Cardiac neurons expressing a glucagon-like receptor mediate cardiac arrhythmia

induced by high-fat diet in _Drosophila_

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HIGHLIGHTS

- High-fat diet activates Akh (glucagon-like)-producing neurons near the esophagus in *Drosophila*

- Reducing Akh prevents high-fat diet-induced cardiac arrhythmia in flies

- Discovery of two neurons located at the posterior end of the heart that express the Akh receptor (AkhR) and innervate the heart

- Eliminating one of the two AkhR-expressing cardiac neurons (ACN) results in cardiac arrhythmia, whereas the absence of functional AkhR prevents high-fat diet-induced cardiac arrhythmia in flies

ABSTRACT

Cardiac arrhythmia leads to increased risks for stroke, heart failure, and cardiac arrest. Arrhythmic pathology is rooted in the cardiac conduction system, but the mechanism is complex and not fully understood. For example, how metabolic diseases, like obesity and diabetes, increase the risk for cardiac arrhythmia. Glucagon regulates glucose production, mobilizes lipids from the fat body, and affects cardiac rate and rhythm, attributes of a likely key player. *Drosophila* is an established model to study metabolic diseases and cardiac arrhythmias. Since glucagon signaling is highly conserved, we used high-fat diet (HFD)-fed flies to study its effect on heart function. HFD led to increased heartbeat and an irregular rhythm. The HFD-fed flies showed increased levels of adipokinetic hormone (Akh), the functional equivalent to human glucagon. Both genetic reduction of Akh and eliminating the Akh producing cells (APC) rescued HFD-induced arrhythmia, whereas heart rhythm was normal in Akh receptor mutants ($AkhR^{null}$). Furthermore, we discovered a pair of cardiac neurons that express high levels of Akh receptor. These are located near the posterior heart, make synaptic connections at the heart muscle, and regulate heart rhythm. Altogether, this Akh signaling pathway provides new understanding of the regulatory mechanisms between metabolic disease and cardiac arrhythmia.

INTRODUCTION

Arrhythmia refers to an irregular, decreased (bradycardia), or increased (tachycardia) heartbeat. Temporary disruption is usually benign, however chronic arrhythmia has been linked to significantly increased risks for stroke, heart failure, and cardiac arrest (Kannel et al., 1998, 1983; Nattel et al., 2014; Roberts-Thomson et al., 2011). Its pathogenesis is rooted in the cardiac conduction system; however, the mechanism is complex and much remains unknown. Two well-established risk factors that directly contribute to the development of cardiovascular disorders and arrhythmia are obesity (Gupta et al., 2022; Powell-Wiley et al., 2021) and diabetes mellites (Aune et al., 2018; Huxley et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2017). In fact, a longitudinal study into obesity (13.7 years mean follow-up; 5,282 participants) found a 4% increased risk for atrial fibrillation (a form of arrhythmia) per 1-unit increased body mass index (Wang et al., 2004). The other major risk factor, diabetes mellitus has been shown to impact the cardiac conduction system, leading to increased risk of developing atrial fibrillation and ventricular arrhythmias (Kannel et al., 1998). A meta-analysis found that patients with diabetes had a 28-40% increased risk for developing atrial fibrillation, with a 20% risk increase reported for pre-diabetic patients (Aune et al., 2018; Huxley et al., 2011). The relationship between higher blood glucose levels and increased risk for atrial fibrillation was dose-responsive (Aune et al., 2018). Diabetes mellites, when considered a cause of disrupted metabolism, as well as obesity have been independently associated with increased risk for atrial fibrillation (Lee et al., 2017). However, to what extent diabetes, blood glucose, and obesity contribute to atrial fibrillation, independently or collectively, and through which pathomechanism requires further study.

Antagonistic actions by glucagon and insulin regulate glucose metabolism. Besides regulating glucose release from the liver, glucagon facilitates the release of glucose as well as lipids from the fat body, acts as a satiety factor in the central nervous system, affects the glomerular filtration rate, and regulates intra-islet secretion of insulin, glucagon and somatostatin to meet

increased energy demands (Habegger et al., 2010; Heppner et al., 2010; Vuguin and Charron,

2011). These glucagon regulatory effects are evident in patient studies that showed that an

impaired counter-regulatory glucagon response, observed as increased free plasma insulin

levels, contributes to glucose instability in patients with long-term diabetes (Scott et al., 1980);

that consumption of dietary fats leads to increased plasma glucagon levels in healthy

volunteers (Radulescu et al., 2010); and that plasma glucagon levels were significantly higher

in people considered obese compared to those considered lean (Stern et al., 2019). Glucagon

has been repeatedly shown to affect heart contraction and heart rate. However, the nature of

this effect is complex; whether glucagon acts anti- or pro-arrhythmogenic seems to depend on

context, such as a non-failing heart or a heart at acute or chronic failure (Neumann et al.,

2023). That said, glucagon-producing tumors, *i.e.*, glucagonomas, can cause tachycardia (a

form of arrhythmia defined as >100 heart beats per minute) and heart failure without secondary

cause (Chang-Chretien et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2014). Moreover, glucagonoma tumor

resection resulted in a normalized heart rate and a return to typical heart size and function

(Chang-Chretien et al., 2004). Similarly, glucagon infusion in healthy human volunteers

induced arrhythmias (Jaca et al., 2002; Markiewicz et al., 1978). Thus, while glucagon clearly

affects heart rhythm, when considering the underlying mechanism much remains unknown.

The link between high-fat diet (HFD), glucagon, and cardiac arrhythmia is conserved and well-

established in animal models. In fact, studies from the 1960s already showed that glucagon

increases heart rate in a variety of mammalian species, including dogs, cats, guinea pigs, and

rats (Farah and Tuttle, 1960; Lucchesi et al., 1968). More recently, it was shown in mice that

both glucagon and the glucagon receptor (Gcgr) are involved in heart rate regulation (Mukharji

et al., 2013; Sowden et al., 2007). *Drosophila* adipokinetic hormone (Akh), the functional

equivalent to human glucagon, is expressed in a small cluster of endocrine neurons, Akh

producing cells (APC) (Kim and Rulifson, 2004; Lee and Park, 2004). These cells in the

corpora cardiaca near the esophagus function similar to islet cells in mammals, including the

mechanism that regulates hormone secretion, and are essential for larval glucose

homeostasis (Kim and Rulifson, 2004). Like glucagon, Akh is known to also mobilize lipids from the fat body to regulate glucose levels, in the form of trehalose, in the circulating hemolymph to accommodate increased energy demand (Isabel et al., 2005). Likewise, increased Akh increases the heart rate in flies (Noyes et al., 1995). These studies together suggest that glucagon and glucagon signaling, aside from regulating blood sugar levels, play an evolutionarily conserved role in heart rate regulation.

Drosophila melanogaster is a well-established model to study heartbeat and heart arrhythmia (Birse et al., 2010; Ding et al., 2022; Ocorr et al., 2007). For example, HFD-fed flies were used to study the genetic mechanisms of cardiac dysfunction in obesity. It found that HFD leads to reduced cardiac contractility and a reduced heart period (Birse et al., 2010). Notably, this phenotype was attenuated by intervention at the insulin-TOR signaling pathway (Birse et al., 2010), thus supporting a connection between obesity, glucagon, insulin and cardiac function. Here, we used *Drosophila* fed a HFD to study heart arrhythmia. HFD led to increased Akh in the APC of the corpora cardiaca. We then identified a hitherto undescribed pair of cardiac neurons near the posterior heart that highly express the Akh receptor (AkhR) and directly innervate the fly heart. We show that these AkhR cardiac neurons (ACN) regulate heart rhythm in the flies and mediate the HFD-induced arrhythmia. Given the conservation of Akh/glucagon signaling, these findings likely have implications for arrhythmia in patients. Given the significance of the vagus nerve in cardiac rhythm (Ambache and Lippold, 1949; Cai et al., 2023; Freeman, 1951; González et al., 2023; Kharbanda et al., 2023; van Weperen and Vaseghi, 2023) it could fulfill a similar function.

RESULTS

High-fat diet increases heart rate and arrhythmia index

All flies (w^{1118}) that eclosed (*i.e.*, adults that emerged from pupa) within 8 hours were sorted

(females only) and transferred to fresh food vials (25 flies per vial) containing normal fat diet

(NFD) or high-fat diet (HFD, NutriFly diet supplemented with 14% fat) for 7 days. At which

point, we determined the heartbeat of the flies using optical coherence tomography (OCT)

(Figure 1A). Flies on a HFD show a significantly reduced heart period and increased

arrhythmia index compared to NFD-fed flies (Figure 1B-D). These findings are in agreement

with previous work (Birse et al., 2010) and indicate that HFD imposes a pathogenic effect on

heart function.

High-fat diet up-regulates Akh expression and increases Akh producing cell (APC)

activity

The ingestion of superfluous macronutrients has a great impact on metabolism. We observed

enlarged crops, the functional equivalent to the human stomach, in the HFD-fed flies (Figure

2-figure supplement 1). We asked whether the metabolic signaling pathways contributed to

the HFD-caused pathogenic effect on the heart. Akh, the functional equivalent to human

glucagon, is expressed by a group of neuroendocrine cells known as APC in the corpora

cardiaca (Lee and Park, 2004). Indeed, flies that carried *Akh*-Gal4 to express GFP showed

Akh producing cells at the corpora cardiaca, which attaches to the esophagus, just anterior to

the proventriculus (Figure 2A). Quantitative PCR showed that the expression of *Akh* was

significantly up-regulated in the flies fed a HFD, compared to NFD-fed flies (Figure 2B).

Next, to test whether the HFD-induced increase in Akh in the APC affects APC neuron activity,

we used CaLexA (Masuyama et al., 2012). A basal level of CaLexA fluorescence was

observed in the APC of NFD-fed flies, while a significantly higher fluorescence was detected

in the APC of HFD-fed flies (Figure 2C, D). This shows that HFD increases APC neuron

activity. Taken together, our data show that HFD activates Akh expression in the APC and

increases APC activity.

Akh regulates heartbeat

To confirm the importance of APC activity and Akh release by the APC, we down-regulated *Akh* (*Akh*-Gal4>UAS-*Akh*-RNAi) and analyzed its effect on heart function. As expected, upon *Akh* depletion in the APCs, the difference in arrhythmia between the NFD and HFD-fed flies disappeared (Figure 3A, B). The findings indicate that the endocrine signal Akh, originating in the APC neurons, mediates the HFD cardiac functional pathogenicity.

AkhR mediates the high-fat diet pathogenic effect on the heartbeat

Akh binds its receptor AkhR, a G-protein coupled receptor, to activate the signaling pathway (Staubli et al., 2002). We quantified *AkhR* expression using RT-qPCR and observed significantly up-regulated expression in HFD-fed flies (Figure 4A). To confirm its role in Akh-mediated HFD-induced arrhythmia, we tested *AkhR* null mutant flies (*AkhR^{null}*). In line with Akh depletion, flies with *AkhR* mutation and fed a HFD, did not show the HFD-associated cardiac arrhythmia (Figure 4B, C). These data show that Akh/AkhR signaling mediates the pathogenic effect of HFD on heart function.

A pair of AkhR cardiac neurons (ACN) are associated with the heart

To determine the AkhR expression pattern, we used *AkhR*-Gal4 (Lee et al., 2018) to drive the expression of GFP. The adipose fat body tissue is a major organ that expresses AkhR at the embryonic and larval stages (Grönke et al., 2007), as well as in the adult (Bharucha et al., 2008). Likewise, we observed GFP fluorescence in the fat body in *AkhR*-Gal4>*GFP* flies (Figure 5A, B). Notably, no fluorescence was detected in the cardiac muscles. However, we did find two neurons with strong GFP fluorescence, indicative of high expression levels of AkhR, located near the posterior end of the heart tube (Figure 5B). These neurons had elaborate neurites along the heart tube (Figure 5B-D) and formed synaptic connections with heart muscles, as revealed by immunostaining for active zone marker Bruchpilot (Brp) (Figure 5E, F). These two neurons likely communicate with the heart muscle via these neuromuscular junctions. Therefore, were refer to these two neurons as AkhR cardiac neurons (ACN).

Partial elimination of AkhR cardiac neurons (ACN) causes arrhythmia

To determine the function of the ACN, we set out to eliminate the pair. We overexpressed UAS-*rpr* under control of *AkhR*-Gal4 to induce apoptosis. We observed one remaining AkhR cardiac neuron in the *AkhR*-Gal4>UAS-*rpr* flies (Figure 6A), indicating partial elimination. The *AkhR*-Gal4>UAS-*rpr* flies were subjected to OCT analysis. The profile and rhythm of the heartbeat were drastically affected in the flies with only one ACN (Figure 6B). This demonstrates the importance of the ACN in regulating the heartbeat.

DISCUSSION

The role of AkhR, glucagon-like receptor, in regulating heart rate and rhythm

Heart function is dependent on glucose as an energy source. Glucagon converts stored glycogen, in the liver and fat tissue, into glucose that is released into the blood stream/ Its link to cardiac arrhythmia has been well-established. The glucose signaling pathway is conserved across species, including *Drosophila* (Kim and Rulifson, 2004). Like in humans, in flies the glucagon-like hormone Akh regulates the glucose levels in hemolymph (fly equivalent to blood) (Kim and Rulifson, 2004). Under starvation conditions, Akh mobilizes glycogen and lipids to maintain the circulatory glucose levels. The flies become hyperactive and show increased food searching behavior. Flies without Akh, either by depletion or APC elimination, show starvation resistant behavior, suggesting that the behavioral change is mediated by Akh (Huang et al., 2020; Lee and Park, 2004; Yu et al., 2016). Notably, in flies fed a HFD, the AkhR expressing neurons in the brain become hypersensitive to Akh stimulation, due to upregulated AkhR (Huang et al., 2020). Finally, prepupae injected with low pharmacological doses of Akh, *i.e.*, doses higher than physiologically expected, showed increased heart rates (Noyes et al., 1995). Thus, in both humans and flies, heart rate and rhythm respond to nutritional changes

(flies, see Figure 1), this mechanism likely supports the higher metabolic demands and

possibly mediates the switch from glucose to stored lipids as the main energy source.

To date, studies have focused on the direct effect of glucagon on cardiac tissue, based on the

notion that cardiomyocytes express glucagon receptors (GCGR). However, evidence of

GCGR expression in human heart tissue has been conflicting. No cardiac signal was detected

when using radioactively labeled glucagon (Bomholt et al., 2022), results of mRNA data have

been inconsistent (Aranda-Domene et al., 2023; Bomholt et al., 2022), and protein data for

GCGR to support cardiac expression is lacking (Neumann et al., 2023). Here, we identified an

endocrine neuron-heart axis using a fly model for high-fat diet-induced arrhythmia. In this fly

model (Figure 7), the consumption of a HFD elevates the expression of Akh, a glucagon-like

hormone, and activity of the APC. The elevated circulatory Akh is transported to the AkhR

cardiac neurons (ACN) located near the posterior end of the heart, where the increased

signaling leads to an escalated heart arrhythmia index. These findings revealed a hitherto

undescribed regulatory signaling pathway that links the consumption of superfluous

macronutrients with heart arrhythmia.

Cardiac regulatory neurons in *Drosophila*

Drosophila have a cardiac cycle that consists of alternating retrograde and anterograde heart

beats that correlate to the multi-chamber diastole and systole, respectively (Dulcis and Levine,

2005). Accordingly, two signaling systems that innervate the fly heart were identified. The

retrograde beat being regulated by glutamatergic innervation. Its transverse nerves run

bilaterally along the longitudinal muscle and innervate the cardiac muscles of the conical

chamber as well as the alary muscles (Dulcis and Levine, 2005, 2003). The anterograde

heartbeat being regulated by crustacean cardioactive peptide (CCAP) innervation. Its bipolar

neurons (BpN) extent CCAP fibers that innervate each segment of the abdominal heart. Four

additional large CCAP-positive neurons innervate the terminal chamber (Dulcis et al., 2005;

Dulcis and Levine, 2003). These earlier studies, leave the possibility of synaptic input or

hormonal regulation of the BpN neurosecretory signals to the heart. The authors comment on

the absence of direct descending input from the corpora cardiaca to the *Drosophila* abdominal

heart as has been observed in other systems (Dulcis and Levine, 2003). Here, we identified

corpora cardiaca released Akh signaling to previously unreported AkhR cardiac neurons

(ACN) that could exercise this function in flies. Given their localization at the terminal end of

the cardiac chamber, where the four large CCAP-positive neurons are located as well, it is

possible that the ACN modulate CCAP signaling at the heart. In fact, the previous study

detected synaptotagmin on the BpN (BpN6) cell bodies which suggests the presence of

presynaptic sites (Dulcis and Levine, 2003). We are currently investigating if the BpN and ACN

act together, whether in concert or opposingly.

Relevance of findings in fly for humans

This study revealed how glucagon-like hormone Akh is released by APCs in response to HFD

and stimulates AkhR cardiac neurons (ACN) to regulate heart rhythm in flies. Like in the flies,

glucagon infusion in healthy human volunteers induces arrhythmias (Jaca et al., 2002;

Markiewicz et al., 1978). Moreover, a preliminary study in infants and children demonstrated

the potential of glucagon to treat atrioventricular (AV) block, a heart rhythm disorder marked

by a slow heart rate caused by dysfunctional electrical conduction (Hurwitz, 1973). Clinical

guidelines by the American Heart Association recommend the use of glucagon to treat

bradycardia due to beta-blocker or calcium channel blocker overdose (Kusumoto et al., 2019).

However, the mechanism by which glucagon exerts these beneficial clinical effects remains

poorly understood. Our findings implicate a potentially conserved signaling pathway in which

elevated glucagon leads to increased cardiac neuronal activity and subsequent increased

heart rate and arrhythmia. Multiple trials are investigating the possible benefits of glucagon

receptors (GCGR) agonists alone or in combination with GLP-1 agonists to treat arrhythmia,

but so far the results have been mixed. An initial trial with a GCGR antagonist in patients with

type 2 diabetes was halted prematurely due to the detrimental side effects, which included

elevated blood cholesterol and steatosis (liver dysfunction) (Agrawal and Gupta, 2016; Kazda

et al., 2016a, 2016b; Pearson et al., 2016). Our findings provide new possible glucagon-

related targets for treating obesity-associated cardiac arrhythmia by targeting cardiac neurons

receptive to glucagon signaling rather than the cardiomyocytes as had been the leading

hypothesis to date. Studies into the human equivalent of ACN would be interesting; possibly

the vagus nerve could fulfill a similar function as its importance for cardiac rhythm has been

firmly established (Ambache and Lippold, 1949; Cai et al., 2023; Freeman, 1951; González et

al., 2023; Kharbanda et al., 2023; van Weperen and Vaseghi, 2023).

Finally, while the exact implications of these findings for new therapeutics remain to be seen,

they do support the avoidance of a high-fat diet. If unavoidable, for example in the case of a

therapeutic ketogenic diet or in the subset of patients with diabetes that have elevated

glucagon blood levels (D'Alessio, 2011; Unger et al., 1970), then targeting the glucagon

pathway might protect against harmful cardiac side effects.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Key resources table

Reagent type (species) or resource	Designation	Source or reference	Identifiers	Additional information
Antibody	anti-Brp (mouse IgG1, kappa light chain)	Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank	Cat# Nc82 RRID: AB_2314866	IF (1:100)
Antibody	goat anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 647	Jackson Immunoresearch Laboratories	Cat# 102643-594	IF (1:500)
Other	Alexa Fluor 647 Phalloidin	ThermoFisher	Cat# A22287	IF (1:1000)
Other	normal goat serum	Jackson Immunoresearch Laboratories	Cat# 102643-594	1% in 1xPBST
Genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	w^{1118}	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC_3605	
Genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*Akh*-Gal4	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC_25684	

Genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	UAS-*Akh*-RNAi	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC_34960	
Genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*w*[1118] P{UAS-rpr.C}27; P{UAS-2x*EGFP*}AH3	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC_ 91417	
Genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*AkhR*[null]	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC_80937	
Genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	w[*]; P{w[+mC]=LexAop-CD8-GFP-2A-CD8-GFP}2; P{w[+mC]=UAS-*mLexA-VP16-NFAT*}H2, P{w[+mC]=lexAop-rCD2-GFP}3/TM6B, Tb[1]	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC_66542	
Genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*10x*UAS-*GFP*	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC_32185	
Genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*AkhR-T2A*-Gal4	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC_78877	
Chemical compound, drug	4% paraformaldehyde (PFA)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# J19943.K2	
Chemical compound, drug	Triton X-100	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# 9002-93-1	0.2% in 1xPBS
Chemical compound, drug	4′,6-Diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# D1306 RRID: AB_2629482	(0.5 µg/ml)
Commercial assay or kit	10x phosphate buffered saline	Quality Biological	Cat# 119-069-131	
Commercial assay or kit	TRIzol	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 15596026	
Commercial assay or kit	EcoDry Premix kit	Takara Bio	Cat# 639549	
Commercial assay or kit	PowerSYBR Green	Applied Biosystems - Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 4367659	
Commercial assay or kit	VECTASHIELD	Vector Laboratories	Cat# H-1000	
Software, algorithm	Adobe Illustrator 2022	Adobe Inc.	RRID:SCR_010279	
Software, algorithm	ImageJ	National Institutes of Health	RRID:SCR_003070	
Software, algorithm	GraphPad Prism9	GraphPad	RRID:SCR_002798	

Drosophila **husbandry**

Drosophila were reared on a normal fat diet (NFD, Nutri-Fly German formula; Genesee

Scientific, San Diego, CA; 66-115) or a high-fat diet (HFD, NFD supplemented with 14%

coconut oil), under standard conditions (25°C, 60% humid, 12h:12h dark:light). The following

fly lines were obtained from Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center (BDSC) at Indiana

University Bloomington (Bloomington, IN): w^{1118} (BDSC_3605), *Akh*-Gal4 (BDSC_25684),

UAS-*Akh*-RNAi (BDSC_34960), *Akh-T2A*-Gal4 (BDSC_78877), w^{1118} P{UAS-*rpr.C*}27;

P{UAS-2x*EGFP*}AH3 (BDSC_91417), *AkhR^{null}* (BDSC_80937), *w[*]; P{w[+mC]=LexAop-*

CD8-GFP-2A-CD8-GFP}2; *P{w[+mC]=UAS-mLexA-VP16-NFAT}H2,* *P{w[+mC]=lexAop-*

rCD2-GFP}3/TM6B, Tb[1] (BDSC_66542), and *10x*UAS-*GFP* (BDSC_32185).

Optical coherence tomography (OCT)

Cardiac function in adult *Drosophila* was measured using an OCT system (Bioptigen; this

system was built by the Biophotonics Group, Duke University, Durham, NC (Yelbuz et al.,

2002)). For this, newly eclosed adult flies (female) were transferred to fresh vials containing

NFD or HFD for 7 days. The flies were anesthetized by carbon dioxide (CO_2) and mounted

onto a glass slide using fixogum rubber cement (Marabu GmbH & Co. KG, Tamm, Germany;

MR290117000). The flies were allowed to recover for 10 minutes and then imaged using OCT.

The flies were scanned at the cardiac chamber in abdominal segment A2. The acquisition

parameters were as follows: 48 Hz, 800 frames.

Quantification of heart period and arrhythmia index

The heart period and arrhythmia index were quantified as previously reported (Ocorr et al.,

2007) with minor modifications. In brief, the OCT raw data was processed using ImageJ

software (version 2.9.0/1.53) (Schneider et al., 2012). Within each OCT image (10 seconds)

the heart periods were arranged by length. The heart period value for each fly was based on

the average of three short, three medium and three long heart periods (*i.e.*, nine periods in

total). The arrhythmia index for a genotype was based on the group average (7-day-old

females; n=11-23), presented with the standard deviation (SD).

Immunostaining and confocal imaging

Flies were dissected in 1xPBS, then fixed in 4% PFA for 30 at room temperature. The

specimens were then washed in PBST (0.2% Triton X-100 in 1xPBS) three times, 15 min

each, followed by blocking in 1% normal goat serum (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories,

West Grove, PA; 102643-594) in PBST for 1 hour at room temperature. The specimens were

incubated in primary antibody at 4°C overnight, then washed in PBST three times 15 min.

Next, the specimens were incubated in secondary antibody for 2 hours at room temperature,

followed by three 15 min washes in PBST, followed by a 10 min wash in PBS. DAPI staining

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA; D1306, 0.5 µg/ml in PBST) was performed in-

between the washing steps after the secondary antibody staining. The following antibodies

were used: mouse monoclonal anti-Brp 1:100 (Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, Iowa

City, IA; nc82, RRID:AB_2314866); goat anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 647 1:500 (Jackson

ImmunoResearch Laboratories, West Grove, PA; 115-605-003). Alexa Fluor 647 Phalloidin

1:1,000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA; A22287) was used to stain the filament actin.

Antibodies were diluted in the blocking buffer. The specimens were mounted with Vectashield

antifade mounting media (Vector Laboratories, Newark, CA; H-1000). The samples were

imaged using a ZEISS LSM 900 confocal microscope and ZEISS ZEN blue edition (version

3.0) acquisition software under a 20x Plan-Apochromat 0.8 N.A. air objective or a 63x Plan-

Apochromat 1.4 N.A. oil objective. For quantitative comparison of intensities, settings were

chosen to avoid oversaturation (using range indicator in ZEN blue) and applied across images

for all samples within an assay. Image J was used for image processing (version 2.9.0/1.53t;

National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD) (Schneider et al., 2012).

Reverse Transcriptase-quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR)

For quantification of Akh and AkhR mRNA levels, adult female flies fed NFD or HFD for 7 days

were transferred into 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes (10 flies/tube) and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen.

Total RNA was extracted using TRIzol (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, Cat#

15596026) according to the manufacturer's protocol. In brief, 0.5 mL TRIzol was added to

each tube, then flies were grinded using a pestle. Following, 0.1 ml chloroform was added,

sample tubes securely capped, and vigorously shaken by hand for 15 seconds. Samples were

incubated at 22°C for 2 minutes, then centrifuged at 12,000xg for 15 minutes at 4°C, and

supernatants transferred to a clean tube in which total RNA was precipitated using isopropanol

(Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO; 67-63-0). Synthesis of cDNA using reverse transcriptase was

performed with the RNA to cDNA EcoDry Premix kit (Takara Bio, San Jose, CA; 639549) and

and the subsequent quantitative PCR using PowerSYBR Green (Applied Biosystems - Thermo

Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA; 4367659), according to the manufacturers' protocols. qPCR

was performed using a QuantStudio 6 Pro Real-Time PCR machine (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Waltham, MA). The following primers (5'-3') were used: Akh_F

TTTCGAGACACAGCAGGGCA, with Akh_R GGTGCTTGCAGTCCAGAAA; AkhR_F

ACAATCCGTCGGTGAACA, with AkhR_R CATCACCTGGCCTCTTCCAT. For each

treatment, three biological replicates were prepared. ΔΔCT method was used to quantify the

gene expression levels with normalization to *Ribosomal protein L32* (*RpL32*) as internal

reference gene (Rpl32_F AACCGCGTTTACTGCGGCGA, with Rpl32_R

AGAACGCAGGCGACCGTTGG).

CaLexA assays

CaLexA assays were performed to determine the neuron activity. *Akh*-Gal4 virgins were

crossed with CaLexA males (*w[*]; P{w[+mC]=LexAop-CD8-GFP-2A-CD8-GFP}2;*

*P{w[+mC]=*UAS-*mLexA-VP16-NFAT}H2, P{w[+mC]=lexAop-rCD2-GFP}3/TM6B, Tb[1]*) and

maintained on NFD. The newly eclosed adults were transferred to fresh food vials containing

NFD or HFD for 3 days. The flies were then dissected in 1x phosphate buffered saline (1xPBS)

(Quality Biological, Gaithersburg, MD; 119-069-131) at room temperature and fixed in 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA; J19943.K2) in 1xPBS for 1

hour at room temperature, followed by three 15 min washes in 1xPBS with Triton X-100

(Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO; 9002-93-1) (PBST). The specimens were then stained in DAPI

(0.5 µg/ml in PBST) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA; D1306) for 10 min and washed

once for 15 min in 1xPBS before mounting with Vectashield antifade mounting media (Vector

Laboratories, Newark, CA; H-1000). The samples were imaged using a ZEISS LSM 900

confocal microscope and ZEISS ZEN blue edition (version 3.0) acquisition software under a

20x Plan-Apochromat 0.8 N.A. air objective a 63x Plan-Apochromat 1.4 N.A. oil objective. For

quantitative comparison of intensities, settings were chosen to avoid oversaturation (using

range indicator in ZEN blue) and applied across images for all samples within an assay. Image

J was used for image processing (version 2.9.0/1.53t; National Institutes of Health, Bethesda,

MD) (Schneider et al., 2012).

Data analysis and figure preparation

Figures were arranged using Adobe Illustrator software (version 26.2.1; Adobe Inc., San Jose,

CA). The relative fluorescence intensity was acquired using ImageJ software (version

2.9.0/1.53t; National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD) (Schneider et al., 2012). Data plotting

and statistical analyses were performed using Prism 9 (GraphPad Software, Boston, MA).

Data normality was tested by using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Normally distributed data were

analyzed by Student's *t*-test with Welch's correction (two groups) or by a one-way ANOVA

followed by Dunnett's correction or two-way ANOVA corrected with Sidak. P-value < 0.05 was

considered significant.

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DATA AVAILABILITY

All relevant data can be found within the article and its supplementary information.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

YZ and HZ designed the project; YZ and JD carried out the experiments; YZ carried out the data analyses; YZ prepared the figures; YZ and JvdL wrote the draft and revisions; HZ provided project oversight, resources, and funding. The manuscript has been critically reviewed and the final version approved by all authors.

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DISCLOSURES

441   The authors declare no competing interests.

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 FIGURES

Figure 1. HFD increases heart rate and arrhythmia index in *Drosophila*

(A) Schematic illustration of the experimental design. Adult flies (female) were fed either a normal fat diet (NFD) or a high-fat diet (HFD) for 7 days following eclosion from pupa, then subjected to heart functional analysis using optical coherence tomography (OCT) to determine the heart period and the arrhythmia index. **(B)** Representative images obtained from OCT videos of w^{1118} flies that were fed NFD or HFD as indicated. Scale bars: 2 seconds. **(C,D)** Quantitation of heart period (**C**; n=15 NFD, n=11 HFD) and arrhythmia index (**D**; n=14 NFD, n=12 HFD). Statistical analysis was performed using *t*-test corrected with Welch; **, P<0.01.

Figure 2. HFD up-regulates adipokinetic hormone gene *Akh* and activates Akh neurons

(A) Representative confocal image of Akh producing cells (APCs; green, GFP) in *Akh*-Gal4>10xUAS-*GFP* (*Akh*-Gal4>*GFP*) transgenic flies (3-day-old females). The image shows the anterior section of the digestive system, including the crop, esophagus, and proventriculus. The APCs are located at the corpora cardiaca, which attaches to the esophagus, just anterior to the proventriculus. Phalloidin stains actin filaments red; DAPI stains DNA in nucleus blue. Scale bar: 100 µm. **(B)** RT-qPCR analysis of *Akh* expression in w^{1118} flies (female) that were fed either a normal fat diet (NFD) or a high-fat diet (HFD) for 7 days following eclosion from pupa. Ten flies per group, repeated three times. Statistical analysis was performed with unpaired *t*-test corrected with Welch; *, $P<0.05$. **(C)** Representative confocal images of *Akh*-Gal4>*CaLexA* APCs from female adult flies fed an NFD or HFD (for 7 days following eclosion from pupa). CaLexA is a transcription-based genetically encoded calcium indicator for neuronal activity. CaLexA fluorescence has been presented as heatmap; scale from 0 (blue), no CaLexA detected, to 255 (red) high levels CaLexA. Scale bars: 20 µm. **(D)** Quantitation of CaLexA fluorescence in C (7-day-old females; NFD, n=14; HFD, n=10). Statistical analysis was performed with unpaired *t*-test corrected with Welch; ***, $P<0.001$.

Figure 3. Akh regulates the heartbeat

(A) Representative images obtained from optical coherence tomography (OCT) videos of control (*Akh*-Gal4) and *Akh*-RNAi (*Akh*-Gal4>UAS-*Akh*-RNAi) flies (females, 7 days old) that were fed a normal fat diet (NFD) or a high-fat diet (HFD), as indicated, for seven days starting at eclosion from pupa. Scale bars: 2 seconds. **(B)** Quantitation of the arrhythmia index in control (n=15 NFD, n=13 HFD) and *Akh*-RNAi (n=13 NFD, n=14 HFD) flies. Statistical analysis was performed with two-way ANOVA corrected with Sidak. Statistical significance: *, p<0.05; ****, p<0.0001; ns, not significant.

Figure 4. AkhR regulates the heartbeat

(A) RT-qPCR analysis of *AkhR* expression in w^{1118} flies (female) that were fed either a normal

fat diet (NFD) or a high-fat diet (HFD) for 7 days following eclosion from pupa. Ten flies per

group, repeated three times. Statistical analysis was performed with unpaired *t*-test corrected

with Welch; *, P<0.05. **(B)** Quantitation of arrhythmia index in control (n=14 NFD, n=12 HFD)

and *AkhR^null^* (n=11 NFD, n=13 HFD) flies. Statistical analyses were performed with two-way

ANOVA corrected with Sidak; **, P<0.01; ***, P<0.001; ns, not significant. **(C)** Representative

images obtained from optical coherence tomography (OCT) videos of control (w^{1118}) and

*AkhR^null^* mutant flies flies (females, 7 days old) that were fed NFD or HFD, as indicated, for

seven days starting at eclosion from pupa. Scale bars: 2 seconds.

Figure 5. AkhR cardiac neurons (ACNs) form synaptic connections with the posterior heart

(A) Graphic depiction of the body (no legs or wings) of an adult fly with the head oriented towards the top. The heart tube (red) is located along the midline in the abdomen (bottom of graphic), with the alary muscles that connect the heart to the exoskeleton represented in light grey. **(B)** A representative confocal image of an *AkhR*-Gal4>10xUAS-*GFP* adult fly (7-day-old, female). The dorsal region of an abdomen corresponding to the boxed region in (A) is shown. *AkhR>GFP* labels AkhR in green. ACN, AkhR cardiac neuron. Phalloidin stains actin filaments

red. Scale bar: 100 μm. **(C)** Schematic illustration of the posterior fly heart. Corresponds to

boxed region in (A). **(D)** A representative confocal image of the posterior heart of an *AkhR-*

Gal4>10xUAS-*GFP* fly (7-day-old, female) corresponding to the boxed region in (C).

AkhR>GFP labels AkhR in green. Phalloidin stains actin filaments red. Scale bar: 50 μm. **(E)**

Schematic illustration of the posterior end of an adult fly heart. The neurites of the cardiac

neurons are depicted in green. Relates to the boxed region in (C). **(F)** Confocal image of the

posterior heart of an *AkhR*-Gal4>10xUAS-*GFP* fly (7-day-old, female) corresponding to the

boxed region in (E). *AkhR>GFP* labels AkhR in green. Anti-Bruchpilot (Brp), a marker for the

active zone, is shown in magenta. Scale bar: 10 μm.

Figure 6. Partial elimination of ACNs causes arrhythmia

(A) A representative confocal image of an adult *AkhR*-Gal4>*rpr*, *GFP* (*AkhR*-Gal4>UAS-*rpr*, UAS-*GFP*) fly (7-day-old, female). *AkhR*>*GFP* labels AkhR in green. *AkhR*, *adipokinetic hormone receptor*; *rpr*, *reaper*. Phalloidin stains actin filaments red. Scale bar: 100 μm. **(B)** Representative images obtained from optical coherence tomography (OCT) videos of control (*w*[1118]) and *AkhR*-Gal4>*rpr* (*AkhR*-Gal4>UAS-*rpr*, UAS-*GFP*) flies (7-day-old, female). Scale bar: 2 seconds. **(B)** Quantitation of arrhythmia index in control (n=14 NFD) and *AkhR*-Gal4>*rpr* (n=23 NFD). Statistical analysis was performed using *t*-test corrected with Welch; ****, $P<0.0001$.

Figure 7. Model: Akh/AkhR mediates the HFD-induced cardiac arrhythmia

A high-fat diet (HFD) upregulates adipokinetic hormone (Akh) levels in the Akh producing cells (APCs) located at the corpora cardiaca adjacent to the anterior esophagus. HFD also increases APC activity, this results in increased Akh section into the circulation. Akh acts on the Akh receptors (AkhR) expressed by the AkhR cardiac neurons (ACN). The ACN are a pair of neurons located at the posterior end of the adult fly heart, that regulate the heartbeat. Through this signaling pathways, increased Akh under HFD conditions leads to increased arrhythmia.

FIGURE SUPPLEMENT

Figure 2—figure supplement 1. HFD increases crop size

(A) Representative confocal images of crops from female adults (w^{1118}) fed a normal fat diet

(NFD) or a high-fat diet (HFD) for 7 days following eclosion from pupa. DAPI stains DNA in

blue. Scale bar: 100 μm. **(B)** Quantitation of crop area. n=8 NFD and n=6 HFD. Statistical

analysis was performed using *t*-test corrected with Welch; ***, P<0.001.