-43 YFP signal intensity was quantified per unit area in the nucleus and cell body.

Hoechst was used to define the nuclear boundaries, while total cellular TDP-43 signal was

measured by tracing a boundary around YFP signal in the entire cell (Figure 1-supplement 3).

To quantify the total number of MBNs expressing TDP-43 YFP, all nuclei were counted from

optical sections 2 $\mu$m apart to ensure nuclei were counted only once. We tested for differences

in TDP-43 nuclear to cellular ratio and MBN number by age, sex, and genotype using Analysis

of Variance (ANOVA) performed on a linear model (*lm* function in R; R Core Team 2017).

Residuals were normally distributed (Shapiro-Wilks test for normality, P = 0.890 and P = 0.395

for ratio and MBN number, respectively) and we therefore continued with pairwise comparisons

using Tukey's Honest Significant Difference corrected for multiple comparisons.

<u>Signal intensity:</u> All images were acquired using a Zeiss 880 Laser Scanning Confocal inverted

microscope with a Plan-Apochromat 63x/1.4 oil DIC M27 lens. For mCD8 RFP fluorescence

intensity, brains were imaged using either an Alexa Fluor 568 or a DS Red filter set with pinhole

adjusted to 1 AU and 3 $\mu$m optical section thickness. For measuring anti-GFP FITC

fluorescence intensity, brains were imaged using the FITC filter set with the pinhole adjusted to

1 AU and 0.5 $\mu$m optical section thickness. Fluorescence intensity was measured in FIJI as the

integrated density over the sample area in axons by manually tracing $\alpha/\beta$ or $\gamma$ lobes and

subtracting adjacent background signal. First, a polygon was traced free-hand over the visible

area of each lobe ($\alpha/\beta$ or $\gamma$). This polygon was then dragged to an adjacent area of the brain to

obtain a mean fluorescence intensity for the background in each section. In instances where the

polygon was shaped in such a way that it could not be dragged to adjacent brain area, a

comparably-sized polygon was drawn in the adjacent brain region. Intensity was measured in at

least three sections to obtain mean fluorescence intensity in each channel (RFP or FITC) for

both $\alpha/\beta$ and $\gamma$ lobes of each brain. To test for differences in signal intensity within a genotype

across age time points, values of signal intensity were normalized to mean signal intensity of

young (1- 3 day old) brains of the same genotype and lobe. Statistical analysis of change in

fluorescence intensity with age was performed by comparing middle aged (~30 days) or old

(~60 days) flies and young (~1 day) flies from the same genotype using the Wilcoxon Rank Sum

test. Summary statistics can be found in Supplemental table S2A.

<u>YFP particle size:</u> The Analyze Particles function in FIJI was used to identify YFP puncta in MB

lobes. Images were first contrast enhanced using a brightness/contrast enhancement (saturated

pixels set to 0.3% and normalized) followed by thresholding using the Bernsen method in the

Auto Local Threshold function with a 25 – 50 pixel radius depending on image quality. Particles

were considered puncta when they were 0.25 – 3.0 $\mu m^2$ in size and showed 0.25 - 1.0

circularity. To measure mean particle size in each sample, a polygon was drawn over the visible

portion of each lobe in at least three sections for each lobe. From these subsamples we

calculated a mean particle size for each lobe of each brain. Summary statistics can be found in

Supplemental table S2B.

<u>GAL4 dilution effect:</u> To test whether UAS-driven expression of a second transgene reduces

UAS-driven TDP-43$^{WT}$ expression, in addition to western blots, we also measured mean pixel

intensity from maximum intensity projections of the horizontal lobes ($\beta$ and $\gamma$ combined in

maximum intensity projection) in two genotypes with *SS01276*-driven transgenes, *OR-R ;TDP-*

*43$^{WT}$::YFP* and *w$^{1118}$ ; TDP-43$^{WT}$::YFP mCD8::RFP* (Figure 7-supplement 3).

*Behavioral assays*

<u>Y-maze:</u> To measure changes in working memory, we employed a y-maze assay described by

Lewis et al. (2017). We tracked the two-dimensional movement of individual *Drosophila* placed

in small symmetrical Y-mazes using video recordings for ten 1-minute trials following two

minutes of acclimation time in the maze. Observations took place between 08:45 and 11:00 and

14:00 to 16:00 when flies were most active. Male and female flies were run separately and the

locations of genotypes in the 7 by 7 maze array were randomized for each set of trials. Assays

were conducted in a dark room with each maze lit uniformly from below with a white LED array

and capped with a clear Plexiglas coverslip. The overall movement of flies and visits to three

unique arms consecutively were quantified using the Noldus Ethovision software. Spontaneous

alternation behavior was measured by scoring three consecutive arm entries in a sliding window

for each of ten trials. The alternation score was calculated as alternations divided by alternation

attempts. Movement and alternation data were summed for each fly during each 1-minute trial

and then averaged over ten trials for statistical analyses. Flies originating from three biological

replicates were pooled for analysis (Supplementary table S3). The large samples sizes

permitted the use of parametric tests, and we assessed differences in distance moved or

alternation score across genotypes using ANOVA on a linear mixed-effects model (lmer function

in R; Bates et al., 2015) that included replicate as a fixed effect. Flies that performed no

alternations naturally did not have a percent alternation score and were removed from

subsequent analysis. Males and females were analyzed separately. Flies were additionally

assessed for the presence of bias for specific arms, calculated as a ratio of the mean number of

entries into each arm over mean total entries and tested for significant variation from 0.333

using the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test. Interestingly, while females showed no arm biases, males

overexpressing *TDP-43^{WT}* and OR-R controls showed a bias against arm B (*TDP-43^{WT}*, $\bar{x}$ =

0.307 ± 0.08, P < 0.0001; OR-R, $\bar{x}$ = 0.316 ± 0.13, P = 0.0038). *TDP-43^{WT}* also showed a bias

for arm A ($\bar{x}$ = 0.352 ± 0.076, P = 0.0033), while OR-R controls showed a bias for arm C ($\bar{x}$ =

0.347 ± 0.113, P = 0.048). Although these analyses suggest that arm biases exist in males and

are not unique to TDP-43 overexpression, a single replicate was used to test whether Dlp

overexpression could rescue alternation deficits seen in TDP-43 overexpressing flies therefore

hypothesis testing proceeded with non-parametric tests as described in *Statistical analyses*.

<u>Sleep:</u> Adult flies from the three age time points were monitored individually using *Drosophila*

Activity Monitors (DAMs; Trikinetics, Waltham, MA; Chiu et al., 2010). Flies were placed in

monitoring tubes with a small amount of food the day before they reached 2-3, 31-33, or 61-63

days old. Sleep and activity monitoring began at 12 AM following placement of flies in the sleep

incubator, allowing flies at least six hours prior to the start of the experiment to acclimate to the

tubes. Sleep and locomotor activity data were collected at 1-minute intervals for three days and

analyzed using ShinyR-DAM (Cichewicz and Hirsh, 2018). In *Drosophila ,* sleep is defined at 5

minutes of inactivity (Shaw et al., 2000) and here sleep data were processed using the ShinyR

DAM program (Cichewicz and Hirsh 2018), which provided average sleep, sleep bout number

and duration, and activity to sleep bout length ratio. Comparison of these variables by age and

genotype were conducted separately for male and female flies. Data from two replicates were

pooled (> 15 flies per genotype x replicate; sample sizes in supplemental tables S4A, S4B).

*Lifespan*

Newly eclosed virgin males and females were separated and placed on fresh food, then

transferred weekly into new food vials. The number of surviving flies was counted every other

day for 100 days. Survival analysis and plots were generated using R packages *survival*

(Therneau, 2021) and *survivminer* (Kassambara et al., 2021).

*mRNA targets of TDP-43*

RNA Immunoprecipitations: Equal numbers of male and female flies, aged 1-3 days, were

pooled in Eppendorf tubes and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. A minimum of 500 flies expressing

YFP, TDP-43$^{WT}$ YFP, or TDP-43$^{G298S}$ YFP were collected for each of three biological replicates.

Frozen flies were then transferred to 50mL conical tubes and heads were separated from the

bodies using four rounds of vortexing and flash freezing with liquid nitrogen. A sieve was used

to filter out the bodies and isolated heads were collected into tubes containing lysis beads (Next

Advance Green lysis beads). Heads were homogenized (Next Advance Bullet Blender) in 1mL

fresh lysis buffer (DEPC water, 50 mM HEPES buffer pH 7.4, 0.5% Triton X-100, 150 mM NaCl,

30 mM EDTA), protease inhibitors (cOmplete™, Mini, EDTA-free Protease Inhibitor Cocktail,

Millipore Sigma 11873580001), and RNAsin Plus 400 u/mL (Fischer Scientific PRN2615),

centrifuged for 10 minutes at 10,000 rpm, and the lysate was collected. A portion of the lysate

was saved for the protein input and RNA input samples. For protein input, the lysate was mixed

with 2X Laemmli buffer, boiled at 95-100$^{o}$C for 10 minutes, and stored at -20$^{o}$C. For RNA input,

TRIzol reagent (Thermofisher 15596026) was added to the lysate and the sample was stored at

-80$^{o}$C. High affinity GFP-Trap magnetic agarose beads (ChromoTek) were added to the

remaining lysate and rotated end-over-end for 90 minutes at 4°C to allow for binding of YFP.

The beads were separated from the lysate with a magnet and washed three times with fresh

wash buffer (DEPC water, 50 mM HEPES buffer pH 7.4, 0.5% Triton X-100, 150 mM NaCl, 30

mM EDTA). The beads were resuspended in wash buffer and split into two tubes for the protein

IP and RNA IP samples. For the protein IP sample, 2X Laemmli buffer was added to the beads,

samples were boiled at 95-100°C for 10 minutes, and the beads were removed with a magnet.

Western blots (see above) were performed to ensure that the immunoprecipitated complexes

contained TDP-43 before processing the RNA IPs. For the RNA IP sample, TRIzol reagent was

added to the beads, the solution was pipetted up and down for 60 seconds, and the beads were

removed with a magnet.

<u>RNA-Seq:</u> RNA was quantified by nanodrop to bring it within range for ribogreen quantification.

RNA was also checked using Agilent Tapestation High Sensitivitiy RNA screentape. 1 ng total

RNA was used for SMART-Seq HT PLUS (Takara Bio USA, Inc. Cat # R400748) following

manufacturer's protocol. Determination of cDNA quality and quantity was determined via Agilent

Tapestation High Sensitivity D5000 Screentape and Qubit dsDNA HS assay for input into library

amplification. Libraries were quantified by Agilent Tapestation High Sensitivity D1000

Screentape and Kapa Library Quantification kit for Illumina platforms. Libraries were pooled

equimolarly, pools were quantified by Agilent Tapestation High Sensitivity D1000 Screentape

and Kapa Library Quantification kit and loaded on the NovaSeq 6000 S4 flowcell and

sequenced to 101 x 11 x 11 x 101 cycles. Trimmed fastqs were aligned to the Dmel genome

with STAR v2.6.1d (Dobin et al., 2013). Aligned reads were counted with featureCounts v1.6.3

(Liao et al., 2014) using the genome annotation. Files produced for individual samples were

aggregated into a single .txt file using python. Differential expression was quantified using

DESeq2 (Love et al., 2014). We included overexpression of cytoplasmic YFP in MBNs as a

control for IPs, however the expression levels of YFP alone were far greater than cytoplasmic

TDP-43 YFP (data not shown), making it difficult to assess the role of cytoplasmic YFP alone.

To ensure that candidate mRNA targets showing the greatest enrichment were indeed specific

in their association with TDP-43, we subtracted YFP control Log2FC values from the Log2FC

values of targets recovered in each of our models. Indeed, in this YFP-subtracted analysis

*futsch* was recovered as enriched with TDP-43 in both variants (Figure 6A, Figure 6-figure

supplement 1A) and the majority of mRNAs that showed high enrichment in the original analysis

were retained in the YFP-subtracted analyses (Figure 6A vs 6D, Supplemental figure S6A vs

S6C).

<u>Functional annotation:</u> The Database for Annotation, Visualization, and Integrated Discovery

(DAVID) was used to functionally annotated genes enriched with TDP-43 (Dennis et al., 2003;

Sherman et al., 2022). To assess genes over-represented in our disease model data sets, we

used lists of genes significantly enriched with each of our TDP-43 models (differential gene

expression lists available in source data).

<u>RNA Extraction for Validation:</u> RNA input and RNA IP samples, stored in TRIzol reagent

(Thermofisher 15596026) at -80$^{o}$C, were allowed to thaw completely on ice and chloroform was

added to each sample. Samples were shaken briefly to mix, left to incubate for 3 minutes at

room temperature, and then centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4$^{o}$C to allow for

separation of the aqueous and organic phases. The RNA-containing aqueous phase was

collected and molecular grade isopropyl alcohol was added to each sample. Samples were

incubated for 10 minutes at room temperature for RNA precipitation and then centrifuged at

12,000 rpm for 10 minutes. The pelleted RNA was washed with 75% ethanol (200 proof ethanol

& HyPure water) and left to dry in a fume hood. RNA was resuspended in HyPure water and the

concentration and 260/280 absorbance ratio were measured using Nanodrop.

<u>RT-qPCR:</u> RNA extracted from input and IP samples was used as template RNA for cDNA

synthesis by reverse transcription. Total RNA used in the cDNA synthesis reactions was

normalized across samples. cDNA was synthesized using the Fisher First Strand cDNA

synthesis kit (Thermofisher Scientific K1641). qPCR reactions were prepared in a 96-well qPCR

plate, in triplicates, using Taqman Fast Advanced Master Mix (Thermofisher Scientific 4444556)

and Taqman probes for Dally-like protein (dlp) (Thermofisher Scientific Dm01798597_m1) and

Gpdh1 (Thermofisher Scientific Dm01841185_m1). qPCR was conducted on the qTOWER

(Analytik Jena 844-00504-4) qPCR machine. Delta Ct was calculated as the difference in Ct

values (dlp - gpdh1). To determine enrichment of dlp mRNA in the IPs, ΔΔCt was calculated as

the difference in Delta Ct values (IP - Input). Fold change was calculated as $2^{(-\Delta\Delta Ct)}$.

<u>Dally-like protein target validation:</u> Brains from flies 1-3 days or 50-55 days were dissected out

and the tissue fixed, permeabilized and blocked as described above. Brains were then

incubated overnight at 4°C in an anti-Dally-like protein antibody at 1:5 in block (13G8 developed

by Phil Beachy, obtained from the Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, created by the

NICHD of the NIH and maintained at The University of Iowa, Department of Biology, Iowa City,

IA 52242, targets amino acids V523 to Q702), rinsed 3X in 0.1% PBST and incubated in goat

anti-mouse Alexa Flour 647 antibody overnight at 4°C (1:300, ThermoFisher A32728). Images

were acquired using a Zeiss 880 Laser Scanning Confocal inverted microscope with a Plan-

Apochromat 63x/1.4 oil DIC M27 lens. Signal intensity was traced from maximum intensity

projections of the MBLs and normalized to background intensity. Dlp signal intensity declined

with age in TDP-43 flies, so the mCD8-RFP channel was used to trace the lobes in aged brains,

ensuring the correct lobe area was used for signal intensity measurements.

**DATA AVAILABILITY**

Summary statistics for each figure can be found in the supplemental tables file. Source data are available from ScholarSphere (doi:10.26207/jq6p-w169) and are cataloged in the Key Resources table. Please refer to the included readme file for variable descriptions. RNA-seq data are available from NCBI GEO Bioproject GSE217213.

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Figure 1. *TDP-43$^{WT}$* overexpression in Kenyon Cells results in cytoplasmic mis-localization and

age-dependent cell loss. Illustrations in (A), (B), and (C) correspond to approximate plane of

imaging for Kenyon cells in (A') larval, (B') young adult, and (C') old adult brain. (A') Nuclear

localization of human TDP-43$^{WT}$ YFP in the larval MBNs. (B') Young adult flies (1 – 3 days)

contain cells with TDP-43$^{WT}$ YFP in the cell body and cells showing nuclear loss of TDP-43$^{WT}$

YFP (adjacent, double arrows as compared with single arrow). (C') Old adults (50 – 55 days)

have fewer cells with nuclear depletion but concurrent loss in total number of TDP-43$^{WT}$ positive

neurons (quantified in E and F). Stacked, double arrows indicate a cell that has a signal

intensity ratio > 1.0 due to punctate TDP-43 signal in the nucleus. Magenta asterisks indicate

cells where nuclear depletion can be detected visually. (D) Histograms showing distribution of

TDP-43$^{WT}$ YFP signal intensity ratios (cell nuclei to total cell) shift with age. Arrows correspond

to measurements taken from cells shown in figure inset taken from (B'), (C'). (E) Age-specific

TDP-43$^{WT}$ YFP signal intensity ratios. (F) Decrease in TDP-43$^{WT}$ YFP positive cells from young

to old adults. *SS01276 > YFP* used as age-matched controls. Larval cell numbers provided for

reference, but not used in statistical comparisons. Data for TDP-43$^{G298S}$ YFP presented in

Figure 1-supplement 2. Scale bars = 50 μm. ** = P < 0.01; *** = P < 0.001.

Figure 2. Mushroom body lobes (MBLs) show age-related, region-specific $TDP-43^{WT}$

accumulation and axonal fragmentation. (A) Illustrations of MBLs targeted by $TDP-43^{WT}$ OE and

observed changes with age (a, intact in young flies; d, increasingly punctate TDP-43 YFP by

middle-age; g, axonal thinning and evidence of degeneration specifically in the $\gamma$ lobe). These

are presented alongside morphology of young (b, c,) middle-aged (e, f) and old (h, i) control flies

expressing membrane-bound RFP (mCD8 RFP) or cytoplasmic YFP. (B) Overexpression of

$TDP-43^{WT}$ YFP in MBNs results in axonal localization of TDP-43 in young adult flies (c) and

dystrophic neurites in middle-aged (e) and old (h) flies. (C) Signal intensity of mCD8 RFP with

age in $\gamma$ (left) and $\alpha/\beta$ (right) lobes. (D) Changes in $TDP-43^{WT}$ YFP particle size with age in $\gamma$

(left) and $\alpha/\beta$ (right) lobes. Data for $TDP-43^{G298S}$ presented in Figure 2-supplement 1. Scale bar

= 25 $\mu$m * = P <0.05; ** = P < 0.01; *** = P < 0.001.

Figure 3. Overexpression of TDP-43 in mushroom body MBNs results in spatial working

memory deficits. (A) Schematic of the spatial working memory assay showing the sequence of

decisions made by a fly (black text) and those coded as alternations (blue text). Alternation

scores were calculated as the number of alternations ($N_{alt}$) divided by alternation attempts

($A_{max}$). (B) Young (1-3 days old) flies with TDP-43$^{WT}$ YFP OE show significant increases in

movement. (C) Despite moving more, these flies show reduced alternation percent when

compared with controls. Grey dotted line = control group median. A% = alternation percent. * =

P <0.05; ** = P < 0.01; *** = P < 0.001.

● $w^{1118}$  ● $w^{1118}$; TDP-43$^{WT}$

Figure 4. TDP-43$^{WT}$ overexpression in mushroom body MBNs reduces arousal, increasing day

and night sleep. (A) Proportion of time flies spent sleeping during the day and (B) at night. (C)

Sleep fragmentation assessed by number of sleep bouts (top panel) and mean bout length

(bottom panel) during the night. Male data on the left and female data on the right in each panel.

Data for TDP-43$^{G298S}$ presented in Figure 4-supplement 1. * = P <0.05; ** = P < 0.01; *** = P <

0.001

Figure 5. TDP-43 overexpression in MBs is sufficient to reduce lifespan. Data from male and

female flies pooled for analysis. Number of flies N=149 for YFP controls and 147 for TDP-43[WT]

YFP expressing flies). Data for TDP-43[G298S] presented in Figure 5-supplement 1. *** P < 0.001

Figure 6. mRNAs enriched with TDP-43 in *Drosophila* models of proteinopathy in FTD and ALS.

(A) Volcano plot displaying mRNAs enriched with TDP-43. Y-axis depicts Log2 Fold Change

after subtraction of YFP control values (see Materials and Methods). A small number of targets

showing greatest enrichment with high confidence are highlighted with blue circles (log2 Fold

Change > 2 and P < 1 x $10^{-14}$). (B) Schematic showing subsets of neurons in fly models of FTD

(MBs, above) and ALS (MNs, below), and Venn diagram depicting enriched mRNAs unique to

MB and MN circuits, and overlapping between models. (C) Volcano plot displaying mRNAs

enriched in TDP-43 complexes that are MB-specific (blue) or shared between MB and MN

models (green); saturated green circles indicate shared targets that show log2 Fold Change > 3

and P < 1 x $10^{-14}$; blue circles indicate MB targets with log2 Fold Change > 2 and P < 1 x $10^{-14}$.

Data for TDP-43$^{G298S}$ presented in Figure 6-supplement 1.

Figure 7. Dally-like protein is a target of TDP-43$^{WT}$ in MBNs where it mediates TDP-43

dependent working memory deficits. (A) Dlp antibody labelling in mushroom bodies shows age

and TDP-43 dependent reduction. Genotypes (*w$^{1118}$; YFP* and *w$^{1118}$; TDP-43$^{WT}$::YFP*

*mCD8::RFP*), stainings (Dlp, YFP, RFP) and ages (1 and ~ 50 days old), as indicated. (B)

Quantification of age and TDP-43 dependent changes in Dlp signal intensity within MBLs. (C)

Mean distance moved and (D) alternation per trial in males overexpressing Dlp (*w$^{1118}$ ; ; dlp*

*OE),* TDP-43$^{WT}$ (*w$^{1118}$ ; TDP-43$^{WT}$::YFP)* or both *(w$^{1118}$ ; TDP-43$^{WT}$::YFP; dlp OE*) compared to

*w$^{1118}$* genetic background controls. Grey dotted line represents control group median. Scale bar

= 50 μm. Data for TDP-43$^{G298S}$ presented in Figure 7-supplement 1. * = P < 0.05, ** = P < 0.01

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