Title: **The axonal localization of Dual Leucine Zipper Kinase defines its protein-turnover**

Seungmi Kim, Yaw Quagraine, Monika Singh, Jung Hwan Kim*

Department of Biology, University of Nevada, Reno, Reno, NV 89557

*Correspondence: jungkim@unr.edu

<u>Summary</u>

Subcellular protein localization plays critical roles in diverse neuronal functions. Dual Leucine

Zipper Kinase (DLK) mediates neuronal stress responses including neuronal loss in multiple

neurodegenerative disorders. DLK is axonally expressed, and its expression is constantly

suppressed under normal conditions. However, little is known about how and why DLK is

localized in axons. We found that Wallenda (Wnd), the *Drosophila* ortholog of DLK, is highly

enriched in the axon terminals and this localization is necessary for the Highwire-mediated

suppression of Wnd protein levels. We further found that a palmitoylation on Wnd plays an

essential role in its axonal localization. Inhibiting axonal localization of Wnd resulted in

dramatically increased protein levels of Wnd, which led to excessive stress signaling including

neuronal loss. Our study demonstrates that subcellular protein localization is coupled with

regulated protein turnover in neuronal stress response.

Keywords

DLK, axonal localization, regulated protein turnover, Highwire, protein palmitoylation, HIP14,

stress response, neurodegeneration

Highlights

• Wnd is highly enriched in the axon terminals.

• Wnd protein turnover by Hiw is restricted in axons.

• Wnd Palmitoylation is essential for its axonal localization, thus for its protein turnover.

• Palmitoylation-deficient Wnd exacerbates neuronal loss by deregulated protein

expression.

Introduction

A typical neuron is composed of somatodendritic and axonal compartments that are

morphologically and functionally distinct, which is essential for a functioning nervous system.

Distinct compositions of membrane and cytoplasmic proteins in each compartment represent its

functions and are precisely established, maintained by an intricate network of intracellular

transport (Guedes-Dias and Holzbaur, 2019; Guillaud et al., 2020). Consistently, defective

neuronal intracellular transport was reported as an early cellular event in various

neurodegenerative disorders including amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (Collard et al., 1995; De

Vos and Hafezparast, 2017), Alzheimer's (Calkins et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2015), Parkinson's

(Saha et al., 2004; Chu et al., 2012), and Huntington's diseases (Lee et al., 2004; Reddy and

Shirendeb, 2012; Smith et al., 2014).

Dual Leucine Zipper Kinase (DLK), also known as MAP3K12 is a cytoplasmic protein kinase

essential for stress signaling and mediates diverse neuronal responses including axon

regeneration, axon degeneration, and cell death (Miller et al., 2009; Xiong et al., 2010; Shin et

al., 2012; Xiong and Collins, 2012; Watkins et al., 2013; Li et al., 2021). To avoid excessive

stress signaling, neurons tightly control DLK activity mainly through suppressing protein

expression levels by an evolutionarily conserved PHR1/RPM-1/Highwire (Hiw) ubiquitin ligase

(Nakata et al., 2005; Collins et al., 2006; Xiong et al., 2010; Huntwork-Rodriguez et al., 2013).

Remarkable, recent studies have shown the likely widespread role of DLK in neuronal death

from neurotrophic factor deprivation, glaucoma, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, and Alzheimer's

disease models (Pozniak et al., 2013; Welsbie et al., 2013, 2017; Larhammar et al., 2017a; Le

Pichon et al., 2017; Patel et al., 2017a). These observations also imply the upregulated or

deregulated DLK protein levels in these diseases. Interestingly, DLK proteins are present in the

axonal compartments (Xiong et al., 2010; Klinedinst et al., 2013; Holland et al., 2016; Niu et al.,

2020, 2022). Although a widely accepted model provides an elegant mechanism of axonal

retrograde signaling by axonally expressed DLK proteins (Yan et al., 2009; Xiong et al., 2010;

Shin et al., 2012; Larhammar et al., 2017b; Asghari Adib et al., 2018), little is known about how

and why DLK is expressed in axons and whether this localization plays a role in neuronal stress

response.

Here, we report a novel coupling between axonal localization and protein turnover of DLK. We

found that Wallenda (Wnd), *Drosophila* DLK is highly enriched in the axon terminals of

Drosophila sensory neurons and that Wnd protein turnover by Hiw is restricted to the axons.

Furthermore, we identified a crucial motif on Wnd - a protein palmitoylation - that is necessary

for axonal localization but does not affect DLK signaling capacity. Inhibiting axonal transport of

Wnd caused a massive accumulation of Wnd proteins in neuronal cell bodies, which resulted in

excessive stress signaling and subsequent neuronal loss. Together, our findings demonstrate

the importance of DLK protein transport in neuronal stress responses.

<u>Result</u>

Wnd is highly enriched in the axon terminals.

DLK genes encode cytosolic proteins but are found in the axonal compartments of diverse

animals (Holland et al., 2016; Niu et al., 2020, 2022). To understand the role of DLK axonal

localization, we first set out to test the extent of axonal localization of *Drosophila* DLK, Wallenda

(Wnd). We took advantage of a *wnd* protein-trap allele, *Mi{MIC}wnd^{GFSTF}*, which allows us to

visualize endogenous Wnd protein expression via an EGFP tag (Venken et al., 2011; Li et al.,

2017). The levels of Wnd-GFSTF proteins in the third instar larva stage were extremely low. To

enhance detection of Wnd-GFSTF, the experiment was performed in *highwire* (*hiw*) mutants,

hiw$^{\Delta N}$ (Wu et al., 2005). Hiw is a neuronal ubiquitin ligase that selectively targets Wnd for protein

degradation. The third instar larvae were immunostained with anti-GFP antibody and examined

under a confocal microscope. The result showed a strikingly polarized expression pattern of

Wnd. While Wnd-GFSTF expression was evident in the neuropil region in the ventral nerve cord

(VNC), we could not detect any meaningful signal from the neuronal cell bodies, especially from

the peripheral nervous system neurons (**Figure 1A**). Neuropils are enriched in neural dendrites

and axons while mostly devoid of neuronal cell bodies.

To dissect the mechanisms underlying Wnd protein localization, we turned to a transgene

approach. Selective protein expression can be achieved by various ways including local protein

synthesis, selective protein retention and degradation, and protein transport. Local protein

synthesis requires transport of mRNAs to a cellular compartment, which often requires

sequence motifs in the untranslated region (UTR) of an mRNA. We generated the Wnd-GFP

transgenes with and without *wnd*-UTR. The Wnd transgenes were specifically expressed in the

larval sensory neurons (C4da) using *ppk-GAL4* (Grueber et al., 2007). These neurons position

their cell body in the larval body wall where they elaborate dendrites while sending their axons

to the larval central nervous system — the VNC, hence provide an excellent tool to study

localized protein expression in the cell body, dendrites, and axons (Grueber et al., 2007). We

measured expression levels of Wnd transgenes in the cell body and in the axon terminals of

C4da neurons using confocal microscope imaging. Their expression levels were normalized by

a general membrane marker, mCD8::RFP. The result showed a striking enrichment of Wnd in

the axon terminals of C4da neurons regardless of the UTR (**Figure 1B** and **1D**), which suggests

that the axonal localization of Wnd is not through the local protein synthesis. Excessive Wnd

signaling impairs *ppk*-GAL4 activity, compounding our analysis (Wang et al., 2013). Thus, we

treated larvae with DLKi/GNE-3511, a specific inhibitor of DLK kinase activity (Patel et al.,

2017b). DLKi did not affect larva viability nor basal Cd4a morphology. A kinase-dead version of

Wnd, Wnd-KD::GFP showed similar axonal enrichment in the presence and in the absence of

DLKi, which further suggests that the axonal localization of Wnd is independent of Wnd kinase

activity (**Figure 1C** and **1D**).

Wnd protein turnover by Hiw is restricted in the axon terminals.

The protein levels of DLK proteins are highly suppressed by a neuronal ubiquitin ligase

PHR1/RPM-1/Hiw in mice, *C elegans*, and *Drosophila* (Nakata et al., 2005; Collins et al., 2006;

Xiong et al., 2010; Huntwork-Rodriguez et al., 2013). One possible way of enriching Wnd

proteins in axons might be to degrade Wnd in the cell body but not in the axon terminals by Hiw.

Our Wnd transgenes showed detectable expression levels in the cell body unlike Wnd-GFSTF,

which allowed us to test this possibility. We expressed Wnd-KD::GFP in C4da neurons of wild-

type and *hiw* mutant animals. The fluorescent intensity of Wnd-KD::GFP in the cell body and in

the axon terminals were directly compared (**Figure 2**). The prediction was that *hiw* mutations

would increase Wnd-KD::GFP expression in the cell body, but not in the axon terminals. To our

surprise, we did not observe any changes in Wnd-KD::GFP expression levels from the cell body

of *hiw* mutant C4da neurons in comparison to those from wild-type control. In contrast, we

observed a dramatic 7-fold increase of Wnd-KD::GFP expression levels in the axon terminals by

hiw mutations (**Figure 2**). The result strongly suggests that Hiw-mediated degradation of Wnd is

not responsible for axonal enrichment of Wnd proteins. Rather, this suggests that Wnd proteins

are transported towards the axon terminals to be regulated by Hiw. DLK proteins serve as a

stress sensor for neuronal stress. To avoid unwanted stress responses, DLK protein levels are

constantly suppressed under normal conditions. In this scenario, preventing Wnd transport out

of the neuronal cell body will result in deregulated Wnd protein expression levels, which

potentially results in exacerbated stress signaling.

The protein palmitoylation of Wnd is essential for axonal localization of Wnd.

To test the idea, we sought out the necessary motifs in Wnd protein for axonal transport.

Mi{MIC}wnd^{GFSF} is recessive lethal, which suggests that the insertion of the GFSF-tag hamper

the proper protein folding of Wnd, and that the axonal localization motifs in Wnd may not require

fully folded Wnd proteins. Thus, we set out a structure-function analysis of Wnd by serially

deleting Wnd transgenes by 100 amino acids (aa) in hope to narrow down the motifs for axonal

transport (**Figure 3A**). The Wnd transgenes were expressed in C4da neurons, and Wnd axonal

enrichment was measured as in Figure 1. While deleting the first 100 aa of Wnd

(WndΔ100::GFP) did not affect the axonal enrichment of Wnd, deleting the first 200aa of Wnd

(WndΔ200::GFP) resulted in a dramatic 43-fold reduction in Wnd axonal enrichment. Deleting

101-200aa of Wnd (WndΔ101-200::GFP) caused a similar, dramatic reduction in Wnd axonal

localization (**Figure 3B**). This suggest that 101-200aa of Wnd contains a motif for axonal

transport. Interestingly, Wnd101-200 region contains an evolutionarily conserved palmitoylation

motif — Cysteine-130 (Wnd-C130) (**Figure 3C**). The palmitoylation site has been shown to be

required for associating DLK to neuronal vesicles and for DLK signaling in mammalian neurons

and in *C. elegans* (Holland et al., 2016). However, its role in axonal localization of DLK proteins

is not known. Furthermore, whether *Drosophila* DLK, Wnd undergoes protein palmitoylation was

not known. To confirm the protein palmitoylation on Wnd-C130, we mutated the Cysteine to

Serine and named Wnd-C130S. We expressed a wild-type Wnd (Wnd::GFP) and a

palmitoylation site mutated Wnd (Wnd-C130S::GFP) in the cultured *Drosophila* Schneider 2

(S2) cells using PEI-mediated transfection (Longo et al., 2013) and performed the Acyl-Biotin

Exchange (ABE) assay (Brigidi and Bamji, 2013) to measure protein palmitoylation of Wnd

proteins. The result showed about 50% reduction of protein palmitoylation in Wnd-C130S::GFP

as compared to Wnd::GFP (**Figure 3D**), which strongly suggests that Wnd-C130 is a

palmitoylation site. Next, we expressed Wnd::GFP and Wnd-C130S::GFP in the larval C4da

neurons and measured their axonal enrichment. The result showed a dramatic 30-fold reduction

in Wnd axonal localization (**Figure 3E**). Taken together, our data demonstrates that Wnd-C130

is a palmitoylation site in *Drosophila* and that this palmitoylation is essential for axonal

localization of Wnd.

dHIP14 is required for Wnd axonal localization.

Next, we asked which palmitoyl-transferase (PAT) is responsible for Wnd axonal localization.

DHHC family PATs perform palmitoylation reaction on Cysteine residue. There are twenty-two

putative DHHC (PAT) in *Drosophila* (Bannan et al., 2008). A previous work has shown that DLK

can be palmitoylated by at least ten DHHC-PATs in a heterologous system (Holland et al.,

2016). A more recent work has shown that Zdhhc17/Huntingtin-interacting protein14 (HIP14)

mediates DLK palmitoylation on the Golgi complex of rat dorsal root ganglion neurons (Niu et

al., 2020). Interestingly, we observed a punctate localization pattern of Wnd-KD::GFP in the

larval C4da neurons (**Figure 1** and **2**), which resembles the somatic Golgi in the larval C4da

neurons (Zhou et al., 2014). Additionally, the punctate localization pattern of Wnd proteins in the

cell body seemed to be well-correlated with axonal localization of truncated Wnd proteins

(**Figure 3B**), which suggests that Wnd palmitoylation takes place on the somatic Golgi. To test if

somatic Golgi localization is necessary for Wnd axonal localization, we expressed serially

deleted Wnd proteins along with a medial-trans Golgi marker, ManII-Tag::RFP (Zhou et al.,

2014) and performed a co-localization analysis of Wnd proteins and ManII-Tag::RFP using the

Manders Coefficient (Bolte and Cordelières, 2006; Pike et al., 2017) (**Figure 4A**). The results

showed a significant colocalization between Wnd-KD::GFP, Wnd-KDΔ100::GFP, and ManII-

Tag::RFP. The co-localization requires Wnd101-200aa because Wnd-Δ200::GFP nor Wnd-

Δ101-200::GFP showed co-localization with ManII-Tag::RFP. Note that Wnd101-200aa was

required for Wnd axonal localization (**Figure 3B**). Taken together, these suggest that Wnd is

recruited to somatic Golgi before being transported to the axon terminals, and that somatic

Golgi is the site of Wnd palmitoylation. Zdhhc17/HIP14 is known to be localized on Golgi (Niu et

al., 2020). We tested if the *Drosophila* ortholog of Zdhhc17/HIP, dHIP14 is present in the

somatic Golgi of C4da neurons. We expressed a Tdtomato-tagged dHIP14

(dHIP14::Tdtomato)(Stowers and Isacoff, 2007) along with ManII::GFP (Ye et al., 2007) and

measured the Pearson coefficient to evaluate the puncta colocalization (Pike et al., 2017). The

result showed a strong Golgi localization of dHIP14::Tdtomato in C4da cell bodies (Pearson's

coefficient 0.85 ± 0.029, **Figure 4B**). A strong colocalization between dHIP14::Tdtomato and

Wnd-KD::GFP was also observed in C4da cell bodies (Pearson's coefficient 0.86 ± 0.039,

Figure 4C), presumably on the somatic Golgi. We tested a role of dHIP14 by expressing Wnd-

KD::GFP in *dHIP14* mutants, *dHIP14* [ex11] (Stowers and Isacoff, 2007). The result shows a

significant reduction in Wnd axonal localization by *dHIP14* mutations (**Figure 4D**). These

suggest that dHIP14 is responsible for axonal localization of Wnd by palmitoylation.

Palmitoylation-defective Wnd exhibits increased protein expression levels.

Next, we reasoned that if axonal localization is a necessary step for Wnd protein turnover, the

palmitoylation-defective Wnd or Wnd-C130S would have increased protein expression levels.

We expressed Wnd::GFP and Wnd-C130S::GFP under a pan-neuronal driver, *Elav*-GAL4.

Overexpressing catalytically active Wnd proteins in the nervous system leads to lethality. Thus,

larvae were fed with DLKi. The total Wnd::GFP protein expression levels were measured in the

larval brain lysates using Western blot analysis (**Figure 5A**). The result showed a dramatic

increase (7-fold) of total Wnd protein levels of Wnd-C130S::GFP as compared to those of

Wnd::GFP. To determine the cellular location where Wnd-C130S::GFP expression occurs, we

expressed Wnd::GFP and Wnd-C130S::GFP in the larval C4da neurons using *ppk*-GAL4, and

directly compared the protein expression levels of the Wnd transgenes in C4da axon terminals

and in C4da cell body (**Figure 5B**). While Wnd-C130S::GFP showed reduced protein

expression in C4da axon terminals (3-fold reduction) as compared to that of Wnd::GFP, we

observed a dramatic 10-fold higher protein expression levels from Wnd-C130S::GFP in C4da

cell body in comparison to those of Wnd::GFP. Taken together, these demonstrate that axonal

transport out of neuronal cell body is necessary for Wnd to undergo proper protein turnover.

A palmitoylation-defective Wnd causes exacerbated neuronal stress responses.

DLK triggers neuronal stress signaling and its activity is mainly regulated by its protein levels

(Nakata et al., 2005; Collins et al., 2006; Karney-Grobe et al., 2018). The failure of suppressing

Wnd protein levels in Wnd-C130S::GFP may lead to excessive stress signaling in neurons. The

palmitoylation of DLK is known to be essential for DLK signaling in *C. elegans* and in

mammalian cells (Holland et al., 2016; Martin et al., 2019; Niu et al., 2020, 2022). However, it is

not known how the palmitoylation in *Drosophila* DLK/Wnd affects its signaling capacity. Unlike

diffuse cytoplasmic expression pattern of palmitoylation-deficient DLK proteins in *C. elegans*

and mammalian cells, we observed a discrete subcellular expression pattern of Wnd-

C130S::GFP in C4da cell body (**Figure 3E**), which showed a strong colocalization with the

somatic Golgi (Data not shown). A recent work from Tortosa et al. suggested that it is

membrane localization of DLK proteins, but not palmitoylation itself is essential for DLK

signaling (Tortosa et al., 2022). Thus, we tested whether Wnd-C130S::GFP retains signaling

capacity. One of the neuronal events caused by hyperactive Wnd signaling is exuberant axon

arborization (Kim et al., 2013). We expressed Wnd-KD::GFP, Wnd::GFP, and Wnd-C130S::GFP

in the larval C4da neurons and measured number of connecting fibers in C4da neuropil to

evaluate axon arborization (**Figure 5C**). The method was successfully used to estimate axon

arborization previously (Wang et al., 2013; Sterne et al., 2015; Singh et al., 2022). Wnd-

KD::GFP was used as a negative control. The result showed exuberant axon arborization from

the C4da neurons expressing Wnd::GFP and Wnd-C130S::GFP, but not from Wnd-KD::GFP

(**Figure 5C** and **5D**). This strongly suggests that unlike DLK proteins from *C. elegans* and

mammalian cells, the palmitoylation on Wnd-C130 is not essential for the signaling capacity of

Wnd.

DLK-mediated stress signal was shown to cause neuronal loss in multiple neurodegenerative

disorder models (Patel et al., 2015, 2017a; Larhammar et al., 2017a; Le Pichon et al., 2017; Niu

et al., 2022). Consistently, overexpressing Wnd was shown to induce eye degeneration in

Drosophila (Ma et al., 2015). We expressed Wnd::GFP, Wnd-C130S::GFP, and Wnd-KD::GFP

in *Drosophila* eye using *GMR*-GAL4 (Seong et al., 2001). Expressing Wnd::GFP or Wnd-

C130S::GFP caused pupa lethality (Data not shown) suggesting that hyperactive Wnd signaling

is toxic to fly development. Thus, we raised flies at a lower temperature to reduce transgene

expression. We found that the flies expressing Wnd::GFP or Wnd-C130S::GFP exhibited severe

eye degeneration phenotypes while Wnd-KD::GFP did not affect eye development (**Figure 6A**).

To quantify severity of eye degeneration phenotypes, we measured the area of the degenerated

eye. The result showed significantly smaller eye area from Wnd-C130S::GFP expression as

compared to those from Wnd::GFP (**Figure 6B**), which suggests that Wnd-C130S::GFP

triggered excessive stress signaling because of its deregulated protein turnover.

Discussion

Here, we report a novel coupling of axonal DLK protein expression and protein turnover in

neuronal stress signaling. We demonstrate that the protein turnover of *Drosophila* DLK, Wnd is

confined in axons, and that a failure to localize Wnd proteins in axons leads to deregulated Wnd

protein turnover, hence increased protein levels. The excessive neuronal stress responses

caused by the latter underscore the importance of DLK protein transport and localized protein

turnover.

Many neuronal proteins exhibit polarized protein expression patterns. DLK proteins are found in

the axonal compartments of diverse animals (Xiong et al., 2010; Klinedinst et al., 2013; Holland

et al., 2016; Niu et al., 2020, 2022). However, the extent of DLK axonal localization was not

studied in depth, presumably because of technical limitations. We employed *Drosophila* larval

sensory neurons to answer this question. Our data suggests that Wnd proteins are highly

enriched in the axon terminals of these neurons (**Figure 1**). Given that Wnd encodes a

cytoplasmic protein, the extent of axonal enrichment was rather surprising. Wnd protein levels

are constantly suppressed by Hiw in the axon terminals. Without such suppression, Wnd

proteins would show well over 70-fold enrichment in axons, which might be on par with those of

synaptic proteins. The UTRs of *wnd* are dispensable for Wnd axonal enrichment (**Figure 1B**),

which suggests that Wnd protein transport is responsible for such axonal enrichment of Wnd.

Consistent with the notion, Wnd proteins were found on the antero- and retrograde moving

vesicles in axons (Xiong et al., 2010; Holland et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017). Together, these

suggest that Wnd proteins are synthesized in the neuronal cell body and transported into axons

by a highly active and efficient anterograde transport process.

What might be such a transport mechanism? DLK genes encode cytoplasmic proteins. Protein

palmitoylation is reported as an important post-translational mechanism for protein transport

(Aicart-Ramos et al., 2011; Tortosa and Hoogenraad, 2018). It increases hydrophobicity of

target proteins to aid membrane association so that palmitoylated proteins are transported along

with the membrane vesicles they associate. We found that protein palmitoylation on Wnd-C130

is essential for Wnd axonal localization. Interestingly, the palmitoylation defective Wnd-C130S

exhibited large punctate structures in the cell body (**Figure 3E**) that were co-localized with

somatic Golgi complex (Data not shown). This suggests that Wnd-C130 palmitoylation is not

essential for membrane association. The residual palmitoylation that we observed in Wnd-

C130S (**Figure 3D**) may indicate the presence of a second palmitoylation site and may explain

how Wnd-C130S associates with the Golgi. Consistent with this idea, DLK proteins in

mammalian cells and *C. elegans* are palmitoylated on a single Cysteine residue and showed

diffuse cytoplasmic expression when the cysteine residue was mutated (Holland et al., 2016).

This raises a question of why Wnd-C130S::GFP is not transported to axons with this remaining

palmitoylation and membrane association. Interestingly, a recent study proposed the role of

protein palmitoylation in the anterograde transport in the Golgi complex (Ernst et al., 2018). We

show that a Golgi-localized PAT, dHIP14 is required for Wnd axonal localization (**Figure 4**). We

envision that Wnd-C130 palmitoylation is a necessary step towards the axonal anterograde

transport from the somatic Golgi complex rather than merely acting as a membrane anchor.

Future studies will be needed to unveil neuronal protein transport pathways of DLK proteins.

Why does DLK need to be transported into axons? Our study of the palmitoylation-defective

Wnd provides an insight. DLK proteins act as an axonal stress sensor (Asghari Adib et al.,

2018; Farley and Watkins, 2018). In this model, DLK protein levels or activity increases by

axonal stress followed by DLK-mediated axonal retrograde signaling. This model is supported

by various studies. For example, the expression levels of GFP::Wnd-KD were increased in the

proximal axons after a nerve injury in *Drosophila* larval motor neurons (Xiong et al., 2010). DLK

mediates STAT3 retrograde signaling after axon injury in mouse sensory neurons (Shin et al.,

2012). The local application of DLK inhibitors in axons prevented stress signaling caused by

trophic factor deprivation in compartmentalized dorsal root ganglion explant culture (Larhammar

et al., 2017b). Collaborating with the studies showing the requirement of DLK palmitoylation in

axonal vesicle association and neuronal stress response (Holland et al., 2016; Martin et al.,

2019; Niu et al., 2020, 2022), these led to a model in which DLK signaling requires axonal

expression of DLK proteins (Asghari Adib et al., 2018). Our study suggests that this may not

represent a complete picture. Although expression levels of Wnd-C130S is significantly reduced

in axons, it did show similar in axon arborization (**Figure 5**) or even greater stress responses

and in neuronal loss (**Figure 6**). In fact, it is the total expression levels of Wnd that showed a

correlation with the eye loss phenotypes. Thus, our study suggests that DLK axonal localization

is not a prerequisite for DLK signaling, and that DLK retrograde pathway is a way employed by

axonally expressed DLK. Consistent with this notion, a recent work demonstrated that DLK

palmitoylation is not essential for DLK signaling but its main role is to bring DLK proteins to the

intracellular membrane (Tortosa et al., 2022).

Our study shows that Hiw-mediated Wnd protein turnover is restricted in axons. How does Hiw

perform such compartmentalized Wnd targeting? One possibility is that Hiw is only present in

the axon terminals, not in the cell body. Phr1 was shown to be expressed in axonal segments of

motor neuron explants and in the axon shaft of sensory neurons but was low or absent in the

growth cone (Lewcock et al., 2007) although it is not known whether and how much Phr1

proteins are present in the cell body. Unfortunately, the lack of immunostaining compatible Hiw

antibody preclude us from testing the possibility. However, although present in axons,

transgenic expression of Hiw, GFP::Hiw showed a significantly higher expression in the motor

neuron cell body (Xiong et al., 2010). Moreover, a study has shown that Hiw controls dNMNAT2

expression both in the cell body and the neuromuscular junction (Xiong et al., 2012). Together,

it is unlikely that Hiw protein expression itself is restricted in the axon terminals. Another

possibility is that DLK proteins are protected from PHR1/RMP-1/Hiw in the cell body.

Interestingly, DLK protein stability can be enhanced by Hsp90 (Karney-Grobe et al., 2018),

protein phosphorylation by JNK (Huntwork-Rodriguez et al., 2013), and PKA (Hao et al., 2016).

It will be interesting to see how these protective pathways collaborate with PHR1/RMP-1/Hiw to

execute axon-specific protein turnover of DLK proteins.

We propose the novel coupling between axonal transport and protein turnover of DLK proteins.

What might be the biological role of this coupling? Recent studies suggest that DLK is a central

player in neuronal death including Alzheimer's disease and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis

(Pozniak et al., 2013; Welsbie et al., 2013, 2017; Larhammar et al., 2017a, 2017b; Le Pichon et

al., 2017; Patel et al., 2017a), which suggests that DLK activity or protein levels might be

deregulated in these conditions. Interestingly, defective axonal transport is an early hallmark in

many neurodegenerative disorders (Chevalier-Larsen and Holzbaur, 2006; De Vos et al., 2008;

Guo et al., 2020). The defective axonal transport in these neurodegenerative conditions might

lead to accumulation of DLK in the cell body and deregulated DLK protein levels. It is tempting

to envision that defective anterograde transport and subsequent accumulation of DLK proteins

in neuronal cell bodies is causative of neuronal loss in these neurodegenerative diseases.

Interestingly, increased DLK protein levels were reported in neuronal cell bodies after neuronal

insults (Watkins et al., 2013; Welsbie et al., 2013). It is also interesting to note that DLK

signaling is activated by cytoskeletal disruptions (Valakh et al., 2013, 2015), which might disrupt

cytoskeleton-based axonal transport. The possibility is highly intriguing and will be an important

future direction to investigate.

Taken together, our study demonstrates a novel coupling between axonal protein localization

and protein turnover and provides an insight on the potential link between defective axonal

transport in neurodegenerative disorders and DLK-mediated stress signaling.

Acknowledgments

We thank Drs. Steve Stowers and Catherine Collins for sharing reagents. Research reported in

this study used the Cellular and Molecular Imaging Core facility at the University of Nevada

Reno, which was supported by NIH GM103650. This study was supported by NIH

R01NS116463 and P20GM103440 (NV INBRE) to J.K. The content is solely the responsibility of

the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of

Health.

Author contributions

S.K., Y.Q., M.S., and J.K. designed the experiments. S.K., Y.Q., M.S., and J.K. performed

experiments. S.K. and J.K. wrote the manuscript.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Wnd is highly enriched in the axon terminals of *Drosophila* sensory neurons.

(A) A representative image of *Mi{MIC}wnd*^{GFSTF} in the neuropil of larval ventral nerve cords (top)

and C4da neuron cell body (bottom) from a hemizygous *hiw* mutant (*hiw*$^{\triangle N}$) were shown. Wnd-

GFP (Wnd-GFSTF, green) and anti-HRP staining (magenta). Scale bar = 10 μm.

(B) The Wnd::GFP (with or without *wnd*-UTRs, green) along with mCD8::RFP (magenta) were

expressed in the larval C4da neurons in the presence of DLK inhibitor (DLKi). The expression

levels of transgenes were shown in C4da cell body and the axon terminals. Scale bar = 10 μm.

(C) A Wnd kinase-dead (Wnd-KD::GFP, green) along with mCD8::RFP (magenta) were

expressed in the larval C4da neurons in either regular food or food containing DMSO (vehicle

control) or DLKi. The expression levels of transgenes were shown in C4da cell body and the

axon terminals. Scale bar = 10 μm.

(D) The axonal enrichment index from (B) and (C) were expressed as median ± 95% CI.

Sample numbers were 5'UTR-Wnd::GFP-3'UTR (*w*^{1118}*; UAS-5'UTR-Wnd::GFP-3'UTR/+;ppk-*

GAL4, UAS-mCD8::RFP/+) with DLKi (n = 26), Wnd::GFP (*w*^{1118}*; UAS-Wnd::GFP-SV40 3'UTR*

/+; ppk-GAL4, UAS-mCD8::RFP/+) with DLKi (n = 22), Wnd-KD::GFP (*w*^{1118}*; UAS-Wnd-*

KD::GFP/+; ppk-GAL4, UAS-mCD8::RFP/+) (n = 10), with DLKi (n = 6), with DMSO (n = 6);

One-way ANOVA (F$_{(4,65)}$ = 1.017) followed by post hoc Tukey's multiple comparison test.

Figure 2. Highwire regulation of Wnd is restricted in the axon terminals.

The Wnd-KD::GFP along with mCD8::RFP (magenta) were expressed in C4da neurons in wild-

type, *wt* (*w^{1118}*;*UAS-Wnd-KD::GFP/+;ppk-Gal4, UAS-mCD8::RFP/+*) or in *hiw* mutant (*hiw^{ΔN};*

UAS-Wnd-KD::GFP/+;ppk-Gal4,UAS-mCD8::RFP/+) larvae. Representative images of Wnd-

KD::GFP and mCD8::RFP in C4da cell bodies and axon terminals, stained for anti-GFP (green)

and anti-RFP (magenta). The average Wnd-KD::GFP intensity from cell bodies and axon

terminals were quantified and expressed as median ± 95% CI (Cell body: n = 8, U=25,

P=0.3213, Axon terminal : n = 9, U=0, P<0.0001, two-tailed Mann-Whitney test). The images of

mCD8::RFP were shown as counter staining. Scale bar = 10 µm.

Figure 3. Wnd palmitoylation is required for Wnd axonal localization.

(A) Schematic of Wnd deletion mutants. Deletion of the N-terminal 1-100 aa of Wnd (WndΔ100),

Deletion of the N-terminal 1-200 aa of Wnd (WndΔ200), and Deletion of the N-terminal 101-200

aa of Wnd (WndΔ101-200).

(B) The transgenes of serially deleted Wnd (green) along with mCD8::RFP were expressed in

the larval C4da neurons. Note that WndΔ100 was further mutated to remove kinase activity

(Wnd-KDΔ100). The expression levels of Wnd::GFP proteins in C4da cell body and the axon

terminals were shown (left). Scale bars = 10 μm. The axonal enrichment of each Wnd

transgenes were measured using mCD8::RFP as a normalization control (right) and expressed

as median ± 95% CI. One-way ANOVA ($F_{(3,59)}$ = 103.8) followed by post hoc Tukey's multiple

comparison test. The p values from Tukey's test are indicated in the graph. Genotypes were

Wnd-KDΔ100 (*UAS-Wnd-KDΔ100-KD::GFP/+;ppk-Gal4, UAS-mCD8::RFP/+*), WndΔ200 (*UAS-*

WndΔ200::GFP/+;ppk-Gal4, UAS-mCD8::RFP/+), and WndΔ101-200 (*UAS-WndΔ101-*

200::GFP/+;ppk-Gal4, UAS-mCD8::RFP/+).

(C) Wnd-C130 is an evolutionarily conserved palmitoylation site.

(D) The Acyl Biotin Exchange (ABE) assay was performed on the beads coupled with Wnd

proteins that were expressed in S2 cells. Wnd-C130S::GFP is a palmitoylation defective version

of Wnd. "No HAM" serves as a negative control since Biotin exchange does not occur in the

absence of HAM. Biotin blot shows protein palmitoylation levels while total Wnd shows Wnd

protein levels in the pulldown. The numbers indicate the relative amount of palmitoylated Wnd in

Wnd::GFP and Wnd-C130S::GFP.

(E) Wild-type Wnd::GFP transgene (Wnd::GFP) and palmitoylation defective Wnd transgenes

(Wnd-C130S::GFP) along with mCD8::RFP were expressed in the larval C4da neurons in the

presence of DLKi. The expression levels of Wnd::GFP proteins in C4da cell body and the axon

terminals were shown (top). Scale bar = 10 μm. The axonal enrichment of the Wnd transgenes

were measured using mCD8::RFP as a normalization control (bottom) and expressed as

median ± 95% CI (n = 12 for Wnd::GFP, n = 10 for Wnd-C130S::GFP, Mann-Whitney U=0,

P<0.0001, two-tailed Mann-Whitney test). Genotypes were Wnd::GFP (*UAS-Wnd::GFP/+;ppk-*

Gal4, UAS-mCD8::RFP/+) and Wnd-C130S::GFP (*UAS-WndC130S::GFP/+;ppk-Gal4, UAS-*

mCD8::RFP/+).

Figure 4. dHIP14 is required for Wnd axonal localization.

(A) Wnd transgenes (green) along with a Golgi marker, ManII-Tag::RFP (magenta) were expressed in the larval C4da neurons. The expression patterns of the two transgenes in C4da cell bodies were shown (left). Scale bar = 5 µm. The Manders' overlap coefficient between Wnd transgenes and ManII-Tag::RFP was measured and expressed as median ± 95% CI (right). Genotypes and sample numbers were Wnd-KD::GFP (*w^{1118}; UAS-Wnd-KD::GFP/+;ppk-GAL4/UAS-ManII-Tag-RFP*, n = 23), Wnd-KDΔ100::GFP (*w^{1118}; UAS-Wnd-Δ100-KD::GFP/+;ppk-GAL4/UAS-ManII-Tag-RFP*, n=26), Wnd-Δ200::GFP (*w^{1118}; UAS-Wnd-Δ200::GFP/+;ppk-GAL4/UAS-ManII-Tag-RFP*, n = 28) and Wnd-Δ101-200::GFP (*w^{1118}; UAS-WndΔ101-200::GFP/+;ppk-GAL4/UAS-ManII-Tag-RFP*, n = 15). One-way ANOVA ($F_{(3,88)}$ = 129.8) followed by post hoc Tukey's multiple comparison test. The p values from Tukey's test are indicated in the graph.

(B) A Golgi marker, ManII::GFP (green) was expressed in the larval C4da neurons along with dHIP14::Tdtomato (magenta). The image was taken from a C4da cell body. Scale bar = 10 µm.

(C) Wnd-KD::GFP (green) was expressed in the larval C4da neurons along with dHIP14::Tdtomato (magenta). The image was taken from a C4da cell body. Scale bar = 10 µm.

(D) Wnd-KD::GFP (green) along with mCD8::RFP (magenta) were expressed in the larval C4da neurons from wild-type (*wt*) or from homozygous *dHIP14* mutants (*dHIP14^{ex11}*). Scale bar = 10 µm. The axonal enrichment of Wnd-KD::GFP was measured and expressed as median ± 95% CI (Mann-Whitney U=13, P<0.0001, two-tailed Mann-Whitney test). Genotypes and sample numbers were *wt* (*UAS-Wnd-KD::GFP/ppk-Gal4, U-mCD8::RFP;+/+*, n = 17) and *dHIP14^{ex11}* (*UAS-Wnd-KD::GFP/ppk-Gal4, U-mCD8::RFP;dHIP14^{ex11}*, n = 16).

Figure 5. Increased protein expression levels of palmitoylation-defective Wnd.

(A) Wnd::GFP and Wnd-C130S::GFP were expressed in the larval nervous system using a pan neuronal driver in the presence of DLKi. Larval brain lysates were subjected to Western blot analysis using a GFP antibody. Elav blot was used as a loading control. The GFP blots were normalized by Elav blots and expressed as mean ± SEM (n = 4, t = 9.409, df =3, p=0.0025, two-tailed ratio paired t-test). Genotypes were Wnd::GFP (*elav-Gal4/+; UAS-Wnd::GFP/+;*) and WndC130S::GFP (*elav-Gal4/+; UAS-WndC130S::GFP/+;*).

(B) Wnd transgenes (green) along with mCD8::RFP were expressed in the larval C4da neurons to directly compare the expression levels of Wnd::GFP and Wnd-C130S::GFP in C4da cell bodies and axon terminals. The larvae were treated with DLKi. Scale bar = 10 µm. The average fluorescent intensities from GFP staining of each larva sample were measured and expressed as median ± 95% CI (Axon terminal: Mann-Whitney U=2, P=0.0162, two-tailed Mann-Whitney test, Cell body: Mann-Whitney U=0, P<0.0001, two-tailed Mann-Whitney test). Genotypes and sample numbers were Wnd::GFP (*UAS-Wnd::GFP/+;ppk-Gal4, UAS-mCD8::RFP/+*, n = 8) and Wnd-C130S::GFP (*UAS-WndC130S::GFP/+;ppk-Gal4, UAS-mCD8::RFP/+*, n = 4).

(C) Wnd transgenes along with mCD8::RFP were expressed in the larval C4da neurons. The axon terminal morphology was visualized by mCD8::RFP. Note the increased number of connecting fibers between neuropils. Wnd-KD::GFP (*UAS-Wnd-KD::GFP/+;ppk-Gal4, UAS-mCD8::RFP/+*), Wnd::GFP(*UAS-Wnd::GFP/+;ppk-Gal4, UAS-mCD8::RFP/+*), and WndC130S::GFP (*UAS-WndC130S::GFP/+;ppk-Gal4, UAS-mCD8::RFP/+*). Scale bar = 10 µm.

(D) The number of connecting fibers between neuropils was measured and expressed as median ± 95% CI. One-way ANOVA ($F_{(2, 27)}$ = 31.84) followed by post hoc Tukey's multiple comparison test. The p values from Tukey's test are indicated in the graph. Sample numbers are 10 for all genotypes.

Figure 6. Palmitoylation-defective Wnd caused exacerbated neuronal loss.

(A) Representative images of fly eye phenotypes from Wnd::GFP fly (Wnd::GFP), a fly

expressing Wnd::GFP under GMR-GAL4 (GMR>Wnd::GFP), a fly expressing Wnd-C130S::GFP

under GMR-GAL4 (GMR>Wnd-C130::GFP), and a fly expressing Wnd-KD::GFP under GMR-

GAL4 (GMR>Wnd-KD::GFP).

(B) Eye area was quantified from the genotypes and expressed as median ± 95% CI. One-way

ANOVA ($F_{(6, 136)}$ = 362.0) followed by post hoc Tukey's multiple comparison test. The p values

from Tukey's test are indicated in the graph. Genotypes and sample numbers were GMR

(;GMR-GAL4/+;, n = 21), Wnd::GFP (;*UAS-Wnd::GFP/+;,* n = 22), Wnd-C130S::GFP (;*UAS-*

Wnd-C130S::GFP/+;, n = 20), Wnd-KD::GFP (;*UAS-Wnd-KD::GFP/+;, n = 24*), GMR>Wnd::GFP

(;*GMR-GAL4/UAS-Wnd::GFP; n = 17*), GMR>Wnd-C130S::GFP (;*GMR-GAL4/UAS-Wnd-*

C130S::GFP; n = 16), and GMR>Wnd-KD::GFP ((;*GMR-GAL4/UAS-Wnd-KD::GFP; n = 23*).

Note a more severe eye phenotypes in GMR>Wnd-C130S::GFP as compared to

GMR>Wnd::GFP.

<u>Experimental Procedures</u>

Drosophila Strains, rearing, DNA Constructs for Generating Transgenic Flies

The following *Drosophila* strains were reared at 25°C in a humidified chamber. *ppk-GAL4*

(Grueber et al., 2007); *UAS-dHIP14::Tdtomato* and *dHIP14^{ex11}* (Stowers and Isacoff, 2007);

hiw$^{\Delta N}$ (Wu et al., 2005); *UAS-ManII::GFP* (Ye et al., 2007); *UAS-ManII-Tag::RFP* (Zhou et al.,

2014); *Mi{MIC}wnd ^{GFSTF}* (Venken et al., 2011); *GMR-Gal4* (Seong et al., 2001); *elav-Gal4^{C155}*

(BDSC #459); *w^{1118}* (BDSC #3605).

To generate DNA constructs of *Wnd* with its natural 5'- and 3'-UTRs and the serial deletion

constructs of Wnd, the genomic sequences of the 5'-UTR and 3'-UTR of *Wnd* were obtained

from *w^{1118}* genomic DNA by PCR. The coding sequence of *Wnd* was recovered from UAS-Wnd

(Collins et al., 2006) via PCR and inserted into the pUASTattB plasmid using NotI and Xbal

restriction sites. UAS-Wnd-KD::GFP and Wnd-KDΔ100 were generated by site-directed

mutagenesis using In-Fusion® Snap Assembly Master Mix (Takara Bio USA, Inc, San Jose,

CA). UAS-WndC130S::GFP and UAS-WndΔ101-200::GFP were generated by site-directed

mutagenesis. The resulting PCR product was ligated using a Q5® Site-Directed Mutagenesis

Kit (New England BioLabs, Ipswich, MA) following instructions of the manufacturer.

Transgenic flies were generated by PhiC31-mediated germline transformation using an identical

landing site (Bischof et al., 2007).

To dose larvae with DLKi (GNE-3511**,** Sigma, St. Louis, MO), DLKi was dissolved in DMSO and

was added to a final concentration of 35 µM in fly food. Fly larvae were raised directly on either

control (DMSO) or DLKi containing food.

Drosophila Schneider 2 cell culture, transfection, Palmitoylation assay, and Western blot.

Drosophila Schneider 2 (S2) cells were prepared as previously described (Singh et al., 2022).

Cells were transfected with indicated DNA constructs and tubulin-Gal4 (Lee and Luo, 1999)

using polyethyleneimine (Polysciences, Warrington, PA) (Longo et al., 2013).

Two days after transfection, the Acyl-Biotin Exchange (ABE) assay was performed as modified

from Brigidi and Bamji (Brigidi and Bamji, 2013). Cells were lysed in the ice-cold Lysis buffer

(LB, 50 mM HEPES/pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1% NP40, 5% glycerol, 1 mM PMSF, 1

mM Na_3VO_4, 5 mM NaF) with Halt™ protease inhibitor cocktail EDTA- free (ThermoFisher

Scientific, Waltham, MA) and 25mM N-ethylmaleimide (Sigma, St. Louis, MO), incubated for 1hr

at 4˚C and centrifuged at 1000 xg for 5 min. The resulting post-nuclear lysates were centrifuged

at 20,000 xg for 30 min at 4˚C. The supernatant was incubated with the GFP selector (NanoTag

Biotechnologies, Göttingen, Germany) for 2 hr at 4˚C to pulldown Wnd-GFP proteins. The GFP

selector beads along with bound proteins were recovered by a brief centrifugation and washed

two times with LB containing 0.1% SDS before incubating with 1 M hydroxylamine hydrochloride

(HAM, Sigma, St. Louis, MO) in LB (pH 7.2) at room temperature for 1 hr. Half of the protein-

bound GFP selector beads were incubated with LB without HAM and used as a "-HAM" control.

Then, the protein GFP selector beads were washed with pH 6.2 LB twice and treated with 1.6

µM EZ-Link™ BMCC-Biotin (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) in pH 6.2 LB for 45 min at

4˚C. Beads were washed twice with LB without NP40 before being processed for SDS-PAGE.

Proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and were subjected to Western blot analysis with

mouse monoclonal anti-Biotin antibody (Jackson Immunoresearch, West Grove, PA) and

chicken polyclonal anti-GFP antibody (Aves Labs, Tigard, OR). The small aliquots of bead

samples were blotted using anti-Wnd antibody (Collins et al., 2006) to estimate total Wnd

proteins on the beads.

To measure Wnd expression in the larval brains, larvae were grown on fly food containing 35

µM DLKi food at 20°C in a humidified chamber. The larval central nervous system (the ventral

nerve cord and brain lobes) was dissected out from the 3rd instar larvae and collected in ice-cold

PBS before recovery by a brief centrifugation at 4°C. The total brain lysates were prepared by

directly adding SDS-PAGE sample buffer and homogenization before being resolved on 8%

SDS-PAGE gel and subsequent Western blot analysis.

Immunostaining and Imaging

Drosophila 3rd instar larvae were prepared for immunostaining as previously described (Singh et

al., 2022). Primary antibodies used were rabbit polyclonal anti-RFP (Rockland

Immunochemicals, Limerick, PA), chicken polyclonal anti-GFP (Aves Labs, Tigard, OR), and

goat anti-horseradish peroxidase conjugated with Cy5 (Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove,

PA). The secondary antibodies used were Cy2- or Cy5-conjugated goat anti-chicken and Cy2-

or Cy5-conjugated goat anti-Rabbit (Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove, PA).

Confocal imaging was done with a Leica SP8 confocal system, or a custom-built spinning disk

confocal microscope equipped with a 63x oil-immersion objective with a 0.3 μm step-sizes.

For Wnd axonal enrichment analysis, the C4da neuron cell bodies from abdominal segments 4-

6 and the corresponding segments in the ventral nerve cord were imaged. The resulting 3D

images were projected into 2D images using a maximum projection method in the imageJ

software. A region of interest was drawn in the cell body of C4da neurons, and the mean

fluorescence intensity was measured using ImageJ software. The mean fluorescence intensity

of UAS-mCD8::mRFP transgene expression was measured from the same region of interest

and used as a normalization control. The mean intensities of the C4da cell bodies from a single

larva were averaged out to calculate the axonal enrichment index. The axonal enrichment index

was defined as Wnd expression (mean intensity) in the axon terminals divided by an average

Wnd expression in cell bodies (mean intensity).

For Golgi and Wnd colocalization, the Manders' Overlap Coefficient (Pike et al., 2017) was

measured as the percentage of total GFP signal overlapping with RFP signal using the ImageJ

plugin, JACoP (Bolte and Cordelières, 2006). To analyze puncta colocalization, we used the

Pearson coefficient (Pike et al., 2017) that is correlation between each channel signal using

JACop.

Axon arborization analysis

The quantitation of axon arborization by counting the axonal connecting fibers (Sterne et al.,

2015) were done as previously described.

Drosophila eye degeneration

Flies were raised at 18°C. The flies that are 24 – 48 hr after eclosion were imaged using the

Basler ace acA2440-75 µm CCD-camera installed on a stereomicroscope. The region of interest

was drawn on the fly eye area from the images and expressed as pixel numbers.

Experimental design and statistical analysis.

All statistical analysis was performed as two-tailed using GraphPad Prism software version

7.04. The Mann–Whitney test was used for immunostaining results. A ratio paired t-test was

used for Western blot analysis (see Figs. 5A). For multigroup comparisons, one-way ANOVA

was used followed by post hoc Tukey's multiple comparisons tests. A p-value smaller than 0.05

was considered statistically significant. All p values are indicated as NS; non-significant, *; P <

0.05, **; P < 0.01, ***; P < 0.001, and ****; P < 0.0001

Oligonucleotides used in this study	SOURCE
5'UTR-Wnd::GFP-3'UTR	This paper
Forward : AGGGAATTGGGAATTTTGGTCGGAATAAACGCG	
Reverse : TAGTGGATCTCTAGAAGCGTTCTTACAAGTTTTCATTTTATTATTAT	
Wnd::GFP	This paper
Forward : GTGCGGCCGCATGCAACCGTTCAGCGAC	
Reverse : CGTCTAGATTACTTGTACAGCTCGTCCATGC	
Wnd-KD::GFP(WndK188A::GFP)	This paper
Forward : GGCGGTCGCGAAGGTGAAGGAGCTGAAGG	
Reverse : ACCTTCGCGACCGCCACAGTCTCGTTC	
Wnd-KDΔ100::GFP	This paper
Forward : GGCGGTCGCGAAGGTGAAGGAGCTGAAGG	
Reverse : ACCTTCGCGACCGCCACAGTCTCGTTC	
WndΔ100::GFP	This paper
Forward : GTGCGGCCGCATGCAGCGCTGGCCACCTCATG	
Reverse : CGTCTAGATTACTTGTACAGCTCGTCCATGC	
WndΔ200::GFP	This paper
Forward : GTGCGGCCGCATGCTCAGGAAGCTCGATCATGAG	
Reverse : CGTCTAGATTACTTGTACAGCTCGTCCATGC	
WndC130S::GFP	This paper
Forward : CTGCTCGGATCCATGAAGCCC	
Reverse : TCCGTACATCCAGCCAATGGG	
WndΔ101-200::GFP	This paper
Forward : CTCAGGAAGCTCGATCATGAGAAC	
Reverse : TTGGCACGTGTTTTCCGCACTGC	

References

Aicart-Ramos, C., Valero, R.A., and Rodriguez-Crespo, I. (2011). Protein palmitoylation and
subcellular trafficking. Biochim Biophys Acta 1808, 2981-2994. 10.1016/j.bbamem.2011.07.009.

Asghari Adib, E., Smithson, L.J., and Collins, C.A. (2018). An axonal stress response pathway:
degenerative and regenerative signaling by DLK. Curr Opin Neurobiol 53, 110-119.
10.1016/j.conb.2018.07.002.

Bannan, B.A., Van Etten, J., Kohler, J.A., Tsoi, Y., Hansen, N.M., Sigmon, S., Fowler, E., Buff,
H., Williams, T.S., Ault, J.G., et al. (2008). The Drosophila protein palmitoylome: characterizing
palmitoyl-thioesterases   and   DHHC   palmitoyl-transferases.   Fly   (Austin)   2,   198-214.
10.4161/fly.6621.

Bischof, J., Maeda, R.K., Hediger, M., Karch, F., and Basler, K. (2007). An optimized transgenesis
system for Drosophila using germ-line-specific phiC31 integrases. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 104,
3312-3317. 10.1073/pnas.0611511104.

Bolte, S., and Cordelières, F.P. (2006). A guided tour into subcellular colocalization analysis in
light microscopy. J Microsc 224, 213-232. 10.1111/j.1365-2818.2006.01706.x.

Brigidi, G.S., and Bamji, S.X. (2013). Detection of protein palmitoylation in cultured hippocampal
neurons by immunoprecipitation and acyl-biotin exchange (ABE). J Vis Exp. 10.3791/50031.

Calkins, M.J., Manczak, M., Mao, P., Shirendeb, U., and Reddy, P.H. (2011). Impaired
mitochondrial biogenesis, defective axonal transport of mitochondria, abnormal mitochondrial
dynamics and synaptic degeneration in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease. Hum Mol Genet
20, 4515-4529. 10.1093/hmg/ddr381.

Chevalier-Larsen, E., and Holzbaur, E.L. (2006). Axonal transport and neurodegenerative
disease. Biochim Biophys Acta 1762, 1094-1108. 10.1016/j.bbadis.2006.04.002.

Chu, Y., Morfini, G.A., Langhamer, L.B., He, Y., Brady, S.T., and Kordower, J.H. (2012).
Alterations in axonal transport motor proteins in sporadic and experimental Parkinson's disease.
Brain 135, 2058-2073. 10.1093/brain/aws133.

Collard, J.F., Côté, F., and Julien, J.P. (1995). Defective axonal transport in a transgenic mouse
model of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Nature 375, 61-64. 10.1038/375061a0.

Collins, C.A., Wairkar, Y.P., Johnson, S.L., and DiAntonio, A. (2006). Highwire restrains synaptic
growth by attenuating a MAP kinase signal. Neuron 51, 57-69. 10.1016/j.neuron.2006.05.026.

De Vos, K.J., Grierson, A.J., Ackerley, S., and Miller, C.C. (2008). Role of axonal transport in
neurodegenerative   diseases.   Annu   Rev   Neurosci   31,   151-173.
10.1146/annurev.neuro.31.061307.090711.

De Vos, K.J., and Hafezparast, M. (2017). Neurobiology of axonal transport defects in motor
neuron diseases: Opportunities for translational research? Neurobiol Dis 105, 283-299.
10.1016/j.nbd.2017.02.004.

Ernst, A.M., Syed, S.A., Zaki, O., Bottanelli, F., Zheng, H., Hacke, M., Xi, Z., Rivera-Molina, F.,
Graham, M., Rebane, A.A., et al. (2018). S-Palmitoylation Sorts Membrane Cargo for Anterograde
Transport in the Golgi. Dev Cell 47, 479-493.e477. 10.1016/j.devcel.2018.10.024.

Farley, M.M., and Watkins, T.A. (2018). Intrinsic Neuronal Stress Response Pathways in Injury
and Disease. Annu Rev Pathol 13, 93-116. 10.1146/annurev-pathol-012414-040354.

Grueber, W.B., Ye, B., Yang, C.H., Younger, S., Borden, K., Jan, L.Y., and Jan, Y.N. (2007).
Projections of Drosophila multidendritic neurons in the central nervous system: links with
peripheral dendrite morphology. Development 134, 55-64. 10.1242/dev.02666.

Guedes-Dias, P., and Holzbaur, E.L.F. (2019). Axonal transport: Driving synaptic function.
Science 366. 10.1126/science.aaw9997.

Guillaud, L., El-Agamy, S.E., Otsuki, M., and Terenzio, M. (2020). Anterograde Axonal Transport
in   Neuronal   Homeostasis   and   Disease.   Front   Mol   Neurosci   13,   556175.
10.3389/fnmol.2020.556175.

Guo, W., Stoklund Dittlau, K., and Van Den Bosch, L. (2020). Axonal transport defects and
neurodegeneration: Molecular mechanisms and therapeutic implications. Semin Cell Dev Biol 99,
133-150. 10.1016/j.semcdb.2019.07.010.

Hao, Y., Frey, E., Yoon, C., Wong, H., Nestorovski, D., Holzman, L.B., Giger, R.J., DiAntonio, A.,
and Collins, C. (2016). An evolutionarily conserved mechanism for cAMP elicited axonal
regeneration involves direct activation of the dual leucine zipper kinase DLK. Elife 5.
10.7554/eLife.14048.

Holland, S.M., Collura, K.M., Ketschek, A., Noma, K., Ferguson, T.A., Jin, Y., Gallo, G., and
Thomas, G.M. (2016). Palmitoylation controls DLK localization, interactions and activity to ensure
effective   axonal   injury   signaling.   Proc   Natl   Acad   Sci   U   S   A   113,   763-768.
10.1073/pnas.1514123113.

Huntwork-Rodriguez, S., Wang, B., Watkins, T., Ghosh, A.S., Pozniak, C.D., Bustos, D., Newton,
K., Kirkpatrick, D.S., and Lewcock, J.W. (2013). JNK-mediated phosphorylation of DLK
suppresses its ubiquitination to promote neuronal apoptosis. J Cell Biol 202, 747-763.
10.1083/jcb.201303066.

Karney-Grobe, S., Russo, A., Frey, E., Milbrandt, J., and DiAntonio, A. (2018). HSP90 is a
chaperone for DLK and is required for axon injury signaling. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 115, E9899-
E9908. 10.1073/pnas.1805351115.

Kim, J.H., Wang, X., Coolon, R., and Ye, B. (2013). Dscam expression levels determine
presynaptic   arbor   sizes   in   Drosophila   sensory   neurons.   Neuron   78,   827-838.
10.1016/j.neuron.2013.05.020.

Klinedinst, S., Wang, X., Xiong, X., Haenfler, J.M., and Collins, C.A. (2013). Independent
pathways downstream of the Wnd/DLK MAPKKK regulate synaptic structure, axonal transport,
and injury signaling. J Neurosci 33, 12764-12778. 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.5160-12.2013.

Larhammar, M., Huntwork-Rodriguez, S., Jiang, Z., Solanoy, H., Sengupta Ghosh, A., Wang, B.,
Kaminker, J.S., Huang, K., Eastham-Anderson, J., Siu, M., et al. (2017a). Dual leucine zipper

kinase-dependent PERK activation contributes to neuronal degeneration following insult. Elife 6.
10.7554/eLife.20725.

Larhammar, M., Huntwork-Rodriguez, S., Rudhard, Y., Sengupta-Ghosh, A., and Lewcock, J.W.
(2017b). The Ste20 Family Kinases MAP4K4, MINK1, and TNIK Converge to Regulate Stress-
Induced JNK Signaling in Neurons. J Neurosci 37, 11074-11084. 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0905-
17.2017.

Le Pichon, C.E., Meilandt, W.J., Dominguez, S., Solanoy, H., Lin, H., Ngu, H., Gogineni, A.,
Sengupta Ghosh, A., Jiang, Z., Lee, S.H., et al. (2017). Loss of dual leucine zipper kinase
signaling is protective in animal models of neurodegenerative disease. Sci Transl Med 9.
10.1126/scitranslmed.aag0394.

Lee, T., and Luo, L. (1999). Mosaic analysis with a repressible cell marker for studies of gene
function in neuronal morphogenesis. Neuron 22, 451-461. 10.1016/s0896-6273(00)80701-1.

Lee, W.C., Yoshihara, M., and Littleton, J.T. (2004). Cytoplasmic aggregates trap polyglutamine-
containing proteins and block axonal transport in a Drosophila model of Huntington's disease.
Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 101, 3224-3229. 10.1073/pnas.0400243101.

Lewcock, J.W., Genoud, N., Lettieri, K., and Pfaff, S.L. (2007). The ubiquitin ligase Phr1 regulates
axon outgrowth through modulation of microtubule dynamics. Neuron 56, 604-620.
10.1016/j.neuron.2007.09.009.

Li, J., Zhang, Y.V., Asghari Adib, E., Stanchev, D.T., Xiong, X., Klinedinst, S., Soppina, P., Jahn,
T.R., Hume, R.I., Rasse, T.M., and Collins, C.A. (2017). Restraint of presynaptic protein levels by
Wnd/DLK signaling mediates synaptic defects associated with the kinesin-3 motor Unc-104. Elife
6. 10.7554/eLife.24271.

Li, Y., Ritchie, E.M., Steinke, C.L., Qi, C., Chen, L., Zheng, B., and Jin, Y. (2021). Activation of
MAP3K DLK and LZK in Purkinje cells causes rapid and slow degeneration depending on
signaling strength. Elife 10. 10.7554/eLife.63509.

Longo, P.A., Kavran, J.M., Kim, M.S., and Leahy, D.J. (2013). Transient mammalian cell
transfection with polyethylenimine (PEI). Methods Enzymol 529, 227-240. 10.1016/B978-0-12-
418687-3.00018-5.

Ma, X., Xu, W., Zhang, D., Yang, Y., Li, W., and Xue, L. (2015). Wallenda regulates JNK-mediated
cell death in Drosophila. Cell Death Dis 6, e1737. 10.1038/cddis.2015.111.

Martin, D.D.O., Kanuparthi, P.S., Holland, S.M., Sanders, S.S., Jeong, H.K., Einarson, M.B.,
Jacobson, M.A., and Thomas, G.M. (2019). Identification of Novel Inhibitors of DLK Palmitoylation
and Signaling by High Content Screening. Sci Rep 9, 3632. 10.1038/s41598-019-39968-8.

Miller, B.R., Press, C., Daniels, R.W., Sasaki, Y., Milbrandt, J., and DiAntonio, A. (2009). A dual
leucine kinase-dependent axon self-destruction program promotes Wallerian degeneration. Nat
Neurosci 12, 387-389. 10.1038/nn.2290.

Nakata, K., Abrams, B., Grill, B., Goncharov, A., Huang, X., Chisholm, A.D., and Jin, Y. (2005).
Regulation of a DLK-1 and p38 MAP kinase pathway by the ubiquitin ligase RPM-1 is required for
presynaptic development. Cell 120, 407-420. 10.1016/j.cell.2004.12.017.

Niu, J., Holland, S.M., Ketschek, A., Collura, K.M., Hesketh, N.L., Hayashi, T., Gallo, G., and
Thomas, G.M. (2022). Palmitoylation couples the kinases DLK and JNK3 to facilitate
prodegenerative axon-to-soma signaling. Sci Signal 15, eabh2674. 10.1126/scisignal.abh2674.

Niu, J., Sanders, S.S., Jeong, H.K., Holland, S.M., Sun, Y., Collura, K.M., Hernandez, L.M.,
Huang, H., Hayden, M.R., Smith, G.M., et al. (2020). Coupled Control of Distal Axon Integrity and
Somal Responses to Axonal Damage by the Palmitoyl Acyltransferase ZDHHC17. Cell Rep 33,
108365. 10.1016/j.celrep.2020.108365.

Patel, S., Cohen, F., Dean, B.J., De La Torre, K., Deshmukh, G., Estrada, A.A., Ghosh, A.S.,
Gibbons, P., Gustafson, A., Huestis, M.P., et al. (2015). Discovery of dual leucine zipper kinase
(DLK, MAP3K12) inhibitors with activity in neurodegeneration models. J Med Chem 58, 401-418.
10.1021/jm5013984.

Patel, S., Meilandt, W.J., Erickson, R.I., Chen, J., Deshmukh, G., Estrada, A.A., Fuji, R.N.,
Gibbons, P., Gustafson, A., Harris, S.F., et al. (2017). Selective Inhibitors of Dual Leucine Zipper
Kinase (DLK, MAP3K12) with Activity in a Model of Alzheimer's Disease. J Med Chem 60, 8083-
8102. 10.1021/acs.jmedchem.7b00843.

Pike, J.A., Styles, I.B., Rappoport, J.Z., and Heath, J.K. (2017). Quantifying receptor trafficking
and colocalization with confocal microscopy. Methods 115, 42-54. 10.1016/j.ymeth.2017.01.005.

Pozniak, C.D., Sengupta Ghosh, A., Gogineni, A., Hanson, J.E., Lee, S.H., Larson, J.L., Solanoy,
H., Bustos, D., Li, H., Ngu, H., et al. (2013). Dual leucine zipper kinase is required for
excitotoxicity-induced neuronal degeneration. J Exp Med 210, 2553-2567.
10.1084/jem.20122832.

Reddy, P.H., and Shirendeb, U.P. (2012). Mutant huntingtin, abnormal mitochondrial dynamics,
defective axonal transport of mitochondria, and selective synaptic degeneration in Huntington's
disease. Biochim Biophys Acta 1822, 101-110. 10.1016/j.bbadis.2011.10.016.

Saha, A.R., Hill, J., Utton, M.A., Asuni, A.A., Ackerley, S., Grierson, A.J., Miller, C.C., Davies,
A.M., Buchman, V.L., Anderton, B.H., and Hanger, D.P. (2004). Parkinson's disease alpha-
synuclein mutations exhibit defective axonal transport in cultured neurons. J Cell Sci 117, 1017-
1024. 10.1242/jcs.00967.

Seong, K.H., Matsuo, T., Fuyama, Y., and Aigaki, T. (2001). Neural-specific overexpression of
drosophila plenty of SH3s (DPOSH) extends the longevity of adult flies. Biogerontology 2, 271-
281. 10.1023/a:1013249326285.

Shin, J.E., Cho, Y., Beirowski, B., Milbrandt, J., Cavalli, V., and DiAntonio, A. (2012). Dual leucine
zipper kinase is required for retrograde injury signaling and axonal regeneration. Neuron 74,
1015-1022. 10.1016/j.neuron.2012.04.028.

Singh, M., Ye, B., and Kim, J.H. (2022). Dual Leucine Zipper Kinase Regulates Dscam Expression
through a Noncanonical Function of the Cytoplasmic Poly(A)-Binding Protein. J Neurosci 42,
6007-6019. 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0543-21.2022.

Smith, G.A., Rocha, E.M., McLean, J.R., Hayes, M.A., Izen, S.C., Isacson, O., and Hallett, P.J.
(2014). Progressive axonal transport and synaptic protein changes correlate with behavioral and
neuropathological abnormalities in the heterozygous Q175 KI mouse model of Huntington's
disease. Hum Mol Genet 23, 4510-4527. 10.1093/hmg/ddu166.

Sterne, G.R., Kim, J.H., and Ye, B. (2015). Dysregulated Dscam levels act through Abelson
tyrosine kinase to enlarge presynaptic arbors. Elife 4. 10.7554/eLife.05196.

Stowers, R.S., and Isacoff, E.Y. (2007). Drosophila huntingtin-interacting protein 14 is a
presynaptic protein required for photoreceptor synaptic transmission and expression of the
palmitoylated proteins synaptosome-associated protein 25 and cysteine string protein. J Neurosci
27, 12874-12883. 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2464-07.2007.

Tortosa, E., and Hoogenraad, C.C. (2018). Polarized trafficking: the palmitoylation cycle
distributes cytoplasmic proteins to distinct neuronal compartments. Curr Opin Cell Biol 50, 64-71.
10.1016/j.ceb.2018.02.004.

Tortosa, E., Sengupta Ghosh, A., Li, Q., Wong, W.R., Hinkle, T., Sandoval, W., Rose, C.M., and
Hoogenraad, C.C. (2022). Stress-induced vesicular assemblies of dual leucine zipper kinase are
signaling hubs involved in kinase activation and neurodegeneration. EMBO J 41, e110155.
10.15252/embj.2021110155.

Valakh, V., Frey, E., Babetto, E., Walker, L.J., and DiAntonio, A. (2015). Cytoskeletal disruption
activates the DLK/JNK pathway, which promotes axonal regeneration and mimics a
preconditioning injury. Neurobiol Dis 77, 13-25. 10.1016/j.nbd.2015.02.014.

Valakh, V., Walker, L.J., Skeath, J.B., and DiAntonio, A. (2013). Loss of the spectraplakin short
stop activates the DLK injury response pathway in Drosophila. J Neurosci 33, 17863-17873.
10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2196-13.2013.

Venken, K.J., Schulze, K.L., Haelterman, N.A., Pan, H., He, Y., Evans-Holm, M., Carlson, J.W.,
Levis, R.W., Spradling, A.C., Hoskins, R.A., and Bellen, H.J. (2011). MiMIC: a highly versatile
transposon insertion resource for engineering Drosophila melanogaster genes. Nat Methods 8,
737-743. 10.1038/nmeth.1662.

Wang, X., Kim, J.H., Bazzi, M., Robinson, S., Collins, C.A., and Ye, B. (2013). Bimodal control of
dendritic and axonal growth by the dual leucine zipper kinase pathway. PLoS Biol 11, e1001572.
10.1371/journal.pbio.1001572.

Wang, Z.X., Tan, L., and Yu, J.T. (2015). Axonal transport defects in Alzheimer's disease. Mol
Neurobiol 51, 1309-1321. 10.1007/s12035-014-8810-x.

Watkins, T.A., Wang, B., Huntwork-Rodriguez, S., Yang, J., Jiang, Z., Eastham-Anderson, J.,
Modrusan, Z., Kaminker, J.S., Tessier-Lavigne, M., and Lewcock, J.W. (2013). DLK initiates a
transcriptional program that couples apoptotic and regenerative responses to axonal injury. Proc
Natl Acad Sci U S A 110, 4039-4044. 10.1073/pnas.1211074110.

Welsbie, D.S., Yang, Z., Ge, Y., Mitchell, K.L., Zhou, X., Martin, S.E., Berlinicke, C.A., Hackler,
L., Fuller, J., Fu, J., et al. (2013). Functional genomic screening identifies dual leucine zipper
kinase as a key mediator of retinal ganglion cell death. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 110, 4045-4050.
10.1073/pnas.1211284110.

Welsbie, D.S., Mitchell, K.L., Jaskula-Ranga, V., Sluch, V.M., Yang, Z., Kim, J., Buehler, E., Patel,
A., Martin, S.E., Zhang, P.W., et al. (2017). Enhanced Functional Genomic Screening Identifies
Novel Mediators of Dual Leucine Zipper Kinase-Dependent Injury Signaling in Neurons. Neuron
94, 1142-1154.e1146. 10.1016/j.neuron.2017.06.008.

Wu, C., Wairkar, Y.P., Collins, C.A., and DiAntonio, A. (2005). Highwire function at the Drosophila
neuromuscular junction: spatial, structural, and temporal requirements. J Neurosci 25, 9557-
9566. 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2532-05.2005.

Xiong, X., and Collins, C.A. (2012). A conditioning lesion protects axons from degeneration via
the Wallenda/DLK MAP kinase signaling cascade. J Neurosci 32, 610-615.
10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3586-11.2012.

Xiong, X., Hao, Y., Sun, K., Li, J., Li, X., Mishra, B., Soppina, P., Wu, C., Hume, R.I., and Collins,
C.A. (2012). The Highwire ubiquitin ligase promotes axonal degeneration by tuning levels of
Nmnat protein. PLoS Biol 10, e1001440. 10.1371/journal.pbio.1001440.

Xiong, X., Wang, X., Ewanek, R., Bhat, P., Diantonio, A., and Collins, C.A. (2010). Protein
turnover of the Wallenda/DLK kinase regulates a retrograde response to axonal injury. J Cell Biol
191, 211-223. 10.1083/jcb.201006039.

Yan, D., Wu, Z., Chisholm, A.D., and Jin, Y. (2009). The DLK-1 kinase promotes mRNA stability
and local translation in C. elegans synapses and axon regeneration. Cell 138, 1005-1018.
10.1016/j.cell.2009.06.023.

Ye, B., Zhang, Y., Song, W., Younger, S.H., Jan, L.Y., and Jan, Y.N. (2007). Growing dendrites
and axons differ in their reliance on the secretory pathway. Cell 130, 717-729.
10.1016/j.cell.2007.06.032.

Zhou, W., Chang, J., Wang, X., Savelieff, M.G., Zhao, Y., Ke, S., and Ye, B. (2014). GM130 is
required for compartmental organization of dendritic golgi outposts. Curr Biol 24, 1227-1233.
10.1016/j.cub.2014.04.008.

Figure 1

A *Mi{MIC}wnd* GFSTF

Wnd-GFP

HRP

VNC neuropil   Body wall

B *5'UTR-Wnd::GFP-3'UTR* (DLKi)   *Wnd::GFP* (DLKi)

GFP

mCD8-RFP

Axon terminals   Cell body   Axon terminals   Cell body

C *Wnd-KD::GFP*   *Wnd-KD::GFP* (DLKi)   *Wnd-KD::GFP* (DMSO)

GFP

mCD8-RFP

Axon terminals   Cell body   Axon terminals   Cell body   Axon terminals   Cell body

D

ns

Axonal enrichment (Normalized by RFP)

5'-Wnd::GFP-3' (DLKi)
Wnd::GFP (DLKi)
Wnd-KD::GFP
Wnd-KD::GFP (DLKi)
Wnd-KD::GFP (DMSO)

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

Wnd | 100 200 | 977: aa | GFP
WndΔ100 | | | GFP
WndΔ200 | | | GFP
WndΔ101-200 | | | GFP

B

Wnd-KDΔ100 | WndΔ200 | WndΔ101-200

Axon terminals

Cell body

ns, P=0.63   ****, P< 0.0001

Axonal enrichment (Normalized by RFP)

ns, P=0.99

Wnd-KD   Wnd-KDΔ100   WndΔ200   WndΔ101-200

C

Wnd | 100 200 | 977 : aa

GLLG**C**MKPVL *D. melanogaster*
GLFG**C**LRPVW *H. sapiens*
GLFG**C**LRPVW *M. musculus*
GLFS**C**FQPVF *C. elegans*

D

Wnd::GFP | WndC130S::GFP
HAM | No HAM | HAM | No HAM
1.32 | | 0.73 |

Palmitoyl Wnd

(ABE assay, Blot: Biotin)

Total Wnd

(Blot: GFP)

E

Wnd::GFP | WndC130S::GFP

Axon terminals

Cell body

****, P <0.0001

Axonal enrichment (Normalized by RFP)

Wnd   WndC130S

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

A

Wnd::GFP GMR > Wnd::GFP GMR > Wnd-C130S::GFP GMR > Wnd-KD::GFP

B