TITLE: Impairment of the glial phagolysosomal system drives prion-like propagation in a *Drosophila* model of

Huntington's disease

ABBREVIATED TITLE: Glial phagocytic defects drive huntingtin toxicity

AUTHORS and AFFILIATIONS: Graham H. Davis[1,2], Aprem Zaya[2], and Margaret M. Panning Pearce[1,2,*]

[1]Saint Joseph's University, Department of Biology, Philadelphia, PA 19131 and [2]University of the Sciences,

Department of Biological Sciences, Philadelphia, PA 19104

*Corresponding author: Maggie Panning Pearce, mpearce@sju.edu

Number of pages: 41

Number of figures and tables: 7 main figures, 8 supplemental figures, 4 supplemental tables

Number of words in Abstract: 250

Number of words in Introduction: 607

Number of words in Discussion: 1357

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT: The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS: We would like to thank David S. Tomlinson, Sabrina Abbruzzese, and Georgiana

Moore for their assistance in collecting and imaging samples. Thank you to all former and current members of

the Pearce Lab for their support in bringing this work to fruition. This work was funded by grants from the NIH

(NS128847) and W.W. Smith Charitable Trusts.

ABSTRACT

Amyloid aggregate accumulation and spread between synaptically-connected regions of the brain is a hallmark of neurodegenerative disease progression. Glia participate in neuropathogenesis by reducing protein aggregate loads via phagocytosis while simultaneously acting as vectors for aggregate spread between cells. Emerging evidence supports the hypothesis that aggregate accumulation compromises the ability of glia to clear toxic material from the brain, possibly by disrupting the phagolysosomal compartment. A better understanding of how glia become deficient in the disease state could reveal novel therapeutic targets. Here, we report that mutant huntingtin (mHTT) aggregates impair glial responsiveness to injury and capacity to degrade axonal debris in a *Drosophila* model of Huntington's disease (HD). mHTT aggregate formation in neurons slowed engulfment and clearance of injured axons and caused accumulation of late phagosomes and lysosomes in glia. Neuronal mHTT expression induced innate immunity and phagocytic genes, some of which regulated mHTT aggregate burden in the brain. A forward genetic screen targeting glial Rab GTPases revealed Rab10 as a novel modifier of mHTT aggregate transmission from neurons to glia that acts downstream of the phagocytic receptor, Draper. This suggests that Rab-mediated intercellular vesicle sorting mechanisms could create opportunities for prion-like mHTT aggregates to escape lysosomal degradation. Together, our findings support a model in which mHTT aggregate build-up within the phagolysosomal system impairs glial phagocytosis while also promoting the generation of seeding-competent pathological proteins. The new mechanistic information we report here adds to a growing recognition of phagocytic glia as double-edged players in prion-like proteopathies such as HD.

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

Deposition of amyloid aggregates is closely associated with neurodegenerative disease progression and neuronal death. Recent studies highlight glia as dynamic mediators of disease, capable of phagocytosing dying neurons and amyloid aggregates, while also inducing chronic inflammation and promoting proteopathic spread. Thus, glia have emerged as promising therapeutic targets for disease intervention. Here, we demonstrate in a *Drosophila* model of Huntington's disease that neuronal mHTT aggregates interfere with glial phagocytic functions, stimulate innate immunity signaling, and impair phagolysosomal processing. We also identify Rab10 as a novel modifier of prion-like transmission of mHTT aggregates, suggesting that Rab-mediated intramembrane fusion in the phagolysosomal system could drive aggregate pathology spread.

INTRODUCTION

Neuron-glia crosstalk is critical for maintaining homeostasis in the central nervous system (CNS), and disruption of these intercellular interactions is increasingly recognized as a central component of many neurological disorders, including neurodegenerative diseases. Glia perform immune surveillance functions in the CNS and respond to neuronal injury by altering gene expression (Magaki et al., 2018) and clearing damaged cells (Raiders et al., 2021; Zheng and Tuszynski, 2023). These glial responses may initially be neuroprotective, but prolonged glial reactivity propels the neurodegenerative disease state, for example, by driving premature loss of living neurons or functional synapses (Neniskyte et al., 2011; Hong et al., 2016; Dejanovic et al., 2022) and inducing neuroinflammation (Liddelow et al., 2017). Expanding our understanding of how glia influence neuron function and survival may contribute to the development of new therapeutic strategies potentially targeting non-neuronal cells.

A pathological hallmark of most neurodegenerative diseases is accumulation of misfolded proteins into intra- or extracellular amyloid aggregates in vulnerable brain regions (Knowles et al., 2014). Protein aggregates arise due to age-associated decline in cellular protein folding capacity (Santra et al., 2019; Stein et al., 2022) and overwhelmed degradative pathways, including the ubiquitin-proteasome system, autophagy, and phagocytosis (Aman et al., 2021; Duong et al., 2021; Wodrich et al., 2022). As professional phagocytes of the brain, microglia and astrocytes clear damaged and dysfunctional cells (Paolicelli et al., 2011; Wakida et al., 2018; Herzog et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2021) and other pathogenic material such as protein aggregates (Liu et al., 2017; Choi et al., 2020). Defective glial clearance of debris may be a driving force underlying neurodegenerative disease, highlighted by a growing list of genetic risk variants associated with phagocytic and endolysosomal pathways (Podleśny-Drabiniok et al., 2020). Endolysosomal impairment promotes protein aggregate accumulation; in turn, these aggregates can drive further endolysosomal dysfunction, including deacidification and membrane permeabilization (Krasemann et al., 2017; Heckmann et al., 2019; Burbidge et al., 2022; Lee et al., 2022). Incompletely degraded aggregates may acquire the ability to spread and seed soluble proteins in a prion-like manner in the brain (Jucker and Walker, 2018; Monaco and Fraldi, 2020).

Mechanisms by which pathogenic aggregates dysregulate lysosomal degradation pathways remain largely unknown. Intracellular membrane fusion events that underlie endo/phagosome maturation are catalyzed by Rab GTPases (Ng and Tang, 2008; Chan et al., 2011; Langemeyer et al., 2018), which cycle

between active (GTP-bound) and inactive (GDP-bound) states to organize endomembranes into distinct

functional domains (Hall, 1990; Chan et al., 2011). Rab dysfunction is implicated in neurodegenerative

diseases—e.g., increased expression of Rab4, Rab5, Rab7, and Rab27 has been observed in Alzheimer's

disease (AD) (Ginsberg et al., 2011), and several Rabs are known substrates of leucine rich repeat kinase 2

(LRRK2), a genetic risk factor in familial Parkinson's disease (PD) (Jeong et al., 2018). Intriguingly, spreading

of α-synuclein between cultured neuronal and enteroendocrine cells is mediated by the LRRK2 substrate

Rab35 (Bae et al., 2018; Rodrigues et al., 2022), suggesting that Rab-dependent processes may contribute to

formation and propagation of prion-like aggregate seeds.

Here, we examined how protein aggregates generated in neurons affect phagocytic glial functions in a

Drosophila model of Huntington's disease (HD). We report that neuronal expression of aggregation-prone

mutant huntingtin (mHTT) reduces the ability of glia to clear axonal debris and mount transcriptional responses

involving phagocytosis and innate immune signaling genes following acute nerve injury. We also observed

mHTT-induced changes to lysosomes and Rab+ vesicles in uninjured brains, and identify Rab10 as a novel

modifier of prion-like spreading of mHTT aggregates in adult fly brains. Together, these studies shed light on

mechanisms by which phagocytic glia respond to and are impaired by accumulation of pathogenic aggregates

in neurons.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Fly Husbandry

Fly stocks and crosses were raised on standard cornmeal/molasses media on a 12 hr light/12 hr dark cycle at 25°C, unless otherwise noted. Transgenic or mutant flies were either generated by our lab, purchased from Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center, or kindly provided by collaborators as indicated in Table S1. Genotypes and sources of all fly stocks used in this study are listed in Table S1.

Cloning and Microinjection

pQUASTattB(HTT$_{ex1}$Q25-V5) and pQUASTattB(HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-V5) plasmids were cloned by PCR amplification of HTT$_{ex1}$ cDNAs using a reverse primer that inserted an in-frame, C-terminal V5 tag (GKPIPNPLLGLDST) and ligation into the pQUASTattB vector backbone via XhoI and XbaI restriction sites. pUASTattB(pHluorin-HTT$_{ex1}$Q25-tdTomato) and pUASTattB(pHluorin-HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-tdTomato) plasmids were generated by PCR amplification of HTT$_{ex1}$ cDNAs and subcloning to replace the CD4 sequence in the pUASTattB(MApHS) plasmid (Han et al., 2014) via In-Fusion cloning (Takara Bio USA, Inc. Mountain View, CA). These plasmids were microinjected into embryos with the attP24, VK19, or VK27 φC31 attP integration sites at BestGene, Inc (Chino Hills, CA). See Table S1 for detailed genotype information for these transgenic flies.

Drosophila brain dissection and sample preparation

Adult fly brains were dissected in ice-cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) containing either no detergent or 0.03% (PBS/0.03T), 0.1% (PBS/0.1T), or 0.3% (PBS/0.3T) Triton X-100. Dissected brains were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in the dark at room temperature (RT) for 20 minutes. For imaging GFP and mCherry fluorescence, brains were washed 7X in PBS/0.03T buffer before incubation in Slowfade Gold Antifade Mountant (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). When imaging pHluorin-tagged and other pH-sensitive constructs, such as GFP-LAMP1, brains were washed 7X in PBS for at least 50 minutes at RT before incubation in Slowfade. For immunostaining, brains were washed 7X in PBS/0.3T after fixation, blocked in PBS/0.3T containing 5% normal goat serum (Lampire Biological Laboratories, Pipersville, PA) for 30 min at RT, incubated in primary antibodies diluted in blocking solution for 24-48 hours at 4°C, washed 7X in

PBS/0.3T, and then incubated in secondary antibodies diluted in blocking solution for 16-20 hours at 4°C. After

a final set of 7X PBS/0.3T washes, the brains were incubated in Slowfade. For Magic Red and LysoTracker

staining, brains were dissected in PBS and incubated in 1:1000 LysoTracker Red DND-99 (Invitrogen,

Carlsbad, CA) or 1:1250 Magic Red (ImmunoChemistry, Davis, CA) diluted in PBS for 20 minutes at RT.

Brains were washed 5X in PBS for 15 min total, fixed in 4% PFA in PBS/0.1T for 20 minutes at RT, washed 6X

in PBS/0.1T for 30 min total, and incubated in Slowfade. Following incubation in Slowfade for 1-24 hours at

4°C in the dark, all brains were bridge-mounted in Slowfade on glass microscopy slides under #1.5 coverglass,

and edges were sealed using clear nail polish.

Primary antibodies used in this study include: chicken anti-GFP (RRID: AB_300798; 1:1000; Abcam,

Cambridge, UK), rat anti-N-cadherin (clone DN-Ex #8; RRID: AB_528121; 1:75; Developmental Studies

Hybridoma Bank, Iowa City, IA), mouse anti-Repo (8D12 Repo; RRID: AB_528448; 1:25; Developmental

Studies Hybridoma Bank, Iowa City, IA), mouse anti-V5 (RRID: AB_2556564; 1:125; Thermo Fisher Scientific

Inc., Waltham, MA), and rabbit anti-Draper (1:500; a kind gift from Marc Freeman, Vollum Institute, Portland,

OR). Secondary antibodies include FITC-conjugated donkey anti-chicken (RRID: AB_2340356; 1:250; Jackson

Immuno Research Labs, West Grove, PA), AlexaFluor 568 goat anti-mouse (RRID: AB_2534072; 1:250),

AlexaFluor 647 goat anti-rabbit (RRID: AB_2535812; 1:250) and AlexaFluor 647 goat anti-rat IgGs (RRID:

AB_141778; 1:250) (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA).

Image Acquisition

All microscopy data were collected on a Leica SP8 laser-scanning confocal system equipped with 405

nm, 488 nm, 561 nm, and 633 nm lasers and 40X 1.3 NA or 63X 1.4 NA oil objective lenses. Leica LAS-X

software was used to establish optimal settings during each microscopy session and to collect optical z-slices

of whole-mounted brain samples with Nyquist-optimized sampling criteria. Optical zoom was used to magnify

and establish regions of interest (ROI) in each sample. For images showing a single glomerulus, confocal

slices were collected to generate ~73 x 73 x 20 μm (*xyz*) stacks, with z-axis boundaries established using

fluorescent signal in DA1 or VA1lm ORN axons. For images of a single antennal lobe, confocal slices were

collected to generate ~117 x 117 x 26 μm (*xyz*) stacks, which were located using HTT$_{ex1}$ fluorescence in ORN

axons.

Confocal image analyses

Raw confocal data were analyzed in 2D using ImageJ/FIJI (RRID:SCR_002285; NIH, Bethesda, MD) or

in 3D using Imaris image processing software (RRID:SCR_007370; Bitplane, Zürich, Switzerland). Methods

used for semi-automated quantification of ORN axons and mHTT or mHTT-seeded wtHTT aggregate numbers

were previously described (Donnelly et al., 2020). Briefly, raw confocal data were cropped to establish an ROI

for further analysis and displayed as a 2D sum intensity projection (ImageJ) or a 3D volume (Imaris). In **Figure**

1, mCD8-GFP and HTT-mCherry fluorescence was segmented using the 'Surfaces' function in Imaris, with

surface detail set to 0.25μm and background subtraction at 0.75μm. Using the 'split touching objects' option,

seed point diameter was set to 0.85μm. In **Figure 2**, pHluorin- and tdTomato-labeled VA1lm ORN axons were

quantified in central 30x30 pixels, 50 slices ROIs from sum intensity projections of each VA1lm glomerulus.

Background fluorescence was subtracted from raw confocal images. In **Figure 2**, pHluorin- and tdTomato-

labeled Or83b+ ORN axons or MBN soma were quantified from central 100x100 pixels, 75 slices ROIs of each

antennal lobe or mushroom body calyx, and background intensity was subtracted from sum intensity

projections. In **Figure 3**, quantification of Toll6^{MIMICGFP} fluorescence was performed using the 'Spots' function in

Imaris (*xy* diameter set to 0.5μm and *z*-diameter of 1.0μm). Quantification of repo-associated GFP-Jra was

performed using the "Surfaces" functions in Imaris to identify repo+ surfaces (surface detail = 0.2μm,

background subtraction = 1.6μm, number of voxels >10).

In **Figures 4-7**, mHTT surfaces were quantified as previously reported (Donnelly et al., 2020). Briefly,

mCherry+ surfaces were generated in Imaris (surface detail = 0.2μm, background subtraction = 0.45μm, and

seed point diameter = 0.85μm). In **Figure S5-2**, wtHTT$_{ex1}$ surfaces were generated in Imaris (surface detail =

0.2μm, background subtraction = 0.45μm, and seed point diameter = 0.85μm). In **Figure 5 and S5-1**, MR+,

LTR+, LAMP1-GFP or GFP-LAMP1 surfaces were generated in Imaris using the 'Surfaces' algorithm (surface

detail = 0.2μm, background subtraction = 0.4μm). Surfaces were further filtered by volume (>0.001μm^3). In

Figures 5 and 7 and **supplemental figures for 5 and 7**, GFP-LAMP1+, YFP-Rab+, YRab+, MR+, or LTR+

surfaces overlapping HTT$_{ex1}$-V5, -GFP, or -mCherry signal were identified using the 'shortest distance' filter

(≤0.2 µm). We provide examples of this in **Fig S5-3** with GFP-LAMP1+ surfaces. In **Figure 7 and**

supplemental figure S7, YFP-Rab+ and YRab+ surfaces were segmented in Imaris using the 'Surfaces'

algorithm (surface detail = 0.2µm, background subtraction = 0.4µm, and surfaces were filtered by volume

>0.004µm^3).

qPCR

Transgenic *Drosophila* were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, and heads were collected using a

microsieve with a 230 nm filter to separate bodies from heads and 170 nm filter to separate heads from

appendages. Total RNA was extracted from isolated fly heads using the Zymo Direct-Zol RNA miniprep kit

(Zymo Research, Irvine, CA). Extracted RNA was quantified on a Nanodrop 2000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific),

and equal quantities of each sample were subjected to cDNA synthesis using the High-Capacity cDNA

Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems, Waltham, MA). qPCR was performed on a Bio-rad T100

Thermal Cycler with a CFX384 Real-Time System (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) using 10 ng of input

RNA per replicate, TB Green Premix Ex Taq II (Takara Bio, Kusatsu, Japan). All qPCR primers are listed in

Table S2.

Experimental Design and Statistical Analyses

All quantified data were organized and analyzed in Prism 9 software (Graphpad, San Diego, CA). We

performed power analyses to determine appropriate sample sizes for each experiment using a Sample Size

calculator available at ClinCalc.com (α = 0.05, β = 0.2). All quantifications are graphed as mean ± s.e.m. Mean

values, statistical tests, and sample sizes (*n*) for each experiment are described in a table attached to each

figure. In general, a single glomerulus or antennal lobe represented one biological replicate. Statistical

comparisons were performed using the following tests where appropriate: unpaired, 2-tailed Student's *t*-test

when comparing two samples and one-way ANOVA followed by *post hoc* multiple comparison tests when

comparing ≥3 samples.

RESULTS

Expression of mHTT in neurons inhibits phagocytic clearance of axonal debris

HD is a monogenic neurodegenerative disease caused by expansion of a CAG repeat region in exon 1 of the *huntingtin* (*HTT/IT15)* gene beyond a pathogenic threshold of 37 repeats, leading to production of mHTT proteins containing expanded N-terminal polyglutamine (polyQ≥37) tracts (Scherzinger et al., 1999). mHTT proteins are prone to misfolding and accumulate into insoluble aggregates (Wanker, 2000), whereas wild-type HTT (wtHTT) proteins containing polyQ≤36 tracts remain soluble unless seeded by a pre-formed HTT aggregate (Preisinger et al., 1999; Chen et al., 2001). To recapitulate these molecular features of HD, we generated transgenic flies that express N-terminal exon 1 fragments of human mHTT (mHTT$_{ex1}$) containing a polyQ91 tract or wtHTT (wtHTT$_{ex1}$) with a polyQ25 tract via the GAL4-UAS (Brand and Perrimon, N., 1993) or QF-QUAS binary expression systems (Potter and Luo, 2011). As we have previously reported (Pearce et al., 2015; Donnelly et al., 2020), fluorescent protein fusions of mHTT$_{ex1}$ and wtHTT$_{ex1}$ appeared punctate (i.e., aggregated or insoluble) or diffuse (i.e., soluble), respectively, in axon termini of the DA1 type of olfactory receptor neurons (ORNs), which synapse in the DA1 glomerulus of the antennal lobe in the central adult fly brain (Couto et al., 2005) (Fig. 1A-B). To determine if neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ expression affects the ability of glial cells to clear neuronal debris in the adult fly CNS, we co-expressed each mCherry-tagged HTT$_{ex1}$ transgene with membrane-targeted GFP (mCD8-GFP) in DA1 ORNs and measured GFP and mCherry fluorescence intensities following acute injury to the antennal nerve (Fig. 1A-D). Surgical removal of the second and third antennal segments initiates Wallerian degeneration of ORN axons and leads to the clearance of most axonal debris in the central brain within 7 days (MacDonald et al., 2006) (Fig. 1C). Interestingly, mHTT$_{ex1}$ expression was associated with reduced steady-state mCD8-GFP levels in DA1 ORN axons in 2 and 4 week-old flies (Fig. S1A), likely due to neurotoxicity associated with mHTT$_{ex1}$ expression. However, quantification of DA1 ORN axons remaining after antennal nerve injury revealed that glial clearance of the axonal debris was reduced in flies co-expressing neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ compared with controls expressing wtHTT$_{ex1}$ (Fig. 1A-C). Further, this effect of mHTT$_{ex1}$ expression was exacerbated in older flies (14- and 28-days-old) (Fig. 1C). Quantification of mCherry fluorescence indicated that clearance of axonal mHTT$_{ex1}$ was also slowed compared to wtHTT$_{ex1}$ (Fig. 1D), suggesting that glia are deficient in degrading axonal debris and neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates.

We also tested whether formation of $mHTT_{ex1}$ aggregates in glial cells impacts ORN axonal debris

clearance following acute injury. Restricting expression of $mHTT_{ex1}$ to glia resulted in appearance of

heterogeneously-sized $mHTT_{ex1}$ aggregates throughout glia (Fig. S1C-D). Glial $mHTT_{ex1}$ aggregates also

slowed injury-induced clearance of mCD8-GFP-labeled axons compared with $wtHTT_{ex1}$-expressing controls

(Fig. 1G). Together, these findings indicate that $mHTT_{ex1}$ aggregates slow the kinetics with which glia clear

injured ORN axons, whether the aggregates are engulfed from neurons or already present in the glial

cytoplasm.

Neuronal mHTT aggregates impair nascent phagosome formation

Phagocytosis occurs via 4 major steps: (1) extension of phagocyte membranes toward extracellular

"find me" cues, (2) recognition of "eat me" signals by scavenger receptors, (3) cytoskeletal and plasma

membrane reorganization to surround and internalize extracellular material, and (4) maturation of nascent

phagosomes through sequential endomembrane fusions that culminate with the lysosome (Vieira et al., 2002).

We have previously reported that the conserved scavenger receptor, Draper/Ced-1/MEGF10 (MacDonald et

al., 2006; Evans et al., 2015; Iram et al., 2016), regulates engulfment, clearance, and intercellular spreading of

$mHTT_{ex1}$ aggregates originating in ORN axons (Pearce et al., 2015; Donnelly et al., 2020). To test whether

delayed clearance of injured axons containing $mHTT_{ex1}$ aggregates (Fig. 1) could result from defective Draper-

dependent engulfment, we co-expressed V5-tagged $mHTT_{ex1}$ or $wtHTT_{ex1}$ with the ratiometric membrane-

associated pH sensor (MApHS), consisting of the transmembrane domain of CD4 flanked by N-terminal ecliptic

pHluorin and C-terminal tdTomato (Han et al., 2014), in the VA1lm type of ORNs. Ecliptic pHluorin is brightest

at pH 7.5 and dims as pH drops, quenching at pH <6.0 (Miesenböck et al., 1998), whereas tdTomato

fluorescence is pH resistant. Thus, internalization of MApHS-labeled ORN axonal debris into a rapidly-acidified

nascent phagosome can be monitored by calculating pHluorin:tdTomato fluorescence intensity ratios (Han et

al., 2014). Indeed, pHluorin:tdTomato ratios in VA1lm axons decreased 14 and 25 hours post-axotomy (Fig.

2A-C), and this effect was lost when *draper* was deleted from glia using the tissue-specific CRISPR/Cas9-TriM

method (Fig. 2C and S2A-C) (Poe et al., 2019), demonstrating that this construct accurately reports nascent

phagosome acidification following engulfment. Notably, this injury-induced decrease in pHluorin:tdTomato ratio

was less pronounced in ORN axons expressing mHTT$_{ex1}$ compared with wtHTT$_{ex1}$-expressing controls (Fig. 2A-

C), suggesting that mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates impair nascent phagosome formation during engulfment.

Neuronal mHTT accumulates in low pH intracellular compartments

61   We observed that mHTT$_{ex1}$ expression was associated with a slight but significant decrease in steady-

state pHluorin:tdTomato ratios in MApHS-labeled axons compared with wtHTT$_{ex1}$-expressing controls (Fig.

2D), suggesting that even in the absence of acute injury, mHTT$_{ex1}$ signals for ORN axon engulfment. To test

whether mHTT$_{ex1}$ itself accumulates in low pH cellular compartments, we generated transgenic flies that

express mHTT$_{ex1}$ or wtHTT$_{ex1}$ fused to N-terminal pHluorin and C-terminal tdTomato fluorescent proteins,

herein referred to as HTT-associated pH sensor, or "HApHS" (Fig. 2E-F). wtHApHS and mHApHS transgenes

were expressed in either Or83b+ ORNs, which encompass 70-80% of all adult ORNs (Larsson et al., 2004), or

mushroom body neurons (MBNs), which are downstream in the fly olfactory circuit and innervate the learning

and memory center of the fly CNS (McGuire et al., 2001). In both neuronal cell types, pHluorin:tdTomato ratios

associated with mHApHS expression were significantly decreased compared to wtHApHS (Fig. S2A-F),

suggesting that mHTT$_{ex1}$ proteins accumulate in acidified cellular compartments. To discriminate mHTT$_{ex1}$

proteins engulfed by glia from those sequestered in neuronal autophagolysosomes, we measured mHApHS

pHluorin:tdTomato ratios in VA1lm ORN axons after glial *draper* loss-of-function was achieved by CRISPR-

TRiM. Draper knockout increased pHluorin:tdTomato ratios of mHApHS (Fig. 2E-G), suggesting that at least

some portion of mHTT aggregates accumulate in the glial phagolysosomal system.

Neuronal mHTT impairs injury-responsive gene upregulation

78   Glia alter expression of many genes to elicit cellular responses to insult or injury in the brain. For

example, acute CNS injury in *Drosophila* increases transcription of many genes involved in phagocytosis and

innate immune signaling (Fig. 3B) (Purice et al., 2017; Byrns et al., 2021; Alphen et al., 2022). To test whether

the reduced ability of glia to engulf and clear mHTT$_{ex1}$ -containing axonal debris correlates with reduced injury

responsiveness, we used qPCR and GFP-tagged constructs of Toll-like receptor Toll-6 and the AP-1

transcription factor subunit Jra to quantify gene expression changes following mHTT$_{ex1}$ accumulation in axons

and/or acute axotomy. mHTT$_{ex1}$ expression in uninjured Or83b+ ORNs increased *drpr-I*, *toll-6,* and *relish*

transcripts between 1.2- and 1.5-fold (Fig. 3A) and levels of GFP-tagged Toll-6 and Jra proteins in the CNS

(Fig. 3C-H), suggesting that neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates activate a mild injury response in the brain. Jra-

GFP expression increased throughout the CNS and in Repo+ nuclei (Fig. 3H), suggesting that mHTT$_{ex1}$-

induced upregulation of AP-1 can be at least partially attributed to glia. Following antennal and maxillary palp

axotomy, *drpr-I* and *toll-6* upregulation was comparable to mHTT$_{ex1}$ expression alone, whereas other stress

response genes (e.g., *dorsal, mmp1, relish,* and *ets21c*) had a far greater response to acute injury (Fig. 3A).

Strikingly, injury-induced upregulation of each of these genes was significantly reduced by mHTT$_{ex1}$ expression

in Or83b+ ORNs (Fig. 3A). Together, these data suggest that neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates inhibit

transcriptional responses to neural injury in the brain.

The data we report here as well as previously published work (Pearce et al., 2015; Ray et al., 2017)

demonstrates that mHTT$_{ex1}$ and Aβ aggregates induce *drpr-I* upregulation and that *drpr* knockout causes these

aggregates to accumulate, suggesting that glia regulate pathogenic aggregate loads by activating

phagocytosis. We next tested for the involvement of other phagocytic and innate immunity genes in neuronal

mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregate turnover using RNAi-mediated gene silencing in ensheathing glia, a subpopulation of

Draper+ glia that wrap processes around synaptic neuropil and mediate clearance of injured ORN axons

(Doherty et al., 2009). Consistent with our previous findings in all *repo*+ glia (Pearce et al., 2015), ensheathing

glia were vulnerable to prion-like conversion of glial wtHTT$_{ex1}$ proteins by neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates (Fig.

S4A, C-D). Conversely, seeding of wtHTT$_{ex1}$ expressed in astrocytic glia, which lack detectable Draper

expression in the adult fly brain (Doherty et al., 2009), was not observed (Fig. S4B-D). Interestingly,

knockdown of ensheathing glial Toll-6, NijA, and Relish increased mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregate numbers in DA1 ORN

axons (Fig. 4A-B). Similarly, adult-specific, pan-glial knockdown of Ets21c, which was found to be required for

development, also increased numbers of mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates in DA1 ORN axons (Fig. 4C-D). Thus, several

ensheathing glial genes with known roles in phagocytic and innate immunity pathways regulate basal turnover

of mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates in ORN axons.

Neuronal mHTT aggregates are associated with defects in multiple endolysosomal compartments

Our findings thus far indicate that neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates elicit mild injury responses in the brain

and reduce the ability of phagocytic glia to respond transcriptionally and functionally to acute nerve injury. We

have previously postulated that prion-like spreading of mHTT$_{ex1}$ in the fly CNS could be facilitated by escape of

engulfed aggregates from the endolysosomal compartment of phagocytic glia (Pearce et al., 2015; Donnelly et

al., 2020). Therefore, we sought to determine whether neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates are associated with

defects in endolysosomal processing in non-injured brains. We first measured effects of neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$

expression on the quantity, size, and function of lysosomes using dyes that label active cathepsins and low pH

cellular compartments. Expression of mHTT$_{ex1}$ in Or83b+ ORNs increased numbers of lysosomes labeled by

the active cathepsin dye, Magic Red (MR), and the low pH sensor, LysoTracker Red (LTR), compared with

control brains expressing wtHTT$_{ex1}$ (Fig. S5-1A-F). Additionally, numbers of MR+ and LTR+ lysosomes that co-

localized with mHTT$_{ex1}$ were greater than for wtHTT$_{ex1}$ (Fig. S5-1C and F). We next assessed the impact of

neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ specifically on glial lysosomes by driving expression of lysosomal-associated membrane

protein 1 (LAMP1) tagged at its cytosolic C-terminus with GFP (LAMP1-GFP) in all glia. Neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$

expression increased the overall number of glial LAMP1-GFP+ lysosomes and the number of LAMP1-GFP+

lysosomes associated with HTT signal. Additionally, LAMP1-GFP+ lysosomes associated with mHTT$_{ex1}$ were

enlarged compared with all lysosomes (Fig 5A-E).

       To examine whether neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates affect lysosome integrity, we alternatively

expressed in glia a transgene encoding LAMP1 fused at its N-terminus to GFP. This construct integrates into

the lysosomal membrane such that GFP is exposed to the lumen, and loss of GFP signal can thus be used to

monitor LAMP1+ lysosome activity (Pulipparacharuvil et al., 2005). Interestingly, the quantity and diameter of

GFP-LAMP1+ vesicles were significantly increased in brains expressing mHTT$_{ex1}$ in Or83b+ ORNs (Fig. 5F-J).

GFP-LAMP1+ surfaces also strongly associated with mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates compared to wtHTT controls (Fig.

5G). These data demonstrate that the abundance and size of glial lysosomes increase in brains expressing

mHTT$_{ex1}$ in neurons, and suggest that mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates cause non-cell autonomous lysosome dysfunction.

To test whether lysosome function affects seeding competency of mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates, we used RNAi to

individually knockdown proteins with known roles in lysosome acidification, including subunits of the vacuolar

ATPase (V-ATPase) (Fig. S5-2A-C). Knockdown of two V-ATPase subunits, Vha68-3 (Portela et al., 2018) and

rabconnectin-3A (Yan et al., 2009), and Spinster, a late-endosomal and lysosomal efflux permease (Rong et

al., 2011), increased seeding of glial wtHTT$_{ex1}$ by neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates (Fig. S5-2A-C). While

knockdown of Vha16-1, a V-ATPase subunit that regulates endolysosome membrane fusion (Finbow et al.,

1994; Dunlop et al., 1995), did not affect seeding, it did cause accumulation of mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates in DA1

axons (Fig. S5-2B). Together, these findings suggest that disruption of glial lysosome function could lead to the

formation of seeding-competent mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates.

The GTPase Rab10 mediates prion-like transmission of mHTT aggregates

Lysosome dysfunction could occur secondary to upstream defects in endo/phagosome maturation. Our

prior work supports a model in which a portion of mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates engulfed by glia evade degradation

during phagosome maturation and/or phagolysosome formation (Pearce et al., 2015; Donnelly et al., 2020). To

test this model, we used forward genetic screening to interrogate roles for Rab GTPases in escape of engulfed

neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates from the phagolysosomal system. The *Drosophila* genome encodes 31 Rab and

Rab-like proteins, all of which have mammalian orthologs, and many of these GTPases have been implicated

in vesicle and target membrane fusion in cells (Zhang et al., 2007). To determine whether any *Drosophila* Rabs

mediate escape of phagocytosed mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates and seeding of wtHTT$_{ex1}$ in the glial cytoplasm, we

individually knocked down each Rab in *repo+* glia using RNAi. Glial-restricted silencing of 23 of the 31 Rabs

produced viable adults, and these flies were used to monitor effects of Rab knockdown on mHTT$_{ex1}$-induced

aggregation of wtHTT$_{ex1}$ in glia. Only two Rab RNAi lines, *Rab10^{RNAi}* and *Rab23$^{RNAi\#2}$*, significantly altered

numbers of induced wtHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates (Fig. 6A-C). Of note, 3 additional Rab23 RNAi lines had no

significant effects on numbers of wtHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates, suggesting that *Rab23$^{RNAi\#2}$* may cause off-target

effects. Strikingly, Rab10 depletion reduced numbers of seeded wtHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates, phenocopying effects of

Draper knockdown (Fig. 6C) and suggesting that Draper and Rab10 function in the same pathway. We tested

for genetic interaction between *drpr* and *rab10* using loss-of-function alleles to examine effects on mHTT$_{ex1}$

aggregate transmission from presynaptic DA1 ORNs to postsynaptic projection neurons (PNs), a process

previously reported to require transport though Draper-expressing glia (Donnelly et al., 2020). *rab10* knockout

was incompatible with expression of mHTT$_{ex1}$ and wtHTT$_{ex1}$ transgenes; similarly, reduced viability of *rab10*

null animals has been previously reported (Kohrs et al., 2021). Thus, we tested for epistasis between *drpr* and

rab10 in heterozygous and trans-heterozygous animals. While there were no significant changes in mHTT$_{ex1}$

aggregate numbers (Fig. 6D), significantly fewer wtHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates formed in PNs of *rab10$^{+/-}$ drpr$^{+/-}$*

transheterozygotes than in the individual heterozygotes (Fig. 6E). This same effect was not observed in

rab14$^{+/-}$ drpr$^{+/-}$ transheterozygous animals (Fig. 6E), indicating that the epistatic relationship is specific to *drpr*

and *rab10*. Thus, Draper and Rab10 appear to function in the same pathway that regulates prion-like

transmission of phagocytosed mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates in the fly brain.

Neuronal mHTT aggregates alter numbers of early and late glial phagosomes

Our forward genetic screen indicates that at least one glial Rab GTPase, Rab10, regulates the seeding

capacity of neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates. Interestingly, Rab10 has been reported to regulate phagosome

maturation in mammalian cells (Cardoso et al., 2010; Seto et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2023),

and Rab10 expression and activity are altered in neurodegenerative diseases such as AD and PD (Eguchi et

al., 2018; Tavana et al., 2018; Yan et al., 2018). Because little is known about Rab10's role in glia, we sought

to characterize this GTPase alongside two additional Rabs with well-established roles in endocytic pathways,

Rab5 and Rab7, markers of early and late endo/phagosomes, respectively (Hutagalung and Novick, 2011).

Interestingly, we found that *rab10*, *rab5*, and *rab7* were all upregulated between ~1.4 and 2.4-fold following

acute antennal nerve injury, and mHTT$_{ex1}$ expression in Or83b+ ORNs caused upregulation of *rab10* and *rab7*

each by ~1.2-fold (Fig. S7-1A). Interestingly, injury-induced upregulation of *rab5* and *rab7* was inhibited by

~50% and ~100%, respectively, in flies expressing mHTT$_{ex1}$ compared with controls (Fig. S7-1A). Altogether,

these results identify *rab5*, *rab7*, and *rab10* as novel injury-response genes in the fly CNS and indicate that

neuronal expression of mHTT$_{ex1}$ inhibits injury-induced upregulation of *rab5* and *rab7*.

We next examined effects of neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ expression on the localization of Rab10, Rab5, and

Rab7 proteins endogenously-tagged with YFP-myc at their N-termini, herein referred to as YRab10, YRab5,

and YRab7 (Dunst et al., 2015). YRab+ vesicles were identified as YFP+ surfaces with a mean diameter of

0.3-8 µm (Fig. S7-1B-G), consistent with vesicle sizes reported in other fly tissues (Prince et al., 2019).

Expression of mHTT$_{ex1}$ in Or83b+ ORN axons caused an overall increase in numbers of YRab10+ and YRab7+

vesicles, but a decrease in the number of YRab5+ vesicles compared with wtHTT$_{ex1}$ controls (Fig. S7-1H and

S7-1I). Further, YRab10+ and YRab7+ vesicles fully or partially overlapped with mHTT$_{ex1}$ signal more often

than with wtHTT$_{ex1}$, whereas YRab5+ vesicles were equally associated with each HTT protein (Fig. S7-1I).

To test effects of neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates on Rab+ compartments in glia, we expressed YFP-

tagged Rab5, 7, and 10 transgenes using a glial-specific Gal4 driver. Expression of mHTT$_{ex1}$ in Or83b+ ORN

axons was associated with increased numbers of YFP-Rab10+ and -Rab7+ vesicles, but a decrease in YFP-

Rab5+ vesicle abundance, in glia (Fig. 7A,B,G and S7-2A-D). Intriguingly, YFP-Rab10+, -5+, and -7+ vesicles

co-localized with neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates to a greater extent than with wtHTT$_{ex1}$ proteins (Fig. 7A,B,H

and S7-2A-D, insets), suggesting that mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates encounter these Rab+ compartments while

transiting the glial phagocytic system. We also expressed YFP-Rab10 transgenes that encode dominant-

negative (DN), GDP-locked and constitutively active (CA), GTP-locked variants (Taylor et al., 2015) to test

effects of altered Rab10 activity on its localization and interactions with mHTT$_{ex1}$. Interestingly, total and HTT-

associated YFP-Rab10(CA)+ vesicles were increased following mHTT$_{ex1}$ expression (Fig. 7E-H), whereas

these effects were lost when YFP-Rab10(DN) was expressed in glia (Fig. 7C,D,G,H). Consistent with this, the

size of YFP-Rab10+ vesicles associated with mHTT$_{ex1}$ was decreased in glia expressing the DN variant and

increased in glia expressing the CA variant (Fig. 7I). These data suggest that Rab10 GTPase activity is

correlated with accumulation and enlargement of maturing phagosomes containing mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates. We

also observed that the mean volume of YFP-Rab7+ vesicles co-localized with mHTT$_{ex1}$ was increased

compared with wtHTT$_{ex1}$ controls (Fig. 7I). All together, these data point to accumulation of mHTT$_{ex1}$

aggregates within a late phagosome/lysosome compartment as a key mechanism underlying prion-like spread

and toxicity in HD.

DISCUSSION

Toxic amyloid aggregates have been a primary target in neurodegenerative disease drug development for decades, with some recent promise using immunotherapy to reduce aggregate loads in the brain (Karran and De Strooper, 2022). Microglia and astrocytes have also emerged as attractive therapeutic targets in efforts to boost neuroprotective glial functions or reduce neuroinflammation. However, approaches that target glial cells must effectively strike a balance between amplifying beneficial and reducing harmful effects of these cells in the brain. Here, we tested for interactions between phagocytic glia and pathogenic protein aggregates in a *Drosophila* model of HD. We report that aggregates formed by mHTT$_{ex1}$ protein fragments impair glial transcriptional and functional responses to CNS injury, induce upregulation of stress response and innate immunity genes, and alter numbers of endolysosome vesicles present in uninjured brains. A targeted forward genetic screen revealed that Rab10, a GTPase previously reported to regulate phagosome maturation, mediates prion-like conversion of cytoplasmic wtHTT$_{ex1}$ proteins by phagocytosed mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates. Together, these findings suggest that neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates compromise intracellular membrane integrity as they transit endolysosomal systems, perhaps generating toxic, seeding-competent aggregates that propagate disease phenotypes.

Glia respond to neural injury by altering their transcriptional, morphological, and metabolic profiles to promote neuronal survival and clear debris from the brain; however, failure of glia to return to a resting state elicits harmful neuroinflammatory consequences (Liddelow et al., 2020). We have previously reported that active phagocytic glia can have both beneficial (i.e., elimination of toxic aggregates) and harmful (i.e., as vectors for aggregate spread) effects in the brain (Pearce et al., 2015; Donnelly et al., 2020). We report here that key glial injury-responsive pathways, e.g., Draper-mediated phagocytosis and Toll-6-mediated innate immune signaling, are activated in the presence mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregation in the adult fly brain. These findings are in line with studies from other labs demonstrating that *Drosophila* Toll-6 and mammalian Toll-Like Receptor signaling pathways are upregulated in response to dying neurons during development (McLaughlin et al., 2019) and in patient and mammalian models of neurodegenerative disease (Casula et al., 2011; Miron et al., 2018; Kouli et al., 2020). Interestingly, increased microglial NF-κB signaling mediates tau spread and toxicity in mice, further linking innate immunity to prion-like mechanisms of disease progression (Wang et al., 2022).

Thus, activation of glial immune pathways may contribute to feed-forward mechanisms involving aggregate

formation, pathology propagation, and neuroinflammatory signaling.

Genome-wide association studies have revealed numerous genes associated with increased risk of

late-onset AD and other neurodegenerative diseases; strikingly, many of these risk variants are enriched in

pathways that control key glial cell functions. For example, rare risk-associated variants of the microglial

TREM2 gene alter amyloid aggregate accumulation and seeding in animal and cell disease models (Leyns et

al., 2019; Parhizkar et al., 2019; Jain et al., 2023). A number of additional genes involved in endolysosomal

processing are associated with increased risk of AD, PD, FTD, and/or ALS, such as the phagocytic receptor

CD33, endosome-associated genes *BIN1* and *RIN3*, and *GRN*, the gene that encodes for lysosomal

progranulin protein (Podleśny-Drabiniok et al., 2020; Welikovitch et al., 2023). Although Draper/MEGF10

variants have not been directly identified as risk factors in neurodegenerative disease, MEGF10 is highly

expressed in phagocytic astrocytes (Chung et al., 2013), mediates Aβ aggregate engulfment (Singh et al.,

2010; Fujita et al., 2020), and acts as a receptor for C1q, a mediator of early synapse loss in AD mouse

models (Hong et al., 2016; Iram et al., 2016). Our finding that upregulation of *draper* and other phagocytic

genes is inhibited by mHTT$_{ex1}$ expression suggests that glial responsiveness and phagocytic capacity is

attenuated in the presence of protein aggregate pathology in neurons. Genetic risk variants or environmental

factors that impact glial health could accelerate these defects and exacerbate aggregate-induced neurotoxicity

in the brain.

Lysosomes are essential for cell survival, not only to clear damaged or dysfunctional materials from

cells, but also as intracellular centers for macromolecule recycling, energy metabolism, and cell-cell

communication. Lysosomal abnormalities, including vesicle enlargement, deacidification, and membrane

leakiness, have been reported in patient brains and animal and cell models of multiple neurodegenerative

diseases, suggesting that lysosome dysfunction plays a central role in disease progression (Bonam et al.,

2019; Polanco and Götz, 2022; Udayar et al., 2022). We report here that Rab7+, Rab10+, and Lamp1+

phagolysosomes accumulate in glia as a result of mHTT$_{ex1}$ expression in neurons and that a portion of Lamp1+

lysosomes are defective in their ability to degrade luminal materials. We also observed that neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$

aggregates were associated with decreased nascent phagosome formation and reduced numbers of early

(Rab5+) phagosomes in glia. These findings are consistent with a "traffic jam" model (Small et al., 2017) in

which mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates accumulate over time in glial endolysosomal compartments, preventing proper flow

of materials into (i.e., engulfment) and out of the pathway (i.e., degradation). We postulate that persistence of

aggregates in deficient endolysosomes promotes formation and/or release of degradation-resistant aggregates

with enhanced toxicity and seeding capacity. This hypothesis is in agreement with recent studies in tauopathy

models showing that Aβ aggregation occurs secondary to lysosome deacidification and membrane

permeabilization (Lee et al., 2022), and hypophagocytic glia contribute to tau aggregate propagation (Hopp et

al., 2018; Brelstaff et al., 2021). Release of seeding-competent aggregates from dysfunctional lysosomes could

occur via active exocytosis, in an effort to alleviate cell toxicity, or passively due to vesicle rupture (Flavin et al.,

2017; Falcon et al., 2018; Yuste-Checa et al., 2021).

Among the growing list of genes linked to neurodegenerative disease pathogenesis are Rab GTPases

and genes that modify Rab functions (Kiral et al., 2018). Rab proteins are essential for vesicle sorting and

trafficking in all cells and use GTP hydrolysis to differentially associate with and organize intracellular

membranes (Homma et al., 2021). In a forward genetic screen aimed at identifying Rabs that regulate

phagocytic processing of neuronal mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates, we uncovered glial Rab10 as a modifier of prion-like

spreading of mHTT$_{ex1}$ from neurons to glia. Interestingly, several other Rab proteins have been previously

reported to alter secretion or cell-to-cell propagation of tau or α-synuclein aggregates (Rodriguez et al., 2017;

Bae et al., 2018; Ugbode et al., 2019; Rodrigues et al., 2022), suggesting that Rab-dependent processes could

be a common mechanism underlying prion-like diseases. Our data suggest that Rab10 acts downstream of

Draper to enable engulfed mHTT$_{ex1}$ aggregates to evade lysosomal degradation, perhaps escaping to the

cytoplasm during Rab10-dependent intracellular membrane fusion. While relatively understudied compared

with other Rabs, Rab10 has been reported to associate with and regulate maturing endo/phagosomes and

lysosomes in human macrophages and microglia (Cardoso et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2020). Interestingly, Rab10

has already been implicated in multiple neurodegenerative diseases: (1) *RAB10* gene expression is altered in

human AD brains (Ridge et al., 2017), (2) rare *RAB10* polymorphisms are linked to protection against AD

(Ridge et al., 2017; Tavana et al., 2018), (3) Rab10 depletion is associated with reduced Aβ levels (Udayar et

al., 2013; Ridge et al., 2017), and (4) Rab10 is a substrate of the PD risk factor gene leucine-rich repeat kinase

2 (LRRK2) (Steger et al., 2016; Seol et al., 2019). Mutant LRRK2-mediated Rab phosphorylation can cause

endocytic defects (Liu et al., 2020; Rivero-Ríos et al., 2020; Streubel-Gallasch et al., 2021), and LRRK2-

modified Rab10 localizes to and promotes secretion from stressed lysosomes (Eguchi et al., 2018; Kluss et al.,

2022). Interestingly, phosphorylated Rab10 (pRab10) levels are elevated in the CNS of AD and PD patients,

and pRab10 has been reported to co-localize with pathological tau (Yan et al., 2018; Tezuka et al., 2022)

suggesting that post-translational modification of Rab10 modifies the disease state. Whether Rab10's

phosphorylation status affects its ability to regulate prion-like activity of $mHTT_{ex1}$ or other amyloid aggregates

warrants further investigation.

03   In conclusion, our findings indicate that axonal $mHTT_{ex1}$ aggregates activate glial phagocytosis but also

04   impair normal glial responses to acute neural injury. Aggregate engulfment-induced defects in endolysosomal

05   processing, such as Rab-mediated vesicle membrane fusion, could facilitate the formation and spread of prion-

06   like aggregate seeds in the brain. These findings point to central roles for phagocytic glia in regulating

07   aggregate pathology burden in HD and highlight the importance of exploring therapeutic interventions that

08   target non-neuronal cells.

REFERENCES

Alphen, B. van, Stewart, S., Iwanaszko, M., Xu, F., Li, K., Rozenfeld, S., et al. (2022). Glial immune-related pathways mediate effects of closed head traumatic brain injury on behavior and lethality in Drosophila. *PLOS Biology* 20, e3001456. doi: 10.1371/journal.pbio.3001456.

Aman, Y., Schmauck-Medina, T., Hansen, M., Morimoto, R. I., Simon, A. K., Bjedov, I., et al. (2021). Autophagy in healthy aging and disease. *Nat Aging* 1, 634–650. doi: 10.1038/s43587-021-00098-4.

Bae, E.-J., Kim, D.-K., Kim, C., Mante, M., Adame, A., Rockenstein, E., et al. (2018). LRRK2 kinase regulates α-synuclein propagation via RAB35 phosphorylation. *Nat Commun* 9, 3465. doi: 10.1038/s41467-018-05958-z.

Bonam, S. R., Wang, F., and Muller, S. (2019). Lysosomes as a therapeutic target. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 18, 923–948. doi: 10.1038/s41573-019-0036-1.

Brand, A. H., and Perrimon, N. (1993). Targeted gene expression as a means of altering cell fates and generating dominant phenotypes | Development | The Company of Biologists. Available at: https://journals.biologists.com/dev/article/118/2/401/37970/Targeted-gene-expression-as-a-means-of-altering [Accessed September 19, 2022].

Brelstaff, J. H., Mason, M., Katsinelos, T., McEwan, W. A., Ghetti, B., Tolkovsky, A. M., et al. (2021). Microglia become hypofunctional and release metalloproteases and tau seeds when phagocytosing live neurons with P301S tau aggregates. *Science Advances* 7, eabg4980. doi: 10.1126/sciadv.abg4980.

Burbidge, K., Rademacher, D. J., Mattick, J., Zack, S., Grillini, A., Bousset, L., et al. (2022). LGALS3 (galectin 3) mediates an unconventional secretion of SNCA/α-synuclein in response to lysosomal membrane damage by the autophagic-lysosomal pathway in human midbrain dopamine neurons. *Autophagy* 18, 1020–1048. doi: 10.1080/15548627.2021.1967615.

Byrns, C. N., Saikumar, J., and Bonini, N. M. (2021). Glial AP1 is activated with aging and accelerated by traumatic brain injury. *Nat Aging* 1, 585–597. doi: 10.1038/s43587-021-00072-0.

Cardoso, C. M. P., Jordao, L., and Vieira, O. V. (2010). Rab10 regulates phagosome maturation and its

overexpression rescues Mycobacterium-containing phagosomes maturation. *Traffic* 11, 221–235. doi:

10.1111/j.1600-0854.2009.01013.x.

Casula, M., Iyer, A. M., Spliet, W. G. M., Anink, J. J., Steentjes, K., Sta, M., et al. (2011). Toll-like receptor

signaling in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis spinal cord tissue. *Neuroscience* 179, 233–243. doi:

10.1016/j.neuroscience.2011.02.001.

Chan, C.-C., Scoggin, S., Wang, D., Cherry, S., Dembo, T., Greenberg, B., et al. (2011). Systematic Discovery

of Rab GTPases with Synaptic Functions in Drosophila. *Current Biology* 21, 1704–1715. doi:

10.1016/j.cub.2011.08.058.

Chen, S., Berthelier, V., Yang, W., and Wetzel, R. (2001). Polyglutamine aggregation behavior in vitro supports

a recruitment mechanism of cytotoxicity11Edited by F. Cohen. *Journal of Molecular Biology* 311, 173–

182. doi: 10.1006/jmbi.2001.4850.

Choi, I., Zhang, Y., Seegobin, S. P., Pruvost, M., Wang, Q., Purtell, K., et al. (2020). Microglia clear neuron-

released α-synuclein via selective autophagy and prevent neurodegeneration. *Nat Commun* 11, 1386.

doi: 10.1038/s41467-020-15119-w.

Chung, W.-S., Clarke, L. E., Wang, G. X., Stafford, B. K., Sher, A., Chakraborty, C., et al. (2013). Astrocytes

mediate synapse elimination through MEGF10 and MERTK pathways. *Nature* 504, 394–400. doi:

10.1038/nature12776.

Couto, A., Alenius, M., and Dickson, B. J. (2005). Molecular, Anatomical, and Functional Organization of the

Drosophila Olfactory System. *Current Biology* 15, 1535–1547. doi: 10.1016/j.cub.2005.07.034.

Dejanovic, B., Wu, T., Tsai, M.-C., Graykowski, D., Gandham, V. D., Rose, C. M., et al. (2022). Complement

C1q-dependent excitatory and inhibitory synapse elimination by astrocytes and microglia in Alzheimer's

disease mouse models. *Nat Aging* 2, 837–850. doi: 10.1038/s43587-022-00281-1.

Doherty, J., Logan, M. A., Taşdemir, O. E., and Freeman, M. R. (2009). Ensheathing glia function as phagocytes in the adult Drosophila brain. *J Neurosci* 29, 4768–4781. doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.5951-08.2009.

Donnelly, K. M., DeLorenzo, O. R., Zaya, A. D., Pisano, G. E., Thu, W. M., Luo, L., et al. (2020). Phagocytic glia are obligatory intermediates in transmission of mutant huntingtin aggregates across neuronal synapses. *eLife* 9, e58499. doi: 10.7554/eLife.58499.

Dunlop, J., Jones, P. C., and Finbow, M. E. (1995). Membrane insertion and assembly of ductin: a polytopic channel with dual orientations. *EMBO J* 14, 3609–3616.

Dunst, S., Kazimiers, T., von Zadow, F., Jambor, H., Sagner, A., Brankatschk, B., et al. (2015). Endogenously Tagged Rab Proteins: A Resource to Study Membrane Trafficking in Drosophila. *Dev Cell* 33, 351–365. doi: 10.1016/j.devcel.2015.03.022.

Duong, L., Radley, H., Lee, B., Dye, D., Pixley, F., Grounds, M., et al. (2021). Macrophage function in the elderly and impact on injury repair and cancer. *Immunity & Ageing* 18, 4. doi: 10.1186/s12979-021-00215-2.

Eguchi, T., Kuwahara, T., Sakurai, M., Komori, T., Fujimoto, T., Ito, G., et al. (2018). LRRK2 and its substrate Rab GTPases are sequentially targeted onto stressed lysosomes and maintain their homeostasis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 115, E9115–E9124. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1812196115.

Evans, I. R., Rodrigues, F. S. L. M., Armitage, E. L., and Wood, W. (2015). Draper/CED-1 Mediates an Ancient Damage Response to Control Inflammatory Blood Cell Migration In Vivo. *Curr Biol* 25, 1606–1612. doi: 10.1016/j.cub.2015.04.037.

Falcon, B., Noad, J., McMahon, H., Randow, F., and Goedert, M. (2018). Galectin-8–mediated selective autophagy protects against seeded tau aggregation. *J Biol Chem* 293, 2438–2451. doi: 10.1074/jbc.M117.809293.

Finbow, M. E., Goodwin, S. F., Meagher, L., Lane, N. J., Keen, J., Findlay, J. B. C., et al. (1994). Evidence that

the 16 kDa proteolipid (subunit c) of the vacuolar H+-ATPase and ductin from gap junctions are the

same polypeptide in Drosophila and Manduca: molecular cloning of the Vha16k gene from Drosophila.

Journal of Cell Science 107, 1817–1824. doi: 10.1242/jcs.107.7.1817.

Flavin, W. P., Bousset, L., Green, Z. C., Chu, Y., Skarpathiotis, S., Chaney, M. J., et al. (2017). Endocytic

vesicle rupture is a conserved mechanism of cellular invasion by amyloid proteins. *Acta Neuropathol*

134, 629–653. doi: 10.1007/s00401-017-1722-x.

Fujita, Y., Maeda, T., Sato, C., Sato, M., Hatakeyama, H., Ota, Y., et al. (2020). Engulfment of Toxic Amyloid

β-protein in Neurons and Astrocytes Mediated by MEGF10. *Neuroscience* 443, 1–7. doi:

10.1016/j.neuroscience.2020.07.016.

Ginsberg, S. D., Mufson, E. J., Alldred, M. J., Counts, S. E., Wuu, J., Nixon, R. A., et al. (2011). Upregulation

of select rab GTPases in cholinergic basal forebrain neurons in mild cognitive impairment and

Alzheimer's disease. *J Chem Neuroanat* 42, 102–110. doi: 10.1016/j.jchemneu.2011.05.012.

Hall, A. (1990). The Cellular Functions of Small GTP-Binding Proteins. doi: 10.1126/science.2116664.

Han, C., Song, Y., Xiao, H., Wang, D., Franc, N. C., Jan, L. Y., et al. (2014). Epidermal cells are the primary

phagocytes in the fragmentation and clearance of degenerating dendrites in Drosophila. *Neuron* 81,

544–560. doi: 10.1016/j.neuron.2013.11.021.

Heckmann, B. L., Teubner, B. J. W., Tummers, B., Boada-Romero, E., Harris, L., Yang, M., et al. (2019). LC3-

associated endocytosis facilitates β-amyloid clearance and mitigates neurodegeneration in murine

Alzheimer's Disease. *Cell* 178, 536. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2019.05.056.

Herzog, C., Pons Garcia, L., Keatinge, M., Greenald, D., Moritz, C., Peri, F., et al. (2019). Rapid clearance of

cellular debris by microglia limits secondary neuronal cell death after brain injury in vivo. *Development*

146, dev174698. doi: 10.1242/dev.174698.

Homma, Y., Hiragi, S., and Fukuda, M. (2021). Rab family of small GTPases: an updated view on their regulation and functions. *FEBS J* 288, 36–55. doi: 10.1111/febs.15453.

Hong, S., Beja-Glasser, V. F., Nfonoyim, B. M., Frouin, A., Li, S., Ramakrishnan, S., et al. (2016). Complement and microglia mediate early synapse loss in Alzheimer mouse models. *Science* 352, 712–716. doi: 10.1126/science.aad8373.

Hopp, S. C., Lin, Y., Oakley, D., Roe, A. D., DeVos, S. L., Hanlon, D., et al. (2018). The role of microglia in processing and spreading of bioactive tau seeds in Alzheimer's disease. *J Neuroinflammation* 15, 269. doi: 10.1186/s12974-018-1309-z.

Hutagalung, A. H., and Novick, P. J. (2011). Role of Rab GTPases in Membrane Traffic and Cell Physiology. *Physiol Rev* 91, 119–149. doi: 10.1152/physrev.00059.2009.

Iram, T., Ramirez-Ortiz, Z., Byrne, M. H., Coleman, U. A., Kingery, N. D., Means, T. K., et al. (2016). Megf10 Is a Receptor for C1Q That Mediates Clearance of Apoptotic Cells by Astrocytes. *J Neurosci* 36, 5185–5192. doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3850-15.2016.

Jain, N., Lewis, C. A., Ulrich, J. D., and Holtzman, D. M. (2023). Chronic TREM2 activation exacerbates Aβ-associated tau seeding and spreading. *J Exp Med* 220, e20220654. doi: 10.1084/jem.20220654.

Jeong, G. R., Jang, E.-H., Bae, J. R., Jun, S., Kang, H. C., Park, C.-H., et al. (2018). Dysregulated phosphorylation of Rab GTPases by LRRK2 induces neurodegeneration. *Molecular Neurodegeneration* 13, 8. doi: 10.1186/s13024-018-0240-1.

Jucker, M., and Walker, L. C. (2018). Propagation and spread of pathogenic protein assemblies in neurodegenerative diseases. *Nat. Neurosci.* 21, 1341–1349. doi: 10.1038/s41593-018-0238-6.

Karran, E., and De Strooper, B. (2022). The amyloid hypothesis in Alzheimer disease: new insights from new therapeutics. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 21, 306–318. doi: 10.1038/s41573-022-00391-w.

Kiral, F. R., Kohrs, F. E., Jin, E. J., and Hiesinger, P. R. (2018). Rab GTPases and Membrane Trafficking in Neurodegeneration. *Curr Biol* 28, R471–R486. doi: 10.1016/j.cub.2018.02.010.

Kluss, J. H., Beilina, A., Williamson, C. D., Lewis, P. A., Cookson, M. R., and Bonet-Ponce, L. (2022). Lysosomal positioning regulates Rab10 phosphorylation at LRRK2+ lysosomes. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 119, e2205492119. doi: 10.1073/pnas.2205492119.

Knowles, T. P. J., Vendruscolo, M., and Dobson, C. M. (2014). The amyloid state and its association with protein misfolding diseases. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 15, 384–396. doi: 10.1038/nrm3810.

Kohrs, F. E., Daumann, I.-M., Pavlovic, B., Jin, E. J., Kiral, F. R., Lin, S.-C., et al. (2021). Systematic functional analysis of rab GTPases reveals limits of neuronal robustness to environmental challenges in flies. *eLife* 10, e59594. doi: 10.7554/eLife.59594.

Kouli, A., Camacho, M., Allinson, K., and Williams-Gray, C. H. (2020). Neuroinflammation and protein pathology in Parkinson's disease dementia. *Acta Neuropathologica Communications* 8, 211. doi: 10.1186/s40478-020-01083-5.

Krasemann, S., Madore, C., Cialic, R., Baufeld, C., Calcagno, N., El Fatimy, R., et al. (2017). The TREM2-APOE Pathway Drives the Transcriptional Phenotype of Dysfunctional Microglia in Neurodegenerative Diseases. *Immunity* 47, 566-581.e9. doi: 10.1016/j.immuni.2017.08.008.

Langemeyer, L., Fröhlich, F., and Ungermann, C. (2018). Rab GTPase Function in Endosome and Lysosome Biogenesis. *Trends in Cell Biology* 28, 957–970. doi: 10.1016/j.tcb.2018.06.007.

Larsson, M. C., Domingos, A. I., Jones, W. D., Chiappe, M. E., Amrein, H., and Vosshall, L. B. (2004). Or83b Encodes a Broadly Expressed Odorant Receptor Essential for Drosophila Olfaction. *Neuron* 43, 703–714. doi: 10.1016/j.neuron.2004.08.019.

Lee, H., Flynn, R., Sharma, I., Haberman, E., Carling, P. J., Nicholls, F. J., et al. (2020). LRRK2 Is Recruited to Phagosomes and Co-recruits RAB8 and RAB10 in Human Pluripotent Stem Cell-Derived Macrophages. *Stem Cell Reports* 14, 940–955. doi: 10.1016/j.stemcr.2020.04.001.

Lee, J.-H., Kim, J.-Y., Noh, S., Lee, H., Lee, S. Y., Mun, J. Y., et al. (2021). Astrocytes phagocytose adult

hippocampal synapses for circuit homeostasis. *Nature* 590, 612–617. doi: 10.1038/s41586-020-03060-

3.

Lee, J.-H., Yang, D.-S., Goulbourne, C. N., Im, E., Stavrides, P., Pensalfini, A., et al. (2022). Faulty

autolysosome acidification in Alzheimer's disease mouse models induces autophagic build-up of Aβ in

neurons, yielding senile plaques. *Nat Neurosci* 25, 688–701. doi: 10.1038/s41593-022-01084-8.

Leyns, C. E. G., Gratuze, M., Narasimhan, S., Jain, N., Koscal, L. J., Jiang, H., et al. (2019). TREM2 function

impedes tau seeding in neuritic plaques. *Nat Neurosci* 22, 1217–1222. doi: 10.1038/s41593-019-0433-

0.

Liddelow, S. A., Guttenplan, K. A., Clarke, L. E., Bennett, F. C., Bohlen, C. J., Schirmer, L., et al. (2017).

Neurotoxic reactive astrocytes are induced by activated microglia. *Nature* 541, 481–487. doi:

10.1038/nature21029.

Liddelow, S. A., Marsh, S. E., and Stevens, B. (2020). Microglia and Astrocytes in Disease: Dynamic Duo or

Partners in Crime? *Trends Immunol* 41, 820–835. doi: 10.1016/j.it.2020.07.006.

Liu, C.-C., Hu, J., Zhao, N., Wang, J., Wang, N., Cirrito, J. R., et al. (2017). Astrocytic LRP1 Mediates Brain Aβ

Clearance and Impacts Amyloid Deposition. *J Neurosci* 37, 4023–4031. doi:

10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3442-16.2017.

Liu, Z., Xu, E., Zhao, H. T., Cole, T., and West, A. B. (2020). LRRK2 and Rab10 coordinate macropinocytosis

to mediate immunological responses in phagocytes. *EMBO J* 39, e104862. doi:

10.15252/embj.2020104862.

MacDonald, J. M., Beach, M. G., Porpiglia, E., Sheehan, A. E., Watts, R. J., and Freeman, M. R. (2006). The

Drosophila Cell Corpse Engulfment Receptor Draper Mediates Glial Clearance of Severed Axons.

Neuron 50, 869–881. doi: 10.1016/j.neuron.2006.04.028.

Magaki, S. D., Williams, C. K., and Vinters, H. V. (2018). Glial function (and dysfunction) in the normal &

ischemic brain. *Neuropharmacology* 134, 218–225. doi: 10.1016/j.neuropharm.2017.11.009.

McGuire, S. E., Le, P. T., and Davis, R. L. (2001). The Role of Drosophila Mushroom Body Signaling in

Olfactory Memory. *Science* 293, 1330–1333. doi: 10.1126/science.1062622.

McLaughlin, C. N., Perry-Richardson, J. J., Coutinho-Budd, J. C., and Broihier, H. T. (2019). Dying neurons

utilize innate immune signaling to prime glia for phagocytosis during development. *Dev Cell* 48, 506-

522.e6. doi: 10.1016/j.devcel.2018.12.019.

Miesenböck, G., De Angelis, D. A., and Rothman, J. E. (1998). Visualizing secretion and synaptic transmission

with pH-sensitive green fluorescent proteins. *Nature* 394, 192–195. doi: 10.1038/28190.

Miron, J., Picard, C., Frappier, J., Dea, D., Théroux, L., and Poirier, J. (2018). TLR4 Gene Expression and Pro-

Inflammatory Cytokines in Alzheimer's Disease and in Response to Hippocampal Deafferentation in

Rodents. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease* 63, 1547–1556. doi: 10.3233/JAD-171160.

Monaco, A., and Fraldi, A. (2020). Protein Aggregation and Dysfunction of Autophagy-Lysosomal Pathway: A

Vicious Cycle in Lysosomal Storage Diseases. *Front Mol Neurosci* 13, 37. doi:

10.3389/fnmol.2020.00037.

Neniskyte, U., Neher, J. J., and Brown, G. C. (2011). Neuronal Death Induced by Nanomolar Amyloid β Is

Mediated by Primary Phagocytosis of Neurons by Microglia*. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 286,

39904–39913. doi: 10.1074/jbc.M111.267583.

Ng, E. L., and Tang, B. L. (2008). Rab GTPases and their roles in brain neurons and glia. *Brain Research*

Reviews 58, 236–246. doi: 10.1016/j.brainresrev.2008.04.006.

Paolicelli, R. C., Bolasco, G., Pagani, F., Maggi, L., Scianni, M., Panzanelli, P., et al. (2011). Synaptic pruning

by microglia is necessary for normal brain development. *Science* 333, 1456–1458. doi:

10.1126/science.1202529.

Parhizkar, S., Arzberger, T., Brendel, M., Kleinberger, G., Deussing, M., Focke, C., et al. (2019). Loss of
TREM2 function increases amyloid seeding but reduces plaque-associated ApoE. *Nat Neurosci* 22,
191–204. doi: 10.1038/s41593-018-0296-9.

Pearce, M. M. P., Spartz, E. J., Hong, W., Luo, L., and Kopito, R. R. (2015). Prion-like transmission of neuronal
huntingtin aggregates to phagocytic glia in the Drosophila brain. *Nat Commun* 6, 6768. doi:
10.1038/ncomms7768.

Podleśny-Drabiniok, A., Marcora, E., and Goate, A. M. (2020). Microglial Phagocytosis: A Disease-Associated
Process Emerging from Alzheimer's Disease Genetics. *Trends Neurosci* 43, 965–979. doi:
10.1016/j.tins.2020.10.002.

Poe, A. R., Wang, B., Sapar, M. L., Ji, H., Li, K., Onabajo, T., et al. (2019). Robust CRISPR/Cas9-Mediated
Tissue-Specific Mutagenesis Reveals Gene Redundancy and Perdurance in Drosophila. *Genetics* 211,
459–472. doi: 10.1534/genetics.118.301736.

Polanco, J. C., and Götz, J. (2022). Exosomal and vesicle-free tau seeds—propagation and convergence in
endolysosomal permeabilization. *The FEBS Journal* 289, 6891–6907. doi: 10.1111/febs.16055.

Portela, M., Yang, L., Paul, S., Li, X., Veraksa, A., Parsons, L. M., et al. (2018). Lgl reduces endosomal vesicle
acidification and Notch signaling by promoting the interaction between Vap33 and the V-ATPase
complex. *Sci Signal* 11, eaar1976. doi: 10.1126/scisignal.aar1976.

Potter, C. J., and Luo, L. (2011). Using the Q system in Drosophila. *Nat Protoc* 6, 1105–1120. doi:
10.1038/nprot.2011.347.

Preisinger, E., Jordan, B. M., Kazantsev, A., and Housman, D. (1999). Evidence for a recruitment and
sequestration mechanism in Huntington's disease. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* 354, 1029–
1034. doi: 10.1098/rstb.1999.0455.

Prince, E., Kroeger, B., Gligorov, D., Wilson, C., Eaton, S., Karch, F., et al. (2019). Rab-mediated trafficking in the secondary cells of Drosophila male accessory glands and its role in fecundity. *Traffic* 20, 137–151. doi: 10.1111/tra.12622.

Pulipparacharuvil, S., Akbar, M. A., Ray, S., Sevrioukov, E. A., Haberman, A. S., Rohrer, J., et al. (2005). Drosophila Vps16A is required for trafficking to lysosomes and biogenesis of pigment granules. *Journal of Cell Science* 118, 3663–3673. doi: 10.1242/jcs.02502.

Purice, M. D., Ray, A., Münzel, E. J., Pope, B. J., Park, D. J., Speese, S. D., et al. (2017). A novel Drosophila injury model reveals severed axons are cleared through a Draper/MMP-1 signaling cascade. *eLife* 6, e23611. doi: 10.7554/eLife.23611.

Raiders, S., Han, T., Scott-Hewitt, N., Kucenas, S., Lew, D., Logan, M. A., et al. (2021). Engulfed by Glia: Glial Pruning in Development, Function, and Injury across Species. *J. Neurosci.* 41, 823–833. doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1660-20.2020.

Ray, A., Speese, S. D., and Logan, M. A. (2017). Glial Draper Rescues Aβ Toxicity in a Drosophila Model of Alzheimer's Disease. *J Neurosci* 37, 11881–11893. doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0862-17.2017.

Ridge, P. G., Karch, C. M., Hsu, S., Arano, I., Teerlink, C. C., Ebbert, M. T. W., et al. (2017). Linkage, whole genome sequence, and biological data implicate variants in RAB10 in Alzheimer's disease resilience. *Genome Med* 9, 100. doi: 10.1186/s13073-017-0486-1.

Rivero-Ríos, P., Romo-Lozano, M., Fernández, B., Fdez, E., and Hilfiker, S. (2020). Distinct Roles for RAB10 and RAB29 in Pathogenic LRRK2-Mediated Endolysosomal Trafficking Alterations. *Cells* 9, 1719. doi: 10.3390/cells9071719.

Rodrigues, P. V., de Godoy, J. V. P., Bosque, B. P., Amorim Neto, D. P., Tostes, K., Palameta, S., et al. (2022). Transcellular propagation of fibrillar α-synuclein from enteroendocrine to neuronal cells requires cell-to-cell contact and is Rab35-dependent. *Sci Rep* 12, 4168. doi: 10.1038/s41598-022-08076-5.

Rodriguez, L., Mohamed, N.-V., Desjardins, A., Lippé, R., Fon, E. A., and Leclerc, N. (2017). Rab7A regulates
tau secretion. *J Neurochem* 141, 592–605. doi: 10.1111/jnc.13994.

Rong, Y., McPhee, C. K., Deng, S., Huang, L., Chen, L., Liu, M., et al. (2011). Spinster is required for
autophagic lysosome reformation and mTOR reactivation following starvation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S*
A 108, 7826–7831. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1013800108.

Santra, M., Dill, K. A., and de Graff, A. M. R. (2019). Proteostasis collapse is a driver of cell aging and death.
Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 116, 22173–22178. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1906592116.

Scherzinger, E., Sittler, A., Schweiger, K., Heiser, V., Lurz, R., Hasenbank, R., et al. (1999). Self-assembly of
polyglutamine-containing huntingtin fragments into amyloid-like fibrils: Implications for Huntington's
disease pathology. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 96, 4604–4609.

Seol, W., Nam, D., and Son, I. (2019). Rab GTPases as Physiological Substrates of LRRK2 Kinase. *Exp*
Neurobiol 28, 134–145. doi: 10.5607/en.2019.28.2.134.

Seto, S., Tsujimura, K., and Koide, Y. (2011). Rab GTPases regulating phagosome maturation are differentially
recruited to mycobacterial phagosomes. *Traffic* 12, 407–420. doi: 10.1111/j.1600-0854.2011.01165.x.

Singh, T. D., Park, S.-Y., Bae, J., Yun, Y., Bae, Y.-C., Park, R.-W., et al. (2010). MEGF10 functions as a
receptor for the uptake of amyloid-β. *FEBS Letters* 584, 3936–3942. doi: 10.1016/j.febslet.2010.08.050.

Small, S. A., Simoes-Spassov, S., Mayeux, R., and Petsko, G. A. (2017). Endosomal traffic jams represent a
pathogenic hub and therapeutic target in Alzheimer's disease. *Trends Neurosci* 40, 592–602. doi:
10.1016/j.tins.2017.08.003.

Steger, M., Tonelli, F., Ito, G., Davies, P., Trost, M., Vetter, M., et al. (2016). Phosphoproteomics reveals that
Parkinson's disease kinase LRRK2 regulates a subset of Rab GTPases. *Elife* 5, e12813. doi:
10.7554/eLife.12813.

Stein, K. C., Morales-Polanco, F., van der Lienden, J., Rainbolt, T. K., and Frydman, J. (2022). Ageing exacerbates ribosome pausing to disrupt cotranslational proteostasis. *Nature* 601, 637–642. doi: 10.1038/s41586-021-04295-4.

Streubel-Gallasch, L., Giusti, V., Sandre, M., Tessari, I., Plotegher, N., Giusto, E., et al. (2021). Parkinson's Disease–Associated LRRK2 Interferes with Astrocyte-Mediated Alpha-Synuclein Clearance. *Mol Neurobiol* 58, 3119–3140. doi: 10.1007/s12035-021-02327-8.

Tavana, J. P., Rosene, M., Jensen, N. O., Ridge, P. G., Kauwe, J. S., and Karch, C. M. (2018). RAB10: an Alzheimer's disease resilience locus and potential drug target. *Clin Interv Aging* 14, 73–79. doi: 10.2147/CIA.S159148.

Taylor, C. A., Yan, J., Howell, A. S., Dong, X., and Shen, K. (2015). RAB-10 Regulates Dendritic Branching by Balancing Dendritic Transport. *PLoS Genet* 11, e1005695. doi: 10.1371/journal.pgen.1005695.

Tezuka, T., Taniguchi, D., Sano, M., Shimada, T., Oji, Y., Tsunemi, T., et al. (2022). Pathophysiological evaluation of the LRRK2 G2385R risk variant for Parkinson's disease. *npj Parkinsons Dis.* 8, 1–7. doi: 10.1038/s41531-022-00367-y.

Udayar, V., Buggia-Prévot, V., Guerreiro, R. L., Siegel, G., Rambabu, N., Soohoo, A. L., et al. (2013). A Paired RNAi and RabGAP Overexpression Screen Identifies Rab11 as a Regulator of β-Amyloid Production. *Cell Rep* 5, 1536–1551. doi: 10.1016/j.celrep.2013.12.005.

Udayar, V., Chen, Y., Sidransky, E., and Jagasia, R. (2022). Lysosomal dysfunction in neurodegeneration: emerging concepts and methods. *Trends in Neurosciences* 45, 184–199. doi: 10.1016/j.tins.2021.12.004.

Ugbode, C., Fort-Aznar, L., and Sweeney, S. T. (2019). Leaky endosomes push tau over the seed limit. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 294, 18967–18968. doi: 10.1074/jbc.H119.011687.

Vieira, O. V., Botelho, R. J., and Grinstein, S. (2002). Phagosome maturation: aging gracefully. *Biochem J* 366, 689–704. doi: 10.1042/BJ20020691.

Wakida, N. M., Cruz, G. M. S., Ro, C. C., Moncada, E. G., Khatibzadeh, N., Flanagan, L. A., et al. (2018). Phagocytic response of astrocytes to damaged neighboring cells. *PLOS ONE* 13, e0196153. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0196153.

Wang, C., Fan, L., Khawaja, R. R., Liu, B., Zhan, L., Kodama, L., et al. (2022). Microglial NF-κB drives tau spreading and toxicity in a mouse model of tauopathy. *Nat Commun* 13, 1969. doi: 10.1038/s41467-022-29552-6.

Wang, Y., Arnold, M. L., Smart, A. J., Wang, G., Androwski, R. J., Morera, A., et al. (2023). Large vesicle extrusions from C. elegans neurons are consumed and stimulated by glial-like phagocytosis activity of the neighboring cell. *eLife* 12, e82227. doi: 10.7554/eLife.82227.

Wanker, E. E. (2000). Protein Aggregation and Pathogenesis of Huntingtons Disease: Mechanisms and Correlations. 381, 937–942. doi: 10.1515/BC.2000.114.

Welikovitch, L. A., Dujardin, S., Dunn, A. R., Fernandes, A. R., Khasnavis, A., Chibnik, L. B., et al. (2023). Rate of tau propagation is a heritable disease trait in genetically diverse mouse strains. *iScience* 26, 105983. doi: 10.1016/j.isci.2023.105983.

Wodrich, A. P. K., Scott, A. W., Shukla, A. K., Harris, B. T., and Giniger, E. (2022). The Unfolded Protein Responses in Health, Aging, and Neurodegeneration: Recent Advances and Future Considerations. *Front Mol Neurosci* 15, 831116. doi: 10.3389/fnmol.2022.831116.

Yan, T., Wang, L., Gao, J., Siedlak, S. L., Huntley, M. L., Termsarasab, P., et al. (2018). Rab10 Phosphorylation is a Prominent Pathological Feature in Alzheimer's Disease. *J Alzheimers Dis* 63, 157–165. doi: 10.3233/JAD-180023.

Yan, Y., Denef, N., and Schüpbach, T. (2009). The vacuolar proton pump (V-ATPase) is required for Notch signaling and endosomal trafficking in Drosophila. *Dev Cell* 17, 387–402. doi: 10.1016/j.devcel.2009.07.001.

Yuste-Checa, P., Trinkaus, V. A., Riera-Tur, I., Imamoglu, R., Schaller, T. F., Wang, H., et al. (2021). The extracellular chaperone Clusterin enhances Tau aggregate seeding in a cellular model. *Nat Commun* 12, 4863. doi: 10.1038/s41467-021-25060-1.

Zhang, J., Schulze, K. L., Hiesinger, P. R., Suyama, K., Wang, S., Fish, M., et al. (2007). Thirty-One Flavors of Drosophila Rab Proteins. *Genetics* 176, 1307–1322. doi: 10.1534/genetics.106.066761.

Zheng, B., and Tuszynski, M. H. (2023). Regulation of axonal regeneration after mammalian spinal cord injury. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 24, 396–413. doi: 10.1038/s41580-022-00562-y.

  FIGURE LEGENDS

  Figure 1. mHTT expression in neurons and glia impairs clearance of injured axons. (**A-B**) Maximum

  intensity projections of mCD8-GFP-labeled DA1 ORN axons expressing (**A**) $HTT_{ex1}Q25$- or (**B**) $HTT_{ex1}Q91$-

  mCherry in 7 day-old uninjured flies (*top*) or 14 day-old flies subjected to bilateral antennal nerve axotomy 7

  days earlier (*bottom*). Scale bars = 5µm. (**C-D**) Quantification of (**C**) mCD8-GFP+ and (**D**) HTT_{ex1}-mCherry+

  DA1 ORN axons remaining in 7 day-old, 14 day-old, and 28 day-old uninjured flies or flies at 1, 3, and 5 days

  post-injury. Data were normalized to the uninjured condition for each genotype and age and graphed as

  mean±s.e.m.; *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$ by unpaired 2-tailed *t*-test; $n≥16$. (**E-F**) Maximum intensity

  projections of mCD8-GFP-labeled DA1 ORN axons in 1 day-old flies expressing (**E**) $HTT_{ex1}Q25$- or (**F**)

  $HTT_{ex1}Q91$-V5 in all glia. Scale bars = 5µm. (**G**) Quantification of mCD8-GFP+ DA1 ORN axons in uninjured

  flies and flies at 1 and 3 days post-injury. Data were normalized to the uninjured condition for each genotype

  and graphed as mean±s.e.m.; ***$p<0.001$, unpaired 2-tailed *t*-test; $n≥16$.

  Figure 2. mHTT expression inhibits engulfment of injured ORN axons. (**A-B**) Maximum intensity

  projections of VA1lm ORN axons co-expressing the ratiometric phagocytic indicator, MApHS (transgene shown

  above images), and (**A**) $HTT_{ex1}Q25$- or (**B**) $HTT_{ex1}Q91$-V5 from 7 day-old uninjured flies (*left*) and flies 25 hours

  post-injury (*right*). Scale bars = 10µm. (**C**) pHluorin:tdTomato fluorescence intensity ratios calculated in VA1lm

  glomeruli from 7-day-old uninjured flies and flies at 14 or 25 hours post-injury. Data were normalized to the

  uninjured condition for each genotype. (**D**) pHluorin:tdTomato fluorescence intensity ratios in 7 day-old flies co-

  expressing MApHS with $HTT_{ex1}Q25$- or $HTT_{ex1}Q91$-V5 in VA1lm ORNs, normalized to wtHTT controls. Data

  are shown as mean±s.e.m.; **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$, ****$p<0.0001$ by unpaired 2-tailed *t*-test; $n≥15$. (**E-F**)

  Maximum intensity projections of VA1lm ORN axons co-expressing mutant $HTT_{ex1}Q91$-associated pH sensor

  (mHApHS) (transgene shown above images) and (**E**) repo-Cas9 or (**F**) repo-Cas9 and gRNAs targeting *draper*

  ("Draper KO"). Scale bars = 5µm. (**G**) pHluorin:tdTomato fluorescence intensity ratios calculated in VA1lm

  glomeruli from 9-10 day-old flies seen in (**E-F**). Data normalized to flies not expressing gRNAs. Data are shown

  as mean±s.e.m.; **$p<0.01$ by unpaired 2-tailed *t*-test; $n≥16$.

Figure 3. mHTT expression in ORNs upregulates phagocytic and innate immunity genes and impairs injury-induced transcriptional responses. (A) qPCR analysis of the indicated genes in 8-11 day-old flies expressing GFP, HTT_{ex1}Q25-, or HTT_{ex1}Q91-GFP in Or83b+ ORNs. RNA was isolated from heads of uninjured flies or flies 3 hours after bilateral antennal and maxillary palp nerve injury. Data are shown as mean±s.e.m and normalized to the housekeeping gene *rpl32*. *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$ by one-way ANOVA, asterisks and hashtags indicate statistical significance comparing -/+ injury or genotypes, respectively; n=3. (**B**) Diagrams of Draper (blue) and Toll-6 (purple) signaling pathways. (**C-H**) Maximum intensity projections of Or83b+ ORN axons from 14-15 day-old flies expressing (**C,F**) HTT_{ex1}Q25- or (**D,G**) HTT_{ex1}Q91-V5 in (**C-D**) Toll6-GFP or (**F-G**) Jra-GFP genetic backgrounds. Brains were immunostained with GFP, V5, or N-Cadherin antibodies. Scale bars = 10μm. (**E,H**) Quantification of (**E**) Toll6-GFP or (**H**) Jra-GFP expression from flies show in (**C-D** and **F-G**). Data are graphed as mean±s.e.m.; *$p<0.05$, ****$p<0.0001$ by unpaired 2-tailed t-test; n≥15.

Figure 4. Glial innate immunity genes regulate numbers of mHTT aggregates in ORN axons. (A) Maximum intensity projections of DA1 glomeruli from 7 day-old flies expressing HTT_{ex1}Q91-mCherry in DA1 ORNs and siRNAs targeting the indicated genes in ensheathing glia. Scale bars = 5μm. (**B)** Quantification of HTT_{ex1}Q91-mCherry aggregates detected in DA1 glomeruli from flies shown in (**A**). Data are shown as mean±s.e.m.; *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ****$p<0.0001$ by one-way ANOVA, comparing each genotype to no RNAi or mCherry[RNAi] controls; n≥16. (**C**) Maximum intensity projections of DA1 glomeruli from 7 day-old flies expressing HTT_{ex1}Q91-mCherry in DA1 ORNs and siRNAs targeting mCherry or Ets21c in repo+ glia in the presence of tubP-Gal80[ts]. Adult flies were raised at the permissive (18°C, *top*) or restrictive (29°C, *bottom*) temperatures to restrict siRNA expression in adults. Scale bars = 5μm. (**D**) Quantification of HTT_{ex1}Q91-mCherry aggregates detected in DA1 glomeruli from flies shown in (**C**). Data are shown as mean±s.e.m.; ****$p<0.0001$ by one-way ANOVA; n≥16.

Figure 5. Lysosome accumulation in fly brains expressing mHTT in ORNs. (A-B) Confocal stacks showing antennal lobes from 19-22 day-old flies expressing (**A**) HTT_{ex1}Q25- or (**B**) HTT_{ex1}Q91-mCherry in

Or83b+ ORNs and LAMP1 tagged at its cytoplasmic C-terminus with GFP (LAMP1-GFP) in glia. LAMP1-GFP+

or HTT+ surfaces identified by semi-automated image segmentation are shown to the right of each set of raw

fluorescence images. Fluorescence signal of HTT$_{ex1}$Q25 adjusted for easier visualization. Insets show

magnified regions of interest from each image. LAMP1-GFP surfaces isolated to highlight individual

compartment associating with one or more HTT surfaces. Scale bars = 10μm. (**C-D**) Quantification of (**C**)

LAMP1-GFP+ surfaces and (**D**) LAMP1-GFP+ surfaces that co-localized with HTT. Data are shown as

mean±s.e.m.; *$p<0.05$, ****$p<0.0001$ by unpaired 2-tailed t-test; n≥20. (**E**) Quantification of LAMP1-GFP+

surface volume in brains expressing HTT$_{ex1}$Q25- or HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-mCherry. The third bar represents LAMP1-

GFP+ surfaces that co-localized with mHTT$_{ex1}$. Data are shown as mean±s.e.m.; ***$p<0.001$ by unpaired 2-

tailed t-test; n≥20. (**F-G**) Confocal stacks showing antennal lobes from 21-22 day-old flies (**F**) HTT$_{ex1}$Q25- or

(**G**) HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-mCherry in Or83b+ ORNs and LAMP1 tagged at its luminal N-terminus with GFP (GFP-

LAMP1) in glia. GFP-LAMP1+ or HTT+ surfaces identified by semi-automated image segmentation are shown

to the right of each set of raw fluorescence images. Fluorescence signal of HTT$_{ex1}$Q25 adjusted for easier

visualization. Insets show magnified regions of interest from each image. GFP-LAMP1 surfaces isolated to

highlight individual compartment associating with one or more HTT surfaces. Scale bars = 10μm. (**H-I**)

Quantification of (**H**) GFP-LAMP1+ surfaces and (**I**) GFP-LAMP1+ surfaces that co-localized with HTT. Data

are shown as mean±s.e.m.; ***$p<0.001$, ****$p<0.0001$ by unpaired 2-tailed t-test; n≥16. (**J**) Quantification of

GFP-LAMP1+ surface volume in brains expressing HTT$_{ex1}$Q25- or HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-mCherry. The third bar

represents GFP-LAMP1+ surfaces that co-localized with mHTT$_{ex1}$. Data are shown as mean±s.e.m.; **$p<0.01$

by unpaired 2-tailed t-test; n≥16.

Figure 6. Rab10 is required for prion-like conversion of glial wtHTT by neuronal mHTT aggregates. (A)

Confocal stacks of DA1 glomeruli from 7 day-old flies expressing HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-mCherry in DA1 ORNs and

HTT$_{ex1}$Q25-GFP plus siRNAs targeting firefly luciferase (FFLuc), Draper, or Rab10 in repo+ glia. Surfaces

representing mHTT aggregates (*red*) and seeded wtHTT+mHTT aggregates are superimposed on the raw

data. Scale bars = 5μm. (**B-C**) mHTT (**B**) or mHTT+wtHTT (**C**) aggregates quantified from flies expressing

HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-mCherry in DA1 ORNs and HTT$_{ex1}$Q25-GFP plus siRNAs targeting 23 different Rab GTPases or

Draper-I in repo+ glia. Negative controls expressed no siRNAs or siRNAs targeting FFLuc or mCherry (*black*

bars). Data are shown as mean±s.e.m.; *$p<0.05$, ***$p<0.005$ by one-way ANOVA comparing to controls

expressing FFLuc siRNAs; n≥7. (**D-E**) Quantification of (**D**) mHTT or (**E**) mHTT+wtHTT aggregates from 10

day-old flies expressing $HTT_{ex1}Q91$-mCherry in DA1 ORNs and $HTT_{ex1}Q25$-GFP in DA1 PNs, either

heterozygous or trans-heterozygous for *draper* (*drpr/+*), *rab10* (*rab10/+*), or *rab14* (*rab14/+*) mutant alleles.

Data are shown as mean±s.e.m.; *$p<0.05$ by one-way ANOVA; n≥8.

Figure 7. Association of neuronal mHTT aggregates with glial Rab GTPases that label early, maturing,

and late phagosomes. (**A-F**) Confocal stacks of the antennal lobe from 16-19 day-old flies expressing (**A, C,**

E) $HTT_{ex1}Q25$- or (**B, D, F**) $HTT_{ex1}Q91$-V5 in Or83b+ ORNs and (**A-B**) YFP-Rab10 (T23N), (**C-D**) YFP-Rab10

(wt), or (**E-F**) YFP-Rab10 (Q68L) in glia. Rab+ or HTT+ surfaces identified by semi-automated image

segmentation are shown to the right of each set of raw fluorescence images. Fluorescence signal of

$HTT_{ex1}Q25$ adjusted for easier visualization. Insets show magnified regions of interest. YFP-Rab surfaces

isolated to highlight individual compartment associating with one or more HTT surfaces. Scale bars = 10μm.

(**G-H**) Quantification of (**G**) Rab+ surfaces and (**H**) Rab+ surfaces that co-localized with HTT for Rab10 (T23N),

Rab10 (wt), Rab10 (Q68L), Rab5, and Rab7 conditions. **I**) Quantification of Rab+ surface volume (μm^3) and

Rab+ surfaces co-localized with $mHTT_{ex1}$ surfaces (mHTT+/Rab+) for Rab10 (T23N), Rab10 (wt), Rab10

(Q68L), Rab5, and Rab7 conditions. Data are shown as mean±s.e.m.; *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$,

****$p<0.0001$ by unpaired 2-tailed *t*-test; n≥16.

 SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURE AND TABLE LEGENDS

Supplemental Figure S1. mHTT expression is associated with reduced ORN axon abundance. (**A-B**)

Quantification of mCD8-GFP+ DA1 ORN axons in 1, 7, 14, and 28 day-old flies expressing HTT$_{ex1}$Q25- or

HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-mCherry in (**A**) DA1 ORNs or (**B**) repo+ glia. Data are shown as mean±s.e.m.; ****$p<0.0001$ by

unpaired 2-tailed t-test. (**C-D**) Maximum intensity projections of antennal lobes from 5-6 day-old flies

expressing (**C**) HTT$_{ex1}$Q25- or (**D**) HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-V5 in glia and immunostained with antibodies against the V5

epitope tag. Scale bars = 10μm.

Supplemental Figure S2. (A-B, D-E) Maximum intensity projections of (**A-B**) Or83b+ ORN axons or (**D-E**)

OK107+ MBN soma expressing (**A,D**) HTT$_{ex1}$Q25- or (**B,E**) HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-associated pH sensor (HApHS) from

13-14 day-old flies. Scale bars = 10μm. (**C,F**) Quantification of data shown in (**A-B** and **D-E**), normalized to

wtHTT controls. Data are shown as mean±s.e.m.; ***$p<0.001$, ****p<0.0001 by unpaired 2-tailed t-test; n≥15.

(**G-H**) Maximum intensity projections of the central brain of 6-7 day-old flies expressing (**G**) repo-Cas9 and (**H**)

repo-Cas9 plus gRNAs targeting *draper*. Brains were immunostained with anti-Draper. Scale bars = 10μm. (**I**)

Quantification of Draper immunofluorescence in brains from flies shown in (**G-H**). Data are shown as

mean±s.e.m.; ****$p<0.0001$ by unpaired 2-tailed t-test; n≥10.

Supplemental Fig S4. Prion-like spreading of neuronal mHTT aggregates to ensheathing glia. (**A-C**)

Maximum intensity projections of DA1 glomeruli from 4-5 day-old flies expressing HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-mCherry in DA1

ORNs and HTT$_{ex1}$Q25-GFP in (**A**) mz0709+ ensheathing glia or (**B**) Alrm+ astrocytic glia. Scale bars = 5μm.

(**C-D**) Quantification of (**C**) HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-mCherry aggregates and (**D**) seeded HTT$_{ex1}$Q25-GFP aggregates from

flies shown in (**A-B**). Data are shown as mean±s.e.m.; ***$p<0.001$ by unpaired 2-tailed t-test; n≥14.

Supplemental Fig S5-1. Increased numbers of lysosomes associated with neuronal mHTT expression.

(**A-B**) Maximum intensity projections of antennal lobes from 9-10 day-old flies expressing (**A**) HTT$_{ex1}$Q25- or

(**B**) HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-GFP in Or83b+ ORNs. Brains were stained with Magic Red (MR) to label active cathepsins.

Scale bars = 10μm. Fluorescence signal of HTT$_{ex1}$Q25 adjusted for easier visualization. (**C**) Quantification of

MR+ surfaces and MR+ surfaces that co-localized with HTT-GFP signal from flies shown in (**A** and **B**). Data

are shown as mean±s.e.m.; ****$p<0.0001$ by unpaired 2-tailed t-test; n≥14. (**D-E**) Maximum intensity

projections of antennal lobes from 15 day-old flies expressing (**D**) HTT$_{ex1}$Q25- or (**E**) HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-GFP in

Or83b+ ORNs. Brains were stained with Lysotracker Red (LTR) to label low pH compartments. Fluorescence

signal of HTT$_{ex1}$Q25 adjusted for easier visualization. Scale bars = 10μm. (**C**) Quantification of LTR+ surfaces

and LTR+ surfaces that co-localized with HTT-GFP signal from flies shown in (**A** and **B**). Data are shown as

mean±s.e.m.; ****$p<0.0001$ by unpaired 2-tailed t-test; n≥17.

Supplemental Fig S5-2. Knockdown of lysosomal acidification alters prion-like spreading of mHTT

aggregates. (**A**) Maximum intensity projections of DA1 glomeruli from 8-9 day-old flies expressing HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-

mCherry in DA1 ORNs and HTT$_{ex1}$Q25-GFP plus siRNAs targeting the indicated genes in repo+ glia. Negative

controls expressed siRNAs targeting mCherry. Scale bars = 5μm. (**B-C**) Quantification of (**B**) mHTT or (**C**)

mHTT+wtHTT aggregates from brains shown in (**A**). Data are shown as mean±s.e.m.; *$p<0.05$, ***$p<0.005$ by

unpaired 2-tailed t-test; n≥16.

Supplemental Fig S5-3. GFP-LAMP1+ surfaces are associated with HTT surfaces. **A-B**) Magnified regions

of confocal stacks showing antennal lobes from 21-22 day-old flies expressing (**A**) HTT$_{ex1}$Q25- or (**B**)

HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-mCherry in Or83b+ ORNs and LAMP1 tagged at its luminal N-terminus with GFP (GFP-LAMP1) in

glia. GFP-LAMP1+ or HTT+ surfaces identified by semi-automated image segmentation are shown to the right

of each set of raw fluorescence images. GFP-LAMP1 surfaces isolated to highlight individual compartment

associating with one or more HTT surfaces. Fluorescence signal of HTT$_{ex1}$Q25 adjusted for easier

visualization. Scale bars as shown.

Supplemental Figure S7-1. Association of neuronal mHTT aggregates with Rab GTPases that label

early, maturing, and late phagosomes. (A) qPCR analysis of *rab10*, *rab5*, and *rab7* expression in 8-11 day-

old flies expressing GFP, HTT$_{ex1}$Q25-, or HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-GFP in Or83b+ ORNs. RNA was isolated from heads of

uninjured flies or flies 3 hours after bilateral antennal and maxillary palp nerve injury. Data are shown as

mean±s.e.m and normalized to the housekeeping gene *rpl32*. *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$ by one-way

ANOVA, asterisks and hashtags indicate statistical significance comparing -/+ injury or genotypes,

respectively; n=3. (**B-G**) Confocal stacks of the antennal lobe from 7 day-old flies expressing (**B, D, & F**)

HTT$_{ex1}$Q25- or (**C, E, & G**) HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-V5 in Or83b+ ORNs and endogenously-tagged (**B-C**) YRab10, (**D-E**)

YRab5, or (**F-G**) YRab7 in all cells. The brains were immunostained using YFP (*green*), V5 (*magenta*), and N-

Cadherin (*blue*) antibodies. YRab+ or HTT+ surfaces identified by semi-automated image segmentation are

shown to the right of each set of raw fluorescence images. Fluorescence signal of HTT$_{ex1}$Q25 adjusted for

easier visualization. Insets show magnified regions of interest. YRab surfaces isolated to highlight individual

compartment associating with one or more HTT surfaces. Scale bars = 10μm. (**H-I**) Quantification of (**H**)

YRab+ surfaces and (**I**) YRab+ surfaces that co-localized with HTT. Data are shown as mean±s.e.m.; *p<0.05,

**p<0.01, ****p<0.0001 by unpaired 2-tailed *t*-test; n≥16.

Supplemental Figure S7-2. **Glial Rab5 and Rab7 surfaces are associated with mHTT surfaces**. (**A-D**)

Confocal stacks of the antennal lobe from 16-19 day-old flies expressing (**A, C**) HTT$_{ex1}$Q25- or (**B, D**)

HTT$_{ex1}$Q91-V5 in Or83b+ ORNs and (**A-B**) YFP-Rab5, or (**C-D**) YFP-Rab7 in glia. Rab+ or HTT+ surfaces

identified by semi-automated image segmentation are shown to the right of each set of raw fluorescence

images. Fluorescence signal of HTT$_{ex1}$Q25 adjusted for easier visualization. Insets show magnified regions of

interest. YFP-Rab surfaces isolated to highlight individual compartment associating with one or more HTT

surfaces. Scale bars = 10μm.

Supplementary Table 1. *Drosophila* **lines used and source information.**

Supplementary Table 2. Genotypes for figures and supplementary data figures.

Supplementary Table 3. Gene specific primers used for qPCR of adult *Drosophila* **heads.**

Supplementary Table 4. Statistical information for reported results.