1

Axonal distribution of mitochondria maintains neuronal autophagy during aging via eIF2β

Kanako Shinno[1†], Yuri Miura[2], Koichi M. Iijima[3,4], Emiko Suzuki[1,5], Kanae Ando[1,6*]

1. Department of Biological Sciences, Graduate School of Science, Tokyo Metropolitan University, Hachioji, Tokyo, 192-0397, Japan
2. Research Team for Mechanism of Aging, Tokyo Metropolitan Institute for Geriatrics and Gerontology, Itabashi, Tokyo, 173-0015, Japan
3. Department of Alzheimer's Disease Research, National Center for Geriatrics and Gerontology, Obu, Aichi, 474-8511, Japan
4. Department of Experimental Gerontology, Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Nagoya City University, Nagoya, Aichi, 467-8603, Japan
5. Gene Network Laboratory, National Institute of Genetics and Department of Genetics, SOKENDAI, Mishima, Shizuoka, 411-8540, Japan
6. Department of Biological Sciences, School of Science, Tokyo Metropolitan University, Hachioji, Tokyo, 192-0397, Japan

*Correspondence: k_ando@tmu.ac.jp
†Current address: Department of Neuroscience and Pathobiology, Research Institute of Environmental Medicine, Nagoya University, Chikusa-Ku, Nagoya, Aichi, 464-8601, Japan

Summary

Neuronal aging and neurodegenerative diseases are accompanied by proteostasis collapse, while cellular factors that trigger it are not identified. Impaired mitochondrial transport in the axon is another feature of aging and neurodegenerative diseases. Using *Drosophila*, we found that genetic depletion of axonal mitochondria causes dysregulation of protein degradation. Axons with mitochondrial depletion showed abnormal protein accumulation and autophagic defects. Lowering neuronal ATP levels by blocking glycolysis did not reduce autophagy, suggesting that autophagic defects are associated with mitochondrial distribution. We found that eIF2β was increased by the depletion of axonal mitochondria via proteome analysis. Phosphorylation of eIF2α, another subunit of eIF2, was lowered,

and global translation was suppressed. Neuronal overexpression of *eIF2β* phenocopied
the autophagic defects and neuronal dysfunctions, and lowering *eIF2β* expression
rescued those perturbations caused by depletion of axonal mitochondria. These results
indicate the mitochondria-eIF2β axis maintains proteostasis in the axon, of which
disruption may underly the onset and progression of age-related neurodegenerative
diseases.

Highlights
- Loss of axonal mitochondria impairs autophagy and accumulates proteins in the axon
- Loss of axonal mitochondria increases eIF2β and decreases p-eIF2α
- Neuronal upregulation of eIF2β induces autophagic defects and locomotor dysfunction
- Lowering eIF2β rescues autophagic defects caused by loss of axonal mitochondria

Keywords
Mitochondria; axonal transport; aging; neuronal proteostasis; protein aggregation; autophagy; eukaryotic Initiation Factor 2β (eIF2β); *Drosophila*; neurodegeneration; proteome

Introduction
Neurons have a morphologically complex architecture composed of microcompartments and require tight regulation of the abundance of proteins and organelles spatially and temporally[1]. Such control of protein amounts, or proteostasis, is essential for neuronal functions[2] and is achieved through the orchestration of protein expression, folding, trafficking, and degradation controlled by intrinsic and environmental signals[3]. Translation is initiated by the eukaryotic initiation factor 2 (eIF2) complex[4]. eIF2, a heterotrimer of α, β, and γ subunits, transports Met-tRNA to the ribosome in a GTP-dependent manner[5]. Under stressed conditions, phosphorylation of eIF2α attenuates global translation and initiates translation of mRNAs related to the integrated stress response (ISR)[6]. As for protein degradation, autophagy and proteasome are major systems that maintain proteostasis[7]. The proteasome degrades unnecessary proteins, followed by regulated ubiquitination processes[8], and autophagy removes damaged or harmful

71 components, including large protein aggregates and organelles, through catabolism
72 (selective autophagy)[9]. In addition to autophagy induced by acute stressors, a basal level
73 of selective autophagy mediates the global turnover of damaged proteins[10].
74
Such constitutive autophagy decreases during aging, which may underlie declines in the
structural and functional integrity of neurons[11]. Decreased protein degradation and
accumulation of abnormal proteins also contribute to increased risks of neurodegenerative
diseases. Age-related neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's disease and
Parkinson's disease are often associated with the accumulation of misfolded proteins such
as amyloid-β, tau, and α-synuclein[12]. Enhancement of autophagy mitigates age-related
dysfunctions and neurodegeneration caused by proteotoxic stress[13]. However, it is not
fully understood how aging disrupts the regulation of this constitutive autophagy.
83
Neurons are also highly energy-demanding cells. At nerve terminals, action potentials
trigger the release of neurotransmitters via exocytosis of synaptic vesicles, which requires
a constant supply of ATP and calcium buffering[14]. Such neuronal activity relies on
mitochondrial functions[15], and mitochondria are actively transported from their major
sites of biogenesis in soma to axons[16]. However, the axonal transport of mitochondria
declines during aging[17,18,19]. Reduced axonal transport of mitochondria is thought to
contribute to age-related declines in neuronal functions[17,19,20,21]. The number of functional
mitochondria in synapses is reduced in the brains of patients suffering from age-related
neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's disease[22], and mutations in genes
involved in mitochondrial dynamics are linked to neurodegenerative diseases[23]. The
mislocalization of mitochondria is sufficient to cause age-dependent neurodegeneration
in *Drosophila* and mice[24,25], indicating that the proper distribution of mitochondria is
essential to maintain neuronal functions. Thus, depletion of functional mitochondria from
axons and proteostasis collapse are common features of aging and neurodegenerative
diseases.
99
Mitochondrial transport is regulated by a series of molecular adaptors that mediate the
attachment of mitochondria to molecular motors[16]. In *Drosophila*, mitochondrial
transport is mediated by milton and Miro, which attaches mitochondria to microtubules
via kinesin heavy chain[26,27]. In the absence of milton or Miro, synaptic terminals and
axons lack mitochondria, although mitochondria are numerous in the neuronal cell body[28].
We previously reported that RNAi-mediated knockdown of *milton* or *Miro* in neurons
causes a reduction in axonal mitochondria, age-dependent locomotor defects[29], and age-

dependent neurodegeneration in neuropile area starting around 30 days after eclosion

(day-old)[24], and enhances axon degeneration caused by human tau proteins[24], suggesting

that these flies can be used as a model to analyze the effect of depletion of axonal

mitochondria during aging. In this study, we investigated a causal relationship between

mitochondrial distribution and neuronal proteostasis by using neuronal knockdown of

milton. We found that depletion of axonal mitochondria reduced autophagy and increased

the accumulation of aggregated proteins in the axon prior to gross neurodegeneration.

Proteome analysis and follow-up biochemical analyses revealed that neuronal

knockdown of *milton* increased eIF2β levels and lowered phosphorylation of eIF2α in the

axon. In addition, *milton* knockdown suppressed global translation. Overexpression of

eIF2β was sufficient to decrease autophagy and induce neuronal dysfunction, and genetic

suppression of *eIF2β* restored autophagy and improved neuronal function in the *milton*

knockdown background. These findings suggest that loss of axonal mitochondria and

elevated levels of eIF2β mediate proteostasis collapse and neuronal dysfunction during

aging.

Results

Depletion of axonal mitochondria by knockdown of *milton* or *Miro* causes protein

accumulation in the axon

In *Drosophila*, mitochondrial transport is mediated by milton and Miro, which attach

mitochondria to microtubules via kinesin heavy chain[26,27] (Figure 1A). It has been

reported that expression of *milton* RNAi in neurons via pan-neuronal elav-GAL4 driver

reduced milton protein levels in *Drosophila* head lysate to 40% and mito-GFP signals in

axons to 50%[24,29].

To test how loss of axonal mitochondria affects proteostasis in neurons, we first examined

the accumulation of ubiquitinated proteins. At 14 day-old, more ubiquitinated proteins

were deposited in the brains of *milton* knockdown flies than in those of age-matched

control flies (Figure 1B, $p < 0.005$ between control RNAi and *milton* RNAi). There was

no significant increase in ubiquitinated proteins in *milton* knockdown flies at 1-day old,

suggesting that the accumulation of ubiquitinated proteins caused by *milton* knockdown

is age-dependent (Figure S1). We also analyzed the effect of the neuronal knockdown of

Miro, a partner of milton, on the accumulation of ubiquitin-positive proteins. Since severe

knockdown of *Miro* in neurons causes lethality, we used UAS-*Miro* RNAi strain with low

knockdown efficiency, whose expression driven by elav-GAL4 caused 30% reduction of

Miro mRNA in head extract[24]. Although there was a tendency for increased ubiquitin-
positive puncta in *Miro* knockdown brains, the difference was not significant (Figure 1B,
p>0.05 between control RNAi and *Miro* RNAi). These data suggest that the depletion of
axonal mitochondria induced by *milton* knockdown leads to the accumulation of
ubiquitinated proteins before neurodegeneration occurs.
It has been reported that ubiquitinated proteins accumulate with aging[30]; thus, we
analyzed the accumulation of ubiquitinated proteins in aged brains (30 day-old) with
milton knockdown. The number of puncta of ubiquitinated proteins did not significantly
differ between control and *milton* knockdown flies or between control and *Miro*
knockdown flies (Figure 1C, $p > 0.05$). These results suggest that depletion of axonal
mitochondria may have more impact on proteostasis in young neurons than in old neurons.
We examined the ultrastructure of presynaptic terminals and cell bodies in photoreceptor
neurons with *milton* knockdown by transmission electron microscopy in 27-day-old flies
(Figure 1D). As previously reported[24], the number of mitochondria in presynaptic
terminals decreased in *milton* knockdown (Figure 1E). The swelling of presynaptic
terminals, characterized by the enlargement and roundness, was not reported at 3-day-
old[24] but observed at this age with about 4% of total presynaptic terminals (Figure 1F,
asterisks).
Some presynaptic terminals of *milton* knockdown neurons contained dense materials
(Figure 1F and G, arrowheads). Dense materials are rarely found in age-matched control
neurons, indicating that *milton* knockdown induces abnormal protein accumulation in the
presynaptic terminals (Figure 1G and H). In *milton* knockdown neurons, dense materials
are found in swollen presynaptic terminals more often than in presynaptic terminals
without swelling, suggesting a positive correlation between the disruption of proteostasis
and axonal damage (Figure 1G). In contrast, dense materials were not observed in cell
bodies in the *milton* knockdown retina (Figure 1H). These results indicate that the
depletion of axonal mitochondria induces protein accumulation in the axon.
170
Depletion of axonal mitochondria impairs protein degradation pathways
Since abnormal proteins were accumulated in *milton* knockdown brains, we next
examined if protein degradation pathways were suppressed. We analyzed autophagy via
western blotting of the autophagy markers LC3 and p62[31]. During autophagy progression,
LC3 is conjugated with phosphatidylethanolamine to form LC3-II, which localizes to
isolation membranes and autophagosomes. LC3-I accumulation occurs when
autophagosome formation is impaired, and LC3-II accumulation is associated with
lysosomal defects[31,32]. p62 is an autophagy substrate, and its accumulation suggests

autophagic defects[31,32]. We found that *milton* knockdown increased LC3-I, and the LC3-
II/LC3-I ratio was lower in *milton* knockdown flies than in control flies at 14-day-old
(Figure 2A). We also analyzed p62 levels in head lysates sequentially extracted using
detergents with different stringencies (1% Triton X-100 and 2% SDS). Western blotting
revealed that p62 levels were increased in the brains of 14-day-old of *milton* knockdown
flies (Figure 2B). The increase in the p62 level was significant in the Triton X-100-soluble
fraction but not in the SDS-soluble fraction (Figure 2B), suggesting that depletion of
axonal mitochondria impairs the degradation of less-aggregated proteins. Proteasome
activity was also significantly decreased in brains with neuronal knockdown of *milton*
(Figure 2C, $p < 0.005$).
At 30 day-old, LC3-I was still higher, and the LC3-II/LC3-I ratio was lower, in *milton*
knockdown compared to the control (Figure 2D). At this age, *milton* knockdown
increased p62 significantly in 1% Triton X-100 fraction and 2% SDS fraction (Figure 2E).
Proteasome activities were also decreased in *milton* knockdown flies at 30-day-old
(Figure 2F). These results indicate that depletion of axonal mitochondria impairs protein
degradation pathways.
195
ATP deprivation does not impair autophagy
milton knockdown downregulates ATP in the axon[33]. To examine whether the disruption
of protein degradation pathways by *milton* knockdown is due to ATP deprivation, we
investigated the effects of knocking down phosphofructokinase (*Pfk*), a rate-limiting
enzyme in glycolysis, on protein degradation pathways. Neuronal knockdown of *Pfk* was
reported to lower ATP levels in brain neurons[33]. *Pfk* knockdown and *milton* knockdown
decreased ATP to similar levels (Figure 3A-C). However, in contrast with *milton*
knockdown, *Pfk* knockdown did not affect the levels of LC3-I, LC3-II or the LC3-II/LC3-
I ratio (Figure 3D). *Pfk* knockdown decreased p62 level (Figure 3E), suggesting that
autophagy is promoted. On the other hand, proteasome activity was decreased by *Pfk*
knockdown (Figure 3F). These results suggest that the downregulation of axonal ATP
upon depletion of axonal mitochondria decreases proteasome activity, but not autophagy.
208
Proteome analysis suggests that depletion of axonal mitochondria causes disruption
of autophagy and premature aging
To identify the pathways that mediate the decrease in autophagy in *milton* knockdown
brains, we performed proteome analysis to systematically detect differentially expressed
proteins upon neuronal knockdown of *milton*. We analyzed flies at 7- and 21-day-old, the
age before autophagic defects are detected and the age just before the onset of

neurodegeneration, respectively (Figure 4A). 1039 proteins were detected by liquid
chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). Expression of 36 proteins was
significantly increased (22 proteins) or decreased (14 proteins) by *milton* knockdown at
7-day-old (Figure 4B, Tables 1 and S1). At 21 day-old, the expression of 41 proteins (31
upregulated and ten downregulated proteins) was significantly altered in *milton*
knockdown flies compared with control flies (Figure 4C, Tables 1 and S1). The
"Interaction search" algorithm using KeyMolnet showed that proteins whose expression
was significantly altered in the brains of *milton* knockdown flies at both 7- and 21-day-
old were closely associated with the autophagic pathway (Table 2). Proteins involved in
pathways characteristics of aging, such as the immune response (Transcriptional
regulation by STAT), cancer (Transcriptional regulation by SMAD, Transcriptional
regulation by myc), longevity (Transcriptional regulation by FOXO, Sirtuin signaling
pathway), and stress responses (HSP90 signaling pathway, MAPK signaling pathway)[34,35],
were enriched in the proteome profiles of *milton* knockdown flies compared with those
of control flies at 7-day-old (Table 2), suggesting that depletion of axonal mitochondria
accelerates aging in the brain.
231
Depletion of axonal mitochondria upregulates eIF2β and decreases phosphorylation
of eIF2α
Differentially expressed proteins at 7-day-old flies may reflect alterations that are causal
for autophagic defects. We noticed that the expression level of eIF2β was 2.465-fold
higher in the brains of *milton* knockdown flies than in those of control flies (Figure 4B
and D). Upregulation of eIF2β in the brains of *milton* knockdown flies was confirmed by
western blotting. *milton* knockdown increased eIF2β protein levels more than twice
(Figure 4E), but did not change the level of *eIF2β* mRNA (Figure 4F).
eIF2β is a subunit of the eukaryotic initiation factor 2 (eIF2) complex, which is critical
for translation initiation and the integrated stress response (ISR)[4]. eIF2 is a heterotrimer
of α, β, and γ subunits, and eIF2α is phosphorylated during the ISR[6]. As for the other
subunits of eIF2 complex, proteome analysis did not detect a significant difference in the
protein levels of eIF2α and eIF2γ between *milton* knockdown and control flies at 7 and
21 days (Figure 4D). Western blotting of brain lysates showed that *milton* knockdown
reduced eIF2α levels (Figure 4G), while p-eIF2α levels were not significantly affected
(Figure 4H).
To analyze local changes of eIF2α and p-eIF2α, we carried out immunostaining. We
focused on the mushroom body, where axons, dendrites, and cell bodies can be easily
identified (Figure 4I). Both eIF2α and p-eIF2α were downregulated in the cell body

(Kenyon cells) and dendritic (Calyxes) regions of the brains of *milton* knockdown flies
(Figure 4J). In axons (lobe tips), *milton* knockdown did not affect eIF2α (Figure 4K, $p =$
0.271) but significantly downregulated p-eIF2α (Figure 4K). The ratio of p-eIF2α to
eIF2α was lower in the axon but not in the soma or dendritic region. These results suggest
that axonal distribution of mitochondria regulate the level of overall eIF2α protein and
local p-eIF2α.
257
Depletion of axonal mitochondria suppressed global translation
Phosphorylation of eIF2α induces conformational changes in the eIF2 complex and
inhibits global translation[36]. To analyze the effects of *milton* knockdown on translation,
we performed polysome gradient centrifugation to examine the level of ribosome binding
to mRNA. Since p-eIF2α was downregulated, we hypothesized that *milton* knockdown
would enhance translation. However, unexpectedly, we found that *milton* knockdown
significantly reduced the level of mRNAs associated with polysomes (Figure 5A and B).
We also compared the level of translation between the brains of control and *milton*
knockdown flies by assessing the incorporation of puromycin (Figure 5C). Puromycin
incorporation was lower in the brains of *milton* knockdown flies than in those of control
flies, while it was not statistically significant (Figure 5C, indicated by a bracket). These
data suggest that the depletion of axonal mitochondria suppresses global translation.
270
eIF2β upregulation reduces the level of p-eIF2α, impairs autophagy, and decreases
locomotor function
We were motivated to ask if eIF2β upregulation mediates autophagic defects caused by
milton knockdown. If so, neuronal overexpression of *eIF2β* would also induce autophagy
impairment. Neuronal overexpression of *eIF2β* increased LC3-II, while the LC3-II/LC3-
I ratio was not significantly different (Figure 6A and B). Overexpression of *eIF2β*
significantly increased the p62 level in the Triton X-100-soluble fraction (Figure 6C, 4-
fold vs. control, $p < 0.005$ (1% Triton X-100)) but not in the SDS-soluble fraction (Figure
6C, 2-fold vs. control, $p = 0.062$ (2% SDS)), as observed in brains of *milton* knockdown
flies (Figure 2B). These data suggest that neuronal overexpression of *eIF2β* accumulates
autophagic substrates.
Since *milton* knockdown reduced the p-eIF2α level (Figure 4K), we asked whether an
increase in eIF2β affects p-eIF2α. Neuronal overexpression of *eIF2β* did not affect the
eIF2α level but significantly decreased the p-eIF2α level (Figure 6D, E).
Depletion of axonal mitochondria causes age-dependent decline in locomotor function[24].
We found that neuronal overexpression of *eIF2β* also caused locomotor dysfunction

(Figure 6F). Locomotor functions were significantly impaired in those flies at 20-day-old
and worsened further during aging (Figure 6F, compare 4-, 20-, and 30-day-old). We
asked if *eIF2β* overexpression causes neurodegeneration, as depletion of axonal
mitochondria in the photoreceptor neurons causes axon degeneration in an age-dependent
manner[24]. *eIF2β* overexpression in photoreceptor neurons tends to increase
neurodegeneration in aged flies, while it was not statistically significant ($p>0.05$, Figure
S2).
These data indicate that an increase of eIF2β in neurons phenocopies depletion of axonal
mitochondria, including suppression of autophagy and age-dependent locomotor
dysfunction, and suggest that increase of eIF2β mediates these phenotypes downstream
of loss of axonal mitochondria.
298
299 Lowering *eIF2β* rescues autophagic impairment and locomotor dysfunction induced
300 by *milton* knockdown
Finally, we investigated whether suppression of eIF2β rescues autophagy impairment and
locomotor dysfunction caused by neuronal knockdown of *milton*. Null mutants and flies
with RNAi-mediated knockdown of *eIF2β* in neurons did not survive. Flies lacking one
copy of the *eIF2β* gene survived without any gross abnormality, and the level of *eIF2β*
mRNA in these flies was about 80% of that in control flies (Figure 7A). *eIF2β*
heterozygosity did not affect the eIF2α and p-eIF2α levels (Figure S3A and B).
Neuronal knockdown of *milton* causes accumulation of autophagic substrate p62 in the
Triton X-100-soluble fraction (Figure 2B), and we tested if lowering eIF2β ameliorates
it. We found that *eIF2β* heterozygosity caused a mild increase in LC3-I levels and
decreases in LC3-II levels, resulting in a significantly lower LC3-II/LC3-I ratio in *milton*
knockdown flies (Figure 7B). *eIF2β* heterozygosity decreased the p62 level in the Triton
X-100-soluble fraction in the brains of *milton* knockdown flies (Figure 7C). The p62 level
in the SDS-soluble fraction, which is not sensitive to *milton* knockdown (Figure 2B), was
not affected (Figure 7C). These results suggest that suppression of *eIF2β* ameliorates the
impairment of autophagy caused by *milton* knockdown.
eIF2β heterozygosity also rescued locomotor dysfunction induced by *milton* knockdown.
milton knockdown flies with *eIF2β* heterozygosity exhibited better locomotor function
than *milton* knockdown alone (Figure 7D). The *milton* mRNA level was not increased in
these flies, indicating that the rescue effect in the *eIF2β* heterozygous background was
not mediated by an increase in the *milton* mRNA level (Figure S3C). These data suggest
that eIF2β upregulation mediates autophagy impairment and locomotor dysfunction
caused by the depletion of axonal mitochondria.

Discussion

Proteostasis perturbations trigger the formation of pathological aggregates and increase the risks of neurodegenerative diseases during aging. By using neuronal *milton* knockdown to deplete mitochondria from the axon, we provide evidence that loss of axonal mitochondria drives age-related proteostasis collapse via eIF2β (Figure 8). We observed declines in autophagy-mediated degradation of less-aggregated proteins and proteasome activity in *milton* knockdown flies (Figure 2). Accumulation of ubiquitinated proteins and changes in age-related pathways started prematurely in *milton* knockdown flies (Figure 1 and Table 2). *milton* knockdown increased eIF2β and lowered eIF2α phosphorylation (Figure 4). Overexpression of *eIF2β* phenocopied the effects of *milton* knockdown, including reduced autophagy and accelerated age-related locomotor defects (Figure 6). Furthermore, lowering *eIF2β* levels suppressed the impairment of autophagy and locomotor dysfunction induced by *milton* knockdown (Figure 7). eIF2β protein levels are reduced at the 21-day-old; however, since a reduction in the eIF2β ameliorated *milton* knockdown-induced locomotor defects in aged flies (Figure 7), the reduction in eIF2β observed in the 21-day-old is not likely to negatively contribute to *milton* knockdown-induced defects. Our results suggest that mitochondrial distribution and eIF2β are part of the mechanisms constituting proteostasis.

milton knockdown causes loss of mitochondria in the axon and accumulation of mitochondria in the soma. Thus, the detrimental effects may be mediated by the accumulation of mitochondria. However, degeneration induced by *milton* knockdown is prominent in the axon and not detected in the cell body[24]. Furthermore, abnormal protein accumulation was observed in the axon (Figure 1), and p-eIF2α/eIF2α was decreased in the neurites but not in the soma (Figure 4), suggesting that proteostasis defects studied in this work are caused by depletion of mitochondria rather than accumulation of mitochondria. Further analyses to dissect the effects of *milton* knockdown on proteostasis and translation in the cell body and axon by experiments with spatial resolution would be needed.

The depletion of axonal mitochondria and accumulation of abnormal proteins are both characteristics of aged brains[37,38]. Our results suggest that the loss of axonal mitochondria is an event upstream of proteostasis collapse during aging. Neuronal knockdown of *milton* had more impact on proteostasis in young neurons than the old neurons (Figure 1).

Proteome analyses also showed that age-related pathways, such as immune responses, are
enhanced in young flies with *milton* knockdown (Table 2). The reduction in axonal
transport of mitochondria may be one of the triggering events of age-related changes and
accelerates the onset of aging in the brain. Disruption of proteostasis is expected to
contribute neurodegeneration[38] , and it would be interesting to analyze the sequence of
protein accumulation and axonal degeneration in *milton* knockdown ([24,29] and Figure 1)
in detail with higher time resolution.
366
Our results revealed that eIF2β regulates autophagy and maintains proteostasis during
aging. eIF2β is a component of eIF2, which meditates translational regulation and ISR
initiation. When ISR is activated, phosphorylated eIF2α suppresses global translation and
induces translation of ATF4, which mediates transcription of autophagy-related genes[39,40].
Since ISR can positively regulate autophagy, we suspected that suppression of ISR
underlies a reduction in autophagic protein degradation. We found neuronal knockdown
of *milton* reduced phosphorylated eIF2α, suggesting that ISR is reduced (Figure 4).
However, we also found that global translation was reduced (Figure 5). It may be possible
that increased levels of eIF2β disrupt the eIF2 complex or alter its functions. The
stoichiometric mismatch caused by an imbalance of eIF2 components may inhibit ISR
induction. Supporting this model, we found that eIF2β upregulation reduced the levels of
p-eIF2α (Figure 6). It is also possible that eIF2β mediates autophagy defects via
mechanisms independent of ISR since eIF2β has functions independent of eIF2[41,42]. For
example, suppression of *eIF2β* has been reported to slow down cancer cell growth[41]. In
developing neurons, eIF2β can directly interact with the translational repressor Kra to
regulate midline axon guidance[42]. However, to our knowledge, the roles of eIF2β in aging
have not been reported. Our results revealed a novel function of eIF2β to maintain
proteostasis during aging.
385
How depletion of axonal mitochondria upregulates eIF2β is currently under investigation.
A major mitochondrial function is ATP production, and depletion of axonal mitochondria
downregulates ATP in axons[33]. However, we found that ATP deprivation did not always
suppress autophagy (Figure 3), suggesting it is unlikely to be involved in the mechanisms
that induce eIF2β upregulation. Mitochondria also serve as signaling hubs for translation
and protein degradation. Mitochondrial proteins are regulated by co-translational protein
quality control, and mitochondrial damage induces translational stalling of mitochondrial
outer membrane-associated *complex-I 30 kD subunit* (*C-I30*) mRNA[43]. Additionally, the
mitochondrial outer membrane ubiquitin ligase MITOL (also known as MARCHF5)

ubiquitinates and regulates not only mitochondrial proteins such as Mfn2[44] but also
microtubule-associated[45] and endoplasmic reticulum[46] proteins. These findings indicate
that mitochondria serve as local signaling centers for proteostasis maintenance, and eIF2β
levels may also be regulated by mechanisms related to mitochondria.
399
In conclusion, our results suggest that axonal mitochondria and eIF2β form an axis to
maintain constitutive autophagy. Suppression of *eIF2β* rescued autophagic defects and
neuronal dysfunction upon loss of axonal mitochondria. Since eIF2β is conserved across
many species, including *Drosophila* and humans, our results suggest that eIF2β may be a
possible therapeutic target for aging and diseases associated with mitochondrial
mislocalization.
406
407
408 **Materials and methods**
409
Fly stocks and husbandry
Flies were maintained in standard cornmeal medium (10% glucose, 0.7% agar, 9%
cornmeal, 4% yeast extract, 0.3% propionic acid, and 0.1% n-butyl p-hydroxybenzoate)
at 25°C under light–dark cycles of 12:12 h. The flies were transferred to fresh food vials
for every 2–3 days. UAS-*milton* RNAi (v41508) was from VDRC and outcrossed to
[w1118] for five generations in our laboratory. Transgenic fly lines carrying UAS-
luciferase RNAi control for *milton* RNAi) was reported previously[24]. GMR-gal4, Elav-
gal4, UAS-*Pfk* RNAi (Bloomington stock center #36782), UAS-*luciferase* RNAi
(Bloomington stock center #31603) (control for *Pfk* RNAi), UAS-*GFP* (used for control
for UAS-*eIF2β*) and UAS-*eIF2β* (eIF2β^{EY08063}, Bloomington stock center #17425) were
from the Bloomington stock center. *eIF2β* heterozygous strain (PBac{SAstopDsRed}
LL07719, DGRC#142114) was from KYOTO *Drosophila* Stock Center. UAS-*mitoGFP*
was a kind gift from Drs. W. M. Saxton (University of California, Santa Cruz).
423
Immunohistochemistry and image acquisition
Fly brains were dissected in PBS and fixed for 45 minutes in formaldehyde (4% v/v in
PBS) at room temperature. After incubation in PBST containing 0.1% Triton X-100 for
10 min three times, samples were incubated for 1h at room temperature in PBST
containing 1% normal goat serum (Wako, #143-06561) and then incubated overnight with

the primary antibody (anti-ubiquitin antibody Ubi-1 (Thermo Fisher #13-1600) (1:50),

anti-eIF2α (abcam #ab26197) (1:50) and anti-p-eIF2α (Cell signaling #3398S) (1:50))

diluted in 1% NGS/PBST at 4 °C. Samples were then washed for 10 min with PBST

including 0.1% Triton X-100 three times and incubated with the secondary antibody for

overnight at 4° C. Brains were mounted in Vectashield (Vectorlab Cat#H-1100) and

analyzed under a confocal microscope (Nikon). Quantitative analysis was performed

using ImageJ (National Institutes of Health) with maximum projection images derived

from Z-stack images acquired with same settings. Puncta was identified with mean

intensity and area using ImageJ. For eIF2α and p- eIF2α immunostaining, the mushroom

body was detected by mitoGFP expression.

Electron microscopy

Proboscis was removed from decapitated heads, which were then incubated in primary

fixative solution (2.5% glutaraldehyde and 2% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M sodium

cacodylate buffer) at R.T. for 2 hours. After washing heads with 3% sucrose in 0.1 M

sodium cacodylate buffer, fly heads were post-fixed for 1 hour in secondary fixation (1%

osmium tetroxide in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer) on ice. After washing with H_2O,

heads were dehydrated with ethanol and infiltrated with propylene oxide and Epon

mixture (TAAB and Nissin EM) for 3 hours. After infiltration, specimens were embedded

with an Epon mixture at 70°C for 2~3 days. Thin sections (70 nm) of laminas were

collected on copper grids. The sections were stained with 5% uranyl acetate in 50%

ethanol and Reynolds' lead citrate solution. Electron micrographs were obtained with a

CCD Camera mounted on a JEM-1400 plus electron microscope (Jeol Ltd.). Quantitation

was performed using ImageJ (National Institutes of Health).

SDS–PAGE and immunoblotting

Western blotting was performed as reported previously[24]. Briefly, heads of 10-20

Drosophila were homogenized with SDS-Tris-Glycine sample buffer (0.312M Tris, 5%

SDS, 8% glycerol, 0.0625% BPB, 10% β-mercaptoethanol, 10μg/mL leupeptin, 0.4 μM

Pefabloc, 10mM β-glycerphosphate, 10mM NaF) and after boiling at 95ºC for 2 minutes,

it was centrifuged at 13,200 rpm, and the supernatant was used as a sample. For p62

western blot, fly heads were homogenized with 1% PBST and after centrifugation at

13,200 rpm, the supernatant was mixed 1:1 SDS-Tris-Glycine sample buffer, and boiled

at 95 ºC for 2 minutes. The pellet was dissolved with 2% SDS in PBS, then centrifuged

again at 13,200 rpm. The supernatant was mixed 1:1 SDS-Tris-Glycine sample buffer and

then boiled at 95 ºC for 2 minutes. SDS–PAGE for western blotting was performed using

15%(w/v) (LC3), 7.5%(w/v) (p62), 10% (w/v) (eIF2α, β, and p-eIF2α) polyacrylamide

gels. After electrophoresis, they were transferred to PVDF membrane (Merck Millipore)

using a transfer device (BIO-RAD). After transfer, the membrane was blocked with 5%

skim milk/TBST (50 mM Tris (pH 7.5), 0.15 M NaCl, 0.05% Tween20) for 1 hour and

incubated with primary antibody listed below overnight at 4 ℃. Membranes were rinsed

twice with TBST containing 0.65M NaCl and once with TBST containing 0.15M NaCl.

After incubation with the secondary antibody at room temperature for 1 hour, membranes

were rinsed twice with TBST containing 0.65M NaCl and once with TBST containing

0.15M NaCl. After incubation with Immobilon Western Chemiluminescent HRP

Substrate (Merck Millipore), chemiluminescent signals were detected with Fusion FX

(Vilber). Experiments were repeated at least 3 times with independent cohorts of flies.

Primary antibodies: anti-LC3 antibody Atg8 (Merck Millipore #ABC975) (1:1000), anti-

p62 antibody Ref2P (abcam #ab178440) (1:750), anti-eIF2β antibody (1:1500), anti-

eIF2α antibody (abcam #ab26197) (1:1000), anti-p-eIF2α antibody (Cell signaling

#3398S) (1:2000), anti-actin antibody (SIGMA A2066) (1:3000) and anti-β tubulin

antibody (Sigma #T9026) (1:800,000). Polyclonal anti-eIF2β antibody was raised against

a synthetic peptide (CGLEDDTKKEDPQDEA) corresponding to the C-terminal residues

29-43 of *Drosophila* eIF2β (1:1500).

Secondary antibodies: Peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG antibody (Dako

#P0447) (1:2000), peroxidase-conjugated pig anti-rabbit IgG antibody (Dako #P0399)

(1:2000)

Proteasome assay

Heads from ten flies were homogenized in 150 µl of buffer B (25 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5],

2 mM ATP, 5 mM MgCl2, and 1 mM dithiothreitol). Proteasome peptidase activity in the

lysates was measured with a synthetic peptide substrate, succinyl-Leu-Leu-Val-Tyr-7-

amino-4-methyl-coumarin (Suc-LLVY-AMC) (Cayman). Luminescence was measured

on a multimode plate reader 2300 Enspire (PerkinElmer). Experiments were repeated at

least 3 times with independent cohorts of flies.

ATP assay

Heads from the 10 flies were homogenized in 50 µl of 6 M guanidine-HCl in extraction

buffer (100 mM Tris and 4 mM EDTA, pH 7.8) to inhibit ATPases. Samples were boiled

for 5 min and centrifuged. The supernatant was diluted 4% with extraction buffer and

mixed with a reaction solution (ATP Determination kit, Invitrogen). Luminescence was

measured on a multimode plate reader 2300 Enspire (PerkinElmer). The relative ATP

levels were calculated by dividing the luminescence by the total protein concentration,
which was determined by the Bradford method. Experiments were repeated at least 3
times with independent cohorts of flies.
504

Proteomic assay and pathway analysis
Sample preparation
Heads from the 35 flies were homogenized in 110 µl of extraction buffer (0.25% RapiGest
SF, 50mM ammonium bicarbonate, 10mM dithiothreitol, 10µg/mL leupeptin, 0.4 µM
Pefabloc, 10mM β-glycerphosphate, 10mM NaF). Homogenized samples were
centrifuged and boiled for 5 min. After quantification of the protein concentration using
a Pierce® 660 nm Protein Assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 10 µg proteins from each
sample were reduced using 5 mM tris (2-carboxyethyl) phosphine hydrochloride (TCEP-
HCl; Thermo Fisher Scientific) at 60°C for 1 h, alkylated using 15 mM iodoacetamide
(Fujifilm Wako Pure Chemical, Osaka, Japan) at room temperature for 30 min, and then
digested using 1.5 µg Trypsin Gold (Mass Spectrometry Grade; Promega, Madison, WI,
USA) at 37°C for 17 h. The digests were acidified by the addition of trifluoroacetic acid
(TFA), incubated at 37°C for 30 min, and then centrifuged at 17,000 $\times g$ for 10 min to
remove the RapiGest SF. The supernatants were collected and desalted using
MonoSpin™ C18 (GL Sciences, Tokyo, Japan). The resulting eluates were concentrated
in vacuo, dissolved in 2% MeCN containing 0.1% formic acid (FA), and subjected to LC-
MS/MS analysis.
522

LC-MS/MS analysis and database search
LC-MS/MS analyses were performed on an Ultimate 3000 RSLCnano system (Thermo
Fisher Scientific) coupled to a Q Exactive hybrid quadrupole-Orbitrap mass spectrometer
(Thermo Fisher Scientific) equipped with a nano electron spray ionization (ESI) source.
The LC system was equipped with a trap column (C18 PepMap 100, 0.3 × 5 mm, 5 µm,
Thermo Fisher Scientific) and an analytical column (NTCC-360/75-3-125, Nikkyo
Technos, Tokyo, Japan). Peptide separation was performed using a 90-min gradient of
water/0.1% FA (mobile phase A) and MeCN/0.1% FA (mobile phase B) at a flow rate of
300 nL/min. Elution was performed as follows: 0–3 min, 2% B; 3–93 min, 2%–40% B;
93–95 min, 40%–95% B; 95–105 min, 95% B; 105–107 min, 95%–2% B; and 107–120
min, 2% B. The mass spectrometer was operated in data-dependent acquisition mode. The
MS parameters were as follows: spray voltage, 2.0 kV; capillary temperature, 275°C; S-
lens RF level, 50; scan type, full MS; scan range, *m/z* 350–1500; resolution, 70,000;
polarity, positive; automatic gain control target, 3×10^6; and maximum injection time,

100 msec. The MS/MS parameters were as follows: resolution, 17,500; automatic gain

control target, 1×10^5; maximum injection time, 60 msec; normalized collision energy

(NCE), 27; dynamic exclusion, 15 sec; loop count, 10; isolation window, 1.6 *m/z*; charge

exclusion: unassigned, 1 and ≥8; and injection volume, 1 μL (containing 0.5 μg protein).

Measurements were made in duplicate for each sample.

The identification of proteins and label-free quantification (LFQ) of the detected peptides

were performed using Proteome Discoverer software ver. 2.4 (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

The analytical parameters used for the database search were as follows: parent mass error

tolerance, 10.0 ppm; fragment mass error tolerance, 0.02 Da; search engine, sequest HT;

protein database, Drosophila melanogaster (Fruit fly: SwissProt Tax ID=7227); enzyme

name, trypsin (full); maximum number of missed cleavages, 2; dynamic modification,

oxidation (methionine), phosphorylation (serine, threonine, tyrosine), acetyl (lysine), GG

(lysine); N-terminal modification, Met-loss (methionine), and Met-loss+acetyl

(methionine); static modification, carbamidomethylation (cysteine) and FDR confidence,

High < 0.01, 0.01 ≤ Medium < 0.05, 0.05 ≤ Low. The parameters for LFQ were as follows:

precursor abundance, based on area; and normalization mode, total peptide amount.

The abundance ratio of *milton* RNAi to control RNAi at 7 or 21 day-old was calculated.

We considered proteins with an abundance ratio of ≥2.0 or ≤ 0.5 and an ANOVA *P*-value

of < 0.05 based on volcano plots to be differentially expressed of *milton* RNAi. To extract

molecular networks biologically relevant to the proteins that are differentially expressed

in *milton* RNAi, pathway analysis was performed using KeyMolnet (KM Data Inc., Tokyo,

Japan).

RNA extraction and quantitative real-time PCR analysis

Heads from more than 25 flies were mechanically isolated, and total RNA was extracted

using ISOGEN (NipponGene) followed by reverse-transcription using PrimeScript RT

reagent kit (Takara). The resulting cDNA was used as a template for PCR with

THUNDERBIRD SYBR qPCR mix (TOYOBO) on a Thermal Cycler Dice real-time

system TP800 (Takara). Expression of genes of interest was standardized relative to rp49.

Relative expression values were determined by the ΔΔCT method (Livak and Schmittgen,

2001). Experiments were repeated three times, and a representative result was shown.

Primers were designed using DRSC FlyPrimerBank (Harvard Medical School). Primer

sequences are shown below;

eIF2β for 5′-GGACGACGACAAGAGCGAAG -3′

eIF2β rev 5′-CGGTCGCATCACGAACTTTG -3′

milton for 5′-GGCTTCAGGGCCAGGTATCT-3′

milton rev 5′-GCCGAACTTGGCTGACTTTG-3′

Actin for 5′-TGCACCGCAAGTGCTTCTAA-3′

Actin rev 5′-TGCTGCACTCCAAACTTCCA-3′

rp49 for 5′-GCTAAGCTGTCGCACAAATG-3′

rp49 rev 5′- GTTCGATCCGTAACCGATGT-3′

Polysome gradient centrifugation

30 heads were homogenized in 150 µl of lysis buffer (25 mM Tris pH 7.5, 50 mM MgCl2,

250 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 0.5 mg/ml cycloheximide, 0.1 mg/ml heparin). The lysates

were centrifuged at 13,200 rpm at 4 °C for 5 minutes, and the supernatant was collected.

The samples containing 38µg of RNA was layered gently on top of a 10–50% w/w sucrose

gradient (50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 50 mM MgCl2, 250 mM NaCl, 0.1 mg/ml heparin, 0.5

mg/ml cycloheximide in 5 ml polyallomer tube) and centrifuged at 37,000 rpm at 4°C for

150 minutes in a himac CP-NX ultracentrifuge using a P50AT rotor. Samples were

fractionated from top to bottom, and absorbance at OD260 nm was analyzed by a Plate

reader (EnSpire). Experiments were repeated at least 3 times with independent cohorts of

flies.

Puromycin analysis

13-day-old flies were starved for 6 hr and fed 600 µM puromycin (Sigma) or 600 µM

puromycin/35 mM cycloheximide (Sigma) in 5% sucrose solution for 20 hr. Incorporated

puromycin was quantified by western blot with anti-puromycin antibody and normalized

with actin. Experiments were repeated at least 3 times with independent cohorts of flies.

Histological analysis

Fly heads were fixed in Bouin's fixative solution for 48 h at room temperature, incubated

for 24 h in 50 mM Tris/150 mM NaCl, and embedded in paraffin. Serial sections (7 µm

thickness) through the entire heads were stained with hematoxylin and eosin and

examined by bright-field microscopy. Images of the sections that include the lamina were

captured with Keyence microscope BZ-X700 (Keyence), and the vacuole area was

measured using ImageJ (National Institutes of Health).

Climbing assay

The climbing assay was performed as previously described[24]. Flies were placed in an

empty plastic vial (2.5 cm in diameter × 10 cm in length). The vial was gently tapped to

knock the flies to the bottom, and the number of flies reached to the top, middle and
bottom areas of the vials in 10 s was counted. Experiments were repeated 10 times, and
the mean percentage of flies in each area and standard deviations were calculated.
Experiments were repeated with independent cohorts more than three times, and a
representative result was shown.
614

Statistics
The number of replicates, what n represents, precision measurements, and the meaning
of error bars are indicated in Figure Legends. Data are shown as means ± SEM. For
pairwise comparisons, Student's t-test was performed with Microsoft Excel (Microsoft).
For multiple comparisons, data were analyzed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's HSD
multiple-comparisons test in the GraphPad Prism 6.0 software (GraphPad Software, Inc.,
La Jolla, CA). Results with a p-value of less than 0.05 were considered to be statistically
significant.
623

Acknowledgments
The authors thank the Bloomington stock center; TRiP at Harvard Medical School
(NIH/NIGMS R01-GM084947); the Kyoto Drosophila Stock Center and the Vienna
Drosophila RNAi Center for fly stocks. The authors thank Dr. Masayuki Miura from
Department of Pharmaceutical Science, University of Tokyo, for proteasome activity
assay protocol; Dr. Shin-ichi Hisanaga from the Department of Biological Sciences,
Tokyo Metropolitan University, for critical comments; Dr. Taro Saito, Dr. Akiko Asada
from the Department of Biological Sciences, Tokyo Metropolitan University, Dr. Michiko
Sekiya from Department of Alzheimer's Disease Research, National Center for Geriatrics
and Gerontology, and Dr. Seiji Watanabe, Dr. Koji Yamanaka from Department of
Neuroscience and Pathobiology, Research Institute of Environmental Medicine, Nagoya
University for technical supports.
637

Funding
This work was supported by the Sasakawa Scientific Research Grant (2021-4087) (to
K.S.), the Takeda Science Foundation (to KA), Hoansha foundation grant (to KA), a
research award from the Japan Foundation for Aging and Health (to KA), the Novartis
Foundation (Japan) for the promotion of Science (to KA), a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific
Research on Challenging Research (Exploratory) [JSPS KAKENHI Grant number

Author contributions

650 K.S. and K.A. designed the experiments, interpreted the data, and wrote the manuscript;

651 K.S., Y.M., K.M.I and E.S. conducted the experiments, and K.S., Y.M., E.S., and K.A.

652 analyzed the data. All authors read and approved the manuscript.

Declaration of interests

656 The authors declare no competing interests.

Data Availability

659 The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the

660 corresponding author upon request.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Knockdown of *milton* or *Miro* causes protein accumulation in the axon

(A) Schematic representation of the mitochondrial transport machinery. Knockdown of

milton, an adapter protein for mitochondrial transport, depletes mitochondria in the axon.

(B, C) Ubiquitinated proteins in brains with neuronal knockdown of *milton* or *Miro*.

Brains dissected at 14-day-old (B) or 30-day-old (C) were immunostained with an

antibody against ubiquitin. Firefly *luciferase* RNAi was used as a control. Representative

images (left) and quantitation of the number of ubiquitin-positive puncta (right) are shown.

Scale bars of hemibrains, 100 μm, Scale bars of high magnifications, 10 μm. Means ± SE,

n = 8. *N.S.*, $p > 0.05$; ***$p < 0.005$ (one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by

Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) *post hoc* test). (D) Cross sections in the

lamina and in the retina were used to analyze the ultrastructure of synapses and cell bodies,

respectively. *milton* RNAi was expressed in the retina and neurons via a combination of

GAL4 drivers, a pan-retinal gmr-GAL4 and pan-neuronal elav-GAL4. (E) Quantitation

of the number of mitochondria in a presynaptic terminal from transmission electron

micrographs. 180 presynaptic terminals from cross-sections of the lamina from three

brains were analyzed. ***$p < 0.005$ (Chi-square test). (F, G) Presynaptic terminals of

photoreceptor neurons of control and *milton* knockdown flies. Photoreceptor neurons are

highlighted in blue. Swollen presynaptic terminals (asterisks in (F)), characterized by the

enlargement and higher circularity, were found more frequently in *milton* knockdown

neurons. Arrowheads indicate presynaptic terminals with dense materials. Scale bars, 2

μm. Representative images (Left) and quantitation (Right) are shown. 918–1118 from

three heads were quantified for the percentage of swollen presynaptic terminals, and 180

presynaptic terminals from three heads were quantified for the size of presynaptic

terminals. Mean ± SE, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.005$ (Student's *t*-test). (G) Dense materials

(arrowheads in (G)) in the presynaptic terminals of *milton* knockdown neurons. Scale bars,

2 μm. The ratio of presynaptic terminals containing dense materials were quantified from

918–1118 presynaptic terminals from three heads. Mean ± SE, ***$p < 0.005$ (Student's *t*-

test). (H) Cell bodies of photoreceptor neurons of control and *milton* knockdown flies.

Scale bars, 2 μm. Flies were 27-day-old.

Figure 2. *milton* knockdown impairs protein degradation pathways

(A, B) Western blotting of head extracts of control and *milton* knockdown flies with

antibodies against LC3 (A) and Ref2P, the fly homolog of mammalian p62 (B). For the

analyses of p62 levels, heads were extracted with 1% Triton X-100 or 2% SDS (B). Flies

were 14-day-old. Representative blots (left) and quantitation (right) are shown. Actin was

used as a loading control. Means ± SE, n = 6 (LC3), n = 3 (p62). (C) Proteasome activity

in head extracts of control and *milton* knockdown flies was measured by hydrolysis of

Suc-LLVY-AMC at 14-day-old. Means ± SE, n = 3. (D, E) Western blotting of head

extracts of 30-day-old control and *milton* knockdown flies. Blotting was performed with

anti-LC3 (D) and anti-p62 (E) antibodies. Representative blots (left) and quantitation

(right) are shown. Actin was used as a loading control. Means ± SE, n = 6 (LC3), n = 3

(p62). (F) Proteasome activity in head extracts of 30-day-old control and *milton*

knockdown flies. Means ± SE, n = 3. *N.S.*, $p > 0.05$; *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.005$

(Student's *t*-test).

Figure 3. ATP deprivation does not impair autophagy

(A-C) ATP levels in brain extracts of control and *milton* knockdown flies (A) and control

and *Pfk* knockdown flies (B) and comparison of the effects of *milton* knockdown and *Pfk*

knockdown on ATP levels (C). Flies were 14 day-old. Means ± SE, n = 3. (D, E) Western

blotting of head extracts of flies with neuronal expression of control or *Pfk* RNAi. Blotting

was performed with anti-LC3 (D) and anti-p62 (E) antibodies. For analyses of p62 levels,

heads were extracted with 1% Triton X-100 or 2% SDS. Representative blots (left) and
quantitation (right) are shown. Actin was used as a loading control. Means ± SE, n = 6
(LC3), n = 3 (p62). (F) Proteasome activity in head lysates of flies with neuronal
expression of control or *Pfk* RNAi was measured by hydrolysis of Suc-LLVY-AMC.
Means ± SE, n = 3. *N.S.*, $p > 0.05$; *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.005$ (Student's *t*-test).
Flies were at 14 day-old.
723

Figure 4. *milton* knockdown upregulates eIF2β and decreases phosphorylation of
eIF2α and translation
(A) Timing of proteome analysis and phenotypes observed in *milton* knockdown flies. (B,
C) Scatter plots of the $\log_2$ abundance ratio (x-axis) against the $-\log_{10}$ p-value (y-axis) of
proteins at 7-day-old (B) and 21-day-old (C). (D) eIF2 subunit protein levels from
proteome analysis of *milton* knockdown flies compared to those of control flies. (E)
Western blotting of head extracts of flies expressing control or *milton* RNAi in neurons
with an anti-eIF2β antibody. Flies were 14-day-old. Representative blots (left) and
quantitation (right) are shown. Tubulin was used as a loading control. Means ± SE, n = 6.
(F) *eIF2β* mRNA levels quantified by qRT-PCR. Means ± SE, n = 4, (G, H) Western
blotting of head extracts with anti-eIF2α (G) and anti-p-eIF2α (H) antibodies. Flies were
14-day-old. Representative blots (left) and quantitation (right) are shown. Tubulin was
used as a loading control. Means ± SE, n = 6. (I) A schematic representation of the axon
(Lobe tips), the cell body region (Kenyon cells), and dendritic region (Calyxes) in the fly
brain. Scale bars, 100μm. (J, K) Immunostaining with anti-eIF2α and anti-p-eIF2α
antibodies. The mushroom body was identified by expression of mito-GFP. Scale bars,
20μm. The signal intensities of eIF2α and p-eIF2α in axons, dendrites, and cell bodies
were quantified and are shown as ratios relative to the control. Means ± SE, n=12.
N.S., $p > 0.05$; *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.005$ (Student's *t*-test).
743

Figure 5. *milton* knockdown suppressed global translation
(A) Representative polysome traces of head lysates of control and *milton* knockdown flies.
(B) Quantitation of polysome fraction. The relative ratio of area under the curve (AUC)
of polysome fractions (sedimentation 28%-50%). Means ± SE, n = 3. ***$p < 0.005$
(Student's *t*-test) (C) Western blotting of head lysates of control and *milton* knockdown
flies fed puromycin alone or puromycin and cycloheximide (CHX) with an anti-
puromycin antibody. Flies were 14-day-old. Actin was used as a loading control.
Representative blots (left) and quantitation (right) are shown. Means ± SE, n = 3.
Student's *t*-test.

Figure 6. eIF2β upregulation impairs autophagy and decreases locomotor function

(A) *eIF2β* mRNA levels in head extracts of flies with UAS-*eIF2β* driven by elav-Gal4
(*eIF2β* OE) or UAS-GFP driven by elav-Gal4 (control) were quantified by qRT-PCR.
Flies were 2-day-old. Means ± SE, n=4. (B, C) Western blotting of head extracts with
anti-LC3 (B) and anti-p62 (C) antibodies. Flies were 14-day-old. Representative blots
(left) and quantitation (right) are shown. Tubulin and actin were used as loading controls.
Means ± SE, n = 3 (p62), n = 5 (LC3). (D, E) Western blotting of head extracts with anti-
eIF2α (D) and anti-p-eIF2α (E) antibodies. Flies were 14-day-old. Representative blots
(left) and quantitation (right) are shown. Tubulin was used as a loading control. Means ±
SE, n = 6. (F) Climbing assay revealed early-onset of age-dependent locomotor defects
in *eIF2β*-overexpressing flies. Means ± SE, n = 5. *N.S.*, $p > 0.05$; ***$p < 0.005$
(Student's *t*-test).

Figure 7. Lowering *eIF2β* rescues autophagic impairment and locomotor
dysfunction induced by *milton* knockdown

(A) *eIF2β* mRNA levels with one disrupted copy of the *eIF2β* gene
(*eIF2β*SAstopDsRed/+ (*eIF2β* -/+)). Head extracts of flies 2–3 day-old were analyzed by
qRT-PCR. Means ± SE, n = 3. (B, C) Western blotting of head extracts of flies with
neuronal expression of *milton* RNAi with or without *eIF2β* heterozygosity with anti-LC3
(B) and anti-p62 (C) antibodies. Flies were 14-day-old. Representative blots (left) and
quantitation (right) are shown. Actin was used as a loading control. Means ± SE, n = 5
(LC3), n = 3 (p62). (D) The climbing ability of 20-day-old flies expressing *milton* RNAi
with or without *eIF2β* heterozygosity. Means ± SE, n = 15. *N.S.*, $p > 0.05$; *$p < 0.05$;
***$p < 0.005$ (Student's *t*-test).

Figure 8. Graphical abstract: the mitochondria-eIF2β axis in the axon maintains
neuronal proteostasis during aging

Supplemental Figure 1. **Ubiquitinated proteins in brains with neuronal knockdown**
of *milton* at 1-day-old

Brains dissected at 1-day-old were immunostained with an antibody against ubiquitin.
Representative images (left) and quantitation of the number of ubiquitin-positive puncta
(right) are shown. Scale bars of hemibrains, 100 μm, Means ± SE, n = 8. *N.S.*, $p > 0.05$
(Student's *t*-test).

Supplemental Figure 2. **Histology analysis of fly heads with *eIF2β* overexpression**

The morphology of the eye with eIF2β overexpression. The dotted lines indicate the retina. Vacuoles are indicated by arrows. Representative images (left) and quantification of vacuole area (right). The flies were 40-day-old. Means ± SE, n = 5-13 *N.S.*, $p > 0.05$ (Student's *t*-test).

Supplemental Figure 3. **Lowering the eIF2β level does not affect the levels of eIF2α and p-eIF2α.**

(A, B) Blotting was performed with anti-eIF2α (A) and anti-p-eIF2α (B) antibodies. Flies were 14-day-old. Representative blots (left) and quantitation (right) are shown. Tubulin was used as a loading control. Means ± SE, n = 6. (C) *eIF2β* gene disruption does not affect the knockdown efficiency of *milton*. *milton* mRNA levels in head extracts were quantified by qRT-PCR. Flies were 2-day-old. Means ± SE, n = 3. *N.S.*, $p > 0.05$; *$p < 0.05$ (Student's *t*-test).

References

1.   Yerbury, J.J., Ooi, L., Dillin, A., Saunders, D.N., Hatters, D.M., Beart, P.M., Cashman, N.R., Wilson, M.R., and Ecroyd, H. (2016). Walking the tightrope: proteostasis and neurodegenerative disease. J. Neurochem. *137*, 489-505. 10.1111/jnc.13575.

2.   Hetz, C. (2021). Adapting the proteostasis capacity to sustain brain healthspan. Cell *184*, 1545-1560. 10.1016/j.cell.2021.02.007.

3.   Balch, W.E., Morimoto, R.I., Dillin, A., and Kelly, J.W. (2008). Adapting proteostasis for disease intervention. Science *319*, 916-919. 10.1126/science.1141448.

4.   Kimball, S.R. (1999). Eukaryotic initiation factor eIF2. Int J Biochem Cell Biol *31*, 25-29. 10.1016/s1357-2725(98)00128-9.

5.   Jackson, R.J., Hellen, C.U., and Pestova, T.V. (2010). The mechanism of eukaryotic translation initiation and principles of its regulation. Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol. *11*, 113-127. 10.1038/nrm2838.

6.   Pakos-Zebrucka, K., Koryga, I., Mnich, K., Ljujic, M., Samali, A., and Gorman, A.M. (2016). The integrated stress response. EMBO Rep *17*, 1374-1395. 10.15252/embr.201642195.

7.   Kroemer, G., Marino, G., and Levine, B. (2010). Autophagy and the integrated stress response. Mol. Cell *40*, 280-293. 10.1016/j.molcel.2010.09.023.

8.   Nandi, D., Tahiliani, P., Kumar, A., and Chandu, D. (2006). The ubiquitin-proteasome
system. J Biosci *31*, 137-155. 10.1007/BF02705243.

9.   Glick, D., Barth, S., and Macleod, K.F. (2010). Autophagy: cellular and molecular
mechanisms. J. Pathol. *221*, 3-12. 10.1002/path.2697.

10.   Vargas, J.N.S., Hamasaki, M., Kawabata, T., Youle, R.J., and Yoshimori, T. (2023). The
mechanisms and roles of selective autophagy in mammals. Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol. *24*,
167-185. 10.1038/s41580-022-00542-2.

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

12.   Ross, C.A., and Poirier, M.A. (2004). Protein aggregation and neurodegenerative disease.
Nat. Med. *10 Suppl*, S10-17. 10.1038/nm1066.

13.   Rubinsztein, D.C., Marino, G., and Kroemer, G. (2011). Autophagy and aging. Cell *146*,
682-695. 10.1016/j.cell.2011.07.030.

14.   Vos, M., Lauwers, E., and Verstreken, P. (2010). Synaptic mitochondria in synaptic
transmission and organization of vesicle pools in health and disease. Front Synaptic
Neurosci *2*, 139. 10.3389/fnsyn.2010.00139.

15.   Cheng, A., Hou, Y., and Mattson, M.P. (2010). Mitochondria and neuroplasticity. ASN
Neuro *2*, e00045. 10.1042/AN20100019.

16.   Hollenbeck, P.J., and Saxton, W.M. (2005). The axonal transport of mitochondria. J. Cell
Sci. *118*, 5411-5419. 10.1242/jcs.02745.

17.   Takihara, Y., Inatani, M., Eto, K., Inoue, T., Kreymerman, A., Miyake, S., Ueno, S.,
Nagaya, M., Nakanishi, A., Iwao, K., et al. (2015). In vivo imaging of axonal transport of
mitochondria in the diseased and aged mammalian CNS. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *112*,
10515-10520. 10.1073/pnas.1509879112.

18.   Milde, S., Adalbert, R., Elaman, M.H., and Coleman, M.P. (2015). Axonal transport
declines with age in two distinct phases separated by a period of relative stability.
Neurobiol. Aging *36*, 971-981. 10.1016/j.neurobiolaging.2014.09.018.

19.   Vagnoni, A., Hoffmann, P.C., and Bullock, S.L. (2016). Reducing Lissencephaly-1 levels
augments mitochondrial transport and has a protective effect in adult Drosophila neurons.
J. Cell Sci. *129*, 178-190. 10.1242/jcs.179184.

20.   Morsci, N.S., Hall, D.H., Driscoll, M., and Sheng, Z.H. (2016). Age-Related Phasic
Patterns of Mitochondrial Maintenance in Adult Caenorhabditis elegans Neurons. J.
Neurosci. *36*, 1373-1385. 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2799-15.2016.

21.   Adalbert, R., and Coleman, M.P. (2013). Review: Axon pathology in age-related
neurodegenerative disorders. Neuropathol. Appl. Neurobiol. *39*, 90-108. 10.1111/j.1365-

2990.2012.01308.x.

22.   Duncan, J.E., and Goldstein, L.S. (2006). The genetics of axonal transport and axonal
transport disorders. PLoS Genet. *2*, e124. 10.1371/journal.pgen.0020124.

23.   Chen, H., and Chan, D.C. (2009). Mitochondrial dynamics--fusion, fission, movement,
and mitophagy--in neurodegenerative diseases. Hum. Mol. Genet. *18*, R169-176.
10.1093/hmg/ddp326.

24.   Iijima-Ando, K., Sekiya, M., Maruko-Otake, A., Ohtake, Y., Suzuki, E., Lu, B., and Iijima,
K.M. (2012). Loss of axonal mitochondria promotes tau-mediated neurodegeneration and
Alzheimer's disease-related tau phosphorylation via PAR-1. PLoS Genet. *8*, e1002918.
10.1371/journal.pgen.1002918.

25.   Lopez-Domenech, G., Higgs, N.F., Vaccaro, V., Ros, H., Arancibia-Carcamo, I.L.,
MacAskill, A.F., and Kittler, J.T. (2016). Loss of Dendritic Complexity Precedes
Neurodegeneration in a Mouse Model with Disrupted Mitochondrial Distribution in
Mature Dendrites. Cell Rep *17*, 317-327. 10.1016/j.celrep.2016.09.004.

26.   Guo, X., Macleod, G.T., Wellington, A., Hu, F., Panchumarthi, S., Schoenfield, M., Marin,
L., Charlton, M.P., Atwood, H.L., and Zinsmaier, K.E. (2005). The GTPase dMiro is
required for axonal transport of mitochondria to Drosophila synapses. Neuron *47*, 379-
393. 10.1016/j.neuron.2005.06.027.

27.   Glater, E.E., Megeath, L.J., Stowers, R.S., and Schwarz, T.L. (2006). Axonal transport of
mitochondria requires milton to recruit kinesin heavy chain and is light chain independent.
J. Cell Biol. *173*, 545-557. 10.1083/jcb.200601067.

28.   Stowers, R.S., Megeath, L.J., Gorska-Andrzejak, J., Meinertzhagen, I.A., and Schwarz, T.L.
(2002). Axonal transport of mitochondria to synapses depends on milton, a novel
Drosophila protein. Neuron *36*, 1063-1077. 10.1016/s0896-6273(02)01094-2.

29.   Iijima-Ando, K., Hearn, S.A., Shenton, C., Gatt, A., Zhao, L., and Iijima, K. (2009).
Mitochondrial mislocalization underlies Abeta42-induced neuronal dysfunction in a
Drosophila model of Alzheimer's disease. PLoS One *4*, e8310.
10.1371/journal.pone.0008310.

30.   Tonoki, A., Kuranaga, E., Tomioka, T., Hamazaki, J., Murata, S., Tanaka, K., and Miura,
M. (2009). Genetic evidence linking age-dependent attenuation of the 26S proteasome
with the aging process. Mol. Cell. Biol. *29*, 1095-1106. 10.1128/MCB.01227-08.

31.   Klionsky, D.J., Abdel-Aziz, A.K., Abdelfatah, S., Abdellatif, M., Abdoli, A., Abel, S.,
Abeliovich, H., Abildgaard, M.H., Abudu, Y.P., Acevedo-Arozena, A., et al. (2021).
Guidelines for the use and interpretation of assays for monitoring autophagy (4th
edition)(1). Autophagy *17*, 1-382. 10.1080/15548627.2020.1797280.

32.   Bartlett, B.J., Isakson, P., Lewerenz, J., Sanchez, H., Kotzebue, R.W., Cumming, R.C.,

Harris, G.L., Nezis, I.P., Schubert, D.R., Simonsen, A., and Finley, K.D. (2011). p62,
Ref(2)P and ubiquitinated proteins are conserved markers of neuronal aging, aggregate
formation and progressive autophagic defects. Autophagy *7*, 572-583.
10.4161/auto.7.6.14943.

33. Oka, M., Suzuki, E., Asada, A., Saito, T., Iijima, K.M., and Ando, K. (2021). Increasing
neuronal glucose uptake attenuates brain aging and promotes life span under dietary
restriction in Drosophila. iScience *24*, 101979. 10.1016/j.isci.2020.101979.

34. Zia, A., Pourbagher-Shahri, A.M., Farkhondeh, T., and Samarghandian, S. (2021).
Molecular and cellular pathways contributing to brain aging. Behav Brain Funct *17*, 6.
10.1186/s12993-021-00179-9.

35. Haigis, M.C., and Yankner, B.A. (2010). The aging stress response. Mol. Cell *40*, 333-344.
10.1016/j.molcel.2010.10.002.

36. Wek, R.C. (2018). Role of eIF2alpha Kinases in Translational Control and Adaptation to
Cellular Stress. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol *10*. 10.1101/cshperspect.a032870.

37. Currais, A., Fischer, W., Maher, P., and Schubert, D. (2017). Intraneuronal protein
aggregation as a trigger for inflammation and neurodegeneration in the aging brain.
FASEB J. *31*, 5-10. 10.1096/fj.201601184.

38. Grimm, A., and Eckert, A. (2017). Brain aging and neurodegeneration: from a
mitochondrial point of view. J. Neurochem. *143*, 418-431. 10.1111/jnc.14037.

39. Bond, S., Lopez-Lloreda, C., Gannon, P.J., Akay-Espinoza, C., and Jordan-Sciutto, K.L.
(2020). The Integrated Stress Response and Phosphorylated Eukaryotic Initiation Factor
2alpha in Neurodegeneration. J. Neuropathol. Exp. Neurol. *79*, 123-143.
10.1093/jnen/nlz129.

40. B'Chir, W., Maurin, A.C., Carraro, V., Averous, J., Jousse, C., Muranishi, Y., Parry, L.,
Stepien, G., Fafournoux, P., and Bruhat, A. (2013). The eIF2alpha/ATF4 pathway is
essential for stress-induced autophagy gene expression. Nucleic Acids Res. *41*, 7683-7699.
10.1093/nar/gkt563.

41. Salton, G.D., Laurino, C., Mega, N.O., Delgado-Canedo, A., Setterblad, N., Carmagnat,
M., Xavier, R.M., Cirne-Lima, E., Lenz, G., Henriques, J.A.P., and Laurino, J.P. (2017).
Deletion of eIF2beta lysine stretches creates a dominant negative that affects the
translation and proliferation in human cell line: A tool for arresting the cell growth. Cancer
Biol Ther *18*, 560-570. 10.1080/15384047.2017.1345383.

42. Lee, S., Nahm, M., Lee, M., Kwon, M., Kim, E., Zadeh, A.D., Cao, H., Kim, H.J., Lee,
Z.H., Oh, S.B., et al. (2007). The F-actin-microtubule crosslinker Shot is a platform for
Krasavietz-mediated translational regulation of midline axon repulsion. Development *134*,
1767-1777. 10.1242/dev.02842.

43.   Wu, Z., Tantray, I., Lim, J., Chen, S., Li, Y., Davis, Z., Sitron, C., Dong, J., Gispert, S.,
934   Auburger, G., et al. (2019). MISTERMINATE Mechanistically Links Mitochondrial
935   Dysfunction with Proteostasis Failure. Mol. Cell *75*, 835-848 e838.
936   10.1016/j.molcel.2019.06.031.

937   44.   Sugiura, A., Nagashima, S., Tokuyama, T., Amo, T., Matsuki, Y., Ishido, S., Kudo, Y.,
938   McBride, H.M., Fukuda, T., Matsushita, N., et al. (2013). MITOL regulates endoplasmic
939   reticulum-mitochondria contacts via Mitofusin2. Mol. Cell *51*, 20-34.
940   10.1016/j.molcel.2013.04.023.

941   45.   Yonashiro, R., Kimijima, Y., Shimura, T., Kawaguchi, K., Fukuda, T., Inatome, R., and
942   Yanagi, S. (2012). Mitochondrial ubiquitin ligase MITOL blocks S-nitrosylated MAP1B-
943   light chain 1-mediated mitochondrial dysfunction and neuronal cell death. Proc Natl Acad
944   Sci U S A *109*, 2382-2387. 10.1073/pnas.1114985109.

945   46.   Takeda, K., Nagashima, S., Shiiba, I., Uda, A., Tokuyama, T., Ito, N., Fukuda, T.,
946   Matsushita, N., Ishido, S., Iwawaki, T., et al. (2019). MITOL prevents ER stress-induced
947   apoptosis by IRE1alpha ubiquitylation at ER-mitochondria contact sites. EMBO J. *38*,
948   e100999. 10.15252/embj.2018100999.

Shinno et. al., Figure 2

Shinno et. al., Figure 3

Shinno et. al., Figure 4

A

Autophagic defects
Protein accumulation
Locomotor dysfunction

Neurodegeneration

eclosion ————————————————→ death
7   14   21   30   (day-old)

Proteome analysis   Proteome analysis

Interaction search   Interaction search

B — 7 day-old

-log10 p-value vs log2 abundance ratio

AttC, ITPR, Ork1, Un93L, Gs1l, Lsp2, Rpn10, Cyp4e2, dally, Gmer, Ppt2, GstZ1, Nubp2, mRpL19
BomBc1, rush, TotA, up, Tim14, OtopLc
AttB, Nmdmc, SERCA, Cyp4p1, FMRFa, Mhc, Cyp12a5, Coq9, ApepP
Sgs5, eIF2β, Ssb-c31a, Amy-d, Edg78E, BthD

C — 21 day-old

drpr, Pde6, Pkn, GstZ1, Ork1, TotC, TotA, Glt, ATP8, 3HIDH
cep290, PGSB1, Gbs-76A, DptA, Hsp22, SmD1, Gld2, BomBc1, Hsp67Bc, Edg78E, trc, Idgf3, AttB
DptA, Gbs-76A, PGRP-SB1, cep290, Amy-d, AttA, His3.3A, Sos
AGO2, Cyp4p1, Septin2, mRpS25, CecA2, hyd, Ance, Paf-AHα, KPBI, Kdm5

D

| | | Abundance Ratio : milton RNAi / control RNAi | |
	Accession	7 day-old	21 day-old
eIF2α	P41374	1.106	0.961
eIF2β	P41375	2.465***	0.753*
eIF2γ	Q24208	0.952	0.952

E control RNAi / milton RNAi
eIF2β — 48 kDa
tubulin — 63 kDa
eIF2β / tubulin (relative ratio) ***

F eIF2β mRNA level (relative ratio) N.S.

G control RNAi / milton RNAi
eIF2α — 48 kDa
tubulin — 63 kDa
eIF2α / tubulin (relative ratio) *

H control RNAi / milton RNAi
p-eIF2α — 48 kDa
tubulin — 63 kDa
p-eIF2α / tubulin (relative ratio) N.S.

I
Cell bodies (Kenyon cells)
Dendrites (Calyxes)
Axons (Lobe tips)

J
control RNAi / milton RNAi eIF2α
control RNAi / milton RNAi p-eIF2α

Cell bodies - eIF2α *
Cell bodies - p-eIF2α ***
Cell bodies - p-eIF2α/eIF2α N.S.

Dendrites - eIF2α ***
Dendrites - p-eIF2α ***
Dendrites - p-eIF2α / eIF2α N.S.

K
control RNAi / milton RNAi eIF2α
control RNAi / milton RNAi p-eIF2α

Axons - eIF2α N.S.
Axons - p-eIF2α ***
Axons - p-eIF2α / eIF2α *

A

control RNAi
milton RNAi

polysome

Absorabance 260nm

10%   Sedimentation   50%

B

Absorbance AUC
(Sedimentation 28%-50%)

***

control RNAi   *milton* RNAi

C

CHX

control RNAi
milton RNAi
control RNAi
milton RNAi

puromycin

180 kDa

75 kDa

48 kDa

25 kDa

actin

48 kDa

puromycin / actin
(relative ratio)

p = 0.400

control RNAi   *milton* RNAi   control RNAi + CHX   *milton* RNAi + CHX

A

B

C

D

E

F

A

B

C

D

Shinno et. al., Figure 8

7 day-old

Accession[a]	Name	Abundance Ratio: (7 days, milton KD) / (7 days, control)	Abundance Ratio P-Value: (7 days, milton KD) / (7 days, control)
Q9V751	Attacin-B	100	1E-17
Q04448	Bifunctional methylenetetrahydrofolate dehydrogenase/cyclohydrolase, mitochondrial	100	1E-17
P22700	Calcium-transporting ATPase sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum type	100	1E-17
Q9V558	Cytochrome P450 4p1	100	1E-17
P10552	FMRFamide-related peptides	100	1E-17
P05661-19	Isoform F of Myosin heavy chain, muscle	100	1E-17
Q9VE01	Probable cytochrome P450 12a5, mitochondrial	100	1E-17
Q7KIN0	Toll-like receptor 7	100	1E-17
Q8MKN0	Ubiquinone biosynthesis protein COQ9, mitochondrial	100	1E-17
Q9VJG0	Xaa-Pro aminopeptidase ApepP	100	1E-17
Q9V8F5	Bomanin Bicipital 1	4.908	1E-17
P07701	Salivary glue protein Sgs-5	2.843	1.99252E-09
O76902	Pleckstrin homology domain-containing family F member 1 homolog	2.836	2.22045E-16
P81641	Alpha-amylase B	2.684	7.44847E-09
P19351-4	Isoform 4 of Troponin T, skeletal muscle	2.66	6.65563E-11
Q9VTJ8	Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit TIM14	2.61	3.54205E-07
P41375	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2 subunit 2	2.465	3.38486E-09
Q9VYB0	Selenoprotein BthD	2.462	2.25579E-08
B7Z0W9	Proton channel OtopLc	2.382	1.71741E-06
Q9VLR5	RNA polymerase II transcriptional coactivator	2.245	6.70245E-09
Q8IN44	Protein Turandot A	2.127	8.38662E-13
P27779	Pupal cuticle protein Edg-78E	2.113	1.00215E-08
Q9W1X8	Probable GDP-L-fucose synthase	0.496	2.12601E-08
P55035	26S proteasome non-ATPase regulatory subunit 4	0.487	5.50158E-11
Q9VHN6	39S ribosomal protein L19, mitochondrial	0.487	0.000551337
Q9VPD2	Cytosolic Fe-S cluster assembly factor NUBP2 homolog	0.46	6.34514E-05
Q9VHD3	Probable maleylacetoacetate isomerase 1	0.432	4.50956E-06
Q94529	Probable pseudouridine-5'-phosphatase	0.416	1.08802E-14
Q27606	Cytochrome P450 4e2	0.398	4.13128E-10
Q24388	Larval serum protein 2	0.378	1.33227E-14
Q9VKH6	Lysosomal thioesterase PPT2 homolog	0.369	2.05225E-06
Q24114	Division abnormally delayed protein	0.307	2.24406E-09
Q95NH6	Attacin-C	0.01	1E-17
P29993	Inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor	0.01	1E-17
Q94526	Open rectifier potassium channel protein 1	0.01	1E-17
Q9Y115	UNC93-like protein	0.01	1E-17

[a] UniProt accession number

21 day-old

Accession[a]	Name	Abundance Ratio: (21 days, Milton KD) / (21 days, Control)	Abundance Ratio P-Value: (21 days, Milton KD) / (21 days, Control)
Q10714	Angiotensin-converting enzyme	100	1E-17
C0HKQ8	Cecropin-A2	100	1E-17
Q9V558	Cytochrome P450 4p1	100	1E-17
P51592	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase hyd	100	1E-17
Q9VMJ7	Lysine-specific demethylase lid	100	1E-17
Q9VXP4	Platelet-activating factor acetylhydrolase IB subunit beta homolog	100	1E-17
Q9VY28	Probable 28S ribosomal protein S25, mitochondrial	100	1E-17
Q9W391	Probable phosphorylase b kinase regulatory subunit alpha	100	1E-17
Q9VUQ5	Protein argonaute-2	100	1E-17
P54359	Septin-2	100	1E-17
P24492	Diptericin A	15.716	1E-17
Q9VVY3	Glycogen-binding subunit 76A	8.986	1E-17
Q70PY2	Peptidoglycan-recognition protein SB1	6.669	1E-17
Q9W0M1	Centrosomal protein cep290	6.526	1E-17
P81641	Alpha-amylase B	5.722	1E-17
P45884	Attacin-A	4.997	1E-17
C0HL66	Histone H3.3A	4.778	1E-17
P26675	Protein son of sevenless	4.696	1E-17
P02515	Heat shock protein 22	4.69	1E-17
Q95NH6	Attacin-C	4.35	1E-17
P17971-1	Isoform A of Potassium voltage-gated channel protein Shal	4.195	1E-17
Q7K1U0	Activity-regulated cytoskeleton associated protein 1	3.271	1E-17
P14199	Protein ref(2)P	3.014	1E-17
Q9VU02	Probable small nuclear ribonucleoprotein Sm D1	2.43	4.91607E-13
Q9VD44	Poly(A) RNA polymerase gld-2 homolog A	2.268	2.6084E-11
Q9V8F5	Bomanin Bicipital 1	2.24	5.16671E-11
P22979	Heat shock protein 67B3	2.223	7.90048E-11
P27779	Pupal cuticle protein Edg-78E	2.192	1.65944E-10
Q9NBK5	Serine/threonine-protein kinase tricornered	2.059	4.15071E-09
Q8MLZ7	Chitinase-like protein Idgf3	2.055	4.61182E-09
Q9V751	Attacin-B	2.038	6.79416E-09
Q9V8M5	Probable 3-hydroxyisobutyrate dehydrogenase, mitochondrial	0.492	7.42952E-09
P84345	ATP synthase protein 8	0.421	1.809E-12
P33438	Glutactin	0.414	6.13731E-13
Q8IN44	Protein Turandot A	0.218	1E-17
Q8IN43	Protein Turandot C	0.195	1E-17
Q9VFI9	cGMP-specific 3',5'-cyclic phosphodiesterase	0.01	1E-17
Q94526	Open rectifier potassium channel protein 1	0.01	1E-17
Q9VHD3	Probable maleylacetoacetate isomerase 1	0.01	1E-17
Q9W0A0	Protein draper	0.01	1E-17
A1Z7T0	Serine/threonine-protein kinase N	0.01	1E-17

7 day-old

Rank	Name	Score	Score (p) [a]	Score (v) [b]	Score (c) [c]
1	Autophagy-related protein signaling pathway	50.394	6.76E-16	0.159	0.11
2	Calcium signaling pathway	47.583	4.75E-15	0.146	0.117
3	Transcriptional regulation by SMAD	44.012	5.64E-14	0.146	0.095
4	GABA signaling pathway	40.706	5.58E-13	0.122	0.123
5	estrogen signaling pathway	37.507	5.12E-12	0.11	0.13
6	Sirtuin signaling pathway	36.87	7.96E-12	0.122	0.095
7	Transcriptional regulation by AP-1	34.874	3.18E-11	0.11	0.107
8	Arrestin signaling pathway	32.84	1.30E-10	0.11	0.092
9	G protein (Gq/11) signaling pathway	30.889	5.03E-10	0.085	0.149
10	Kainate receptor signaling pathway	30.049	9.00E-10	0.073	0.214
11	Transcriptional regulation by C/EBP	29.5	1.32E-09	0.098	0.093
12	Calpain signaling pathway	28.597	2.46E-09	0.11	0.066
13	Phospholipase D signaling pathway	28.344	2.94E-09	0.098	0.084
14	HSP90 signaling pathway	27.188	6.54E-09	0.085	0.104
14	CYP family	27.188	6.54E-09	0.085	0.104
16	Kir3 channel signaling pathway	26.495	1.06E-08	0.061	0.25
17	Estrogen biosynthesis	26.107	1.38E-08	0.061	0.238
18	CaSR signaling pathway	25.39	2.27E-08	0.061	0.217
19	PI3K signaling pathway	24.927	3.14E-08	0.073	0.122
20	PAF receptor signaling pathway	24.555	4.06E-08	0.049	0.4
21	Transcriptional regulation by PPARa	24.398	4.52E-08	0.073	0.115
21	BTK signaling pathway	24.398	4.52E-08	0.073	0.115
23	Transcriptional regulation by STAT	24.076	5.66E-08	0.085	0.077
24	G protein (Gi/o) signaling pathway	24.063	5.71E-08	0.073	0.111
25	PARP signaling pathway	23.742	7.13E-08	0.073	0.107
25	mGluR signaling pathway	23.742	7.13E-08	0.073	0.107
27	Free fatty acid signaling pathway	23.433	8.83E-08	0.073	0.103
28	Kir channel signaling pathway	23.338	9.43E-08	0.061	0.167
29	Oxytocin signaling pathway	23.327	9.51E-08	0.049	0.333
30	Transcriptional regulation by MEF2	22.99	1.20E-07	0.073	0.098
31	S100 family signaling pathway	22.434	1.77E-07	0.073	0.092
32	Transcriptional regulation by FOXO	22.301	1.94E-07	0.073	0.091
33	P2Y signaling pathway	22.172	2.12E-07	0.061	0.143
34	Transcriptional regulation by SRF	21.174	4.23E-07	0.061	0.125
34	ATF4/ATF6/IRE1 signaling pathway	21.174	4.23E-07	0.061	0.125
36	Chemerin signaling pathway	21.082	4.50E-07	0.049	0.235
36	Vasopressin signaling pathway	21.082	4.50E-07	0.049	0.235
38	Serotonin signaling pathway	20.854	5.28E-07	0.073	0.077
39	Transcriptional regulation by HIF	20.834	5.35E-07	0.098	0.043
40	Leukotriene receptorsignaling pathway	20.724	5.78E-07	0.049	0.222
40	CART signaling pathway	20.724	5.78E-07	0.049	0.222
42	MAPK signaling pathway	20.693	5.90E-07	0.085	0.055
43	Transcriptional regulation by RB/E2F	20.543	6.55E-07	0.098	0.042
44	NAD metabolism	20.468	6.89E-07	0.061	0.114
45	ERK signaling pathway	20.425	7.11E-07	0.073	0.073
46	Adenylyl Cyclase signaling pathway	20.303	7.73E-07	0.061	0.111
47	Bile acid signaling pathway	20.141	8.65E-07	0.061	0.109

[a] Score(p) indicates p-value of the pathway.
[b] Score(v) indicates the ratio of "Count" to total molecules associated with the loaded list.
[c] Score(c) indicates the ratio of "Count" to total molecules contained in the pathway.

21 day-old

Rank	Name	Score	Score (p) [a]	Score (v) [b]	Score (c) [c]
1	Histone demethylation	84.198	4.51E-26	0.102	0.425
2	CDK inhibitor signaling pathway	56.497	9.83E-18	0.078	0.295
3	Transcriptional regulation by RB/E2F	46.598	9.39E-15	0.108	0.095
4	Mst(Hippo) signaling pathway)	46.343	1.12E-14	0.09	0.133
5	Transcriptional regulation by androgen receptor	46.078	1.35E-14	0.078	0.178
6	p160 SRC signaling pathway	45.809	1.62E-14	0.078	0.176
7	Transcriptional regulation by SMAD	43.961	5.84E-14	0.09	0.119
8	Autophagy-related protein signaling pathway	41.063	4.35E-13	0.084	0.119
9	Transcriptional regulation by HIF	39.527	1.26E-12	0.096	0.086
10	Nucleophosmin signaling pathway	38.417	2.72E-12	0.054	0.273
11	HSP90 signaling pathway	37.887	3.93E-12	0.066	0.164
12	PAF metabolism	37.562	4.93E-12	0.042	0.5
13	Transcriptional regulation by STAT	37.276	6.01E-12	0.072	0.132
14	Bcl-2 family signaling pathway	36.157	1.31E-11	0.072	0.124
15	Sirtuin signaling pathway	34.782	3.39E-11	0.072	0.114
16	Transcriptional regulation by C/EBP	33.819	6.60E-11	0.066	0.128
17	PIN1 signaling pathway	33.172	1.03E-10	0.06	0.149
18	RSK signaling pathway	30.566	6.29E-10	0.06	0.125
19	Transcriptional regulation by High mobility group protein	29.873	1.02E-09	0.054	0.148
20	BET family signaling pathway	29.656	1.18E-09	0.054	0.145
21	Transcriptional regulation by Myc	28.838	2.08E-09	0.066	0.093
22	Transcriptional regulation by FOXO	28.827	2.10E-09	0.054	0.136
23	PSD-95 family signaling pathway	26.154	1.34E-08	0.048	0.14
24	AKT signaling pathway	25.169	2.65E-08	0.048	0.129
25	Arginine methylation	24.799	3.43E-08	0.048	0.125
26	gp130 signaling pathway	24.25	5.01E-08	0.054	0.096
27	Transcriptional regulation by CREB	23.858	6.58E-08	0.066	0.067
28	Gene regulation by microRNAs (metastasis)	23.852	6.60E-08	0.054	0.093
29	HDAC signaling pathway	23.536	8.22E-08	0.036	0.207
30	Calpain signaling pathway	23.092	1.12E-07	0.06	0.074
31	Transcriptional regulation by IRF	22.738	1.43E-07	0.054	0.085
32	2-Oxoglutarate signaling pathway	22.673	1.50E-07	0.048	0.104
32	14-3-3 signaling pathway	22.673	1.50E-07	0.048	0.104
34	Transcriptional regulation by POU domain factor	22.601	1.57E-07	0.06	0.071
35	Transcriptional regulation by BLIMP-1	22.474	1.72E-07	0.042	0.132
36	Gene regulation by microRNAs (metabolism)	22.39	1.82E-07	0.054	0.083
37	Fatty acid beta oxidation	22.096	2.23E-07	0.042	0.127
38	Transcriptional regulation by RXR	22.08	2.26E-07	0.036	0.176
39	ERK signaling pathway	21.96	2.45E-07	0.048	0.098
40	PARP signaling pathway	21.913	2.53E-07	0.042	0.125
41	Transcriptional regulation by VDR	21.618	3.11E-07	0.054	0.078
42	Transcriptional regulation by p53	21.168	4.24E-07	0.072	0.05
43	Acetylcholine metabolism	21.152	4.29E-07	0.024	0.444
44	Gene regulation by microRNAs (embryonic stem cells)	21.08	4.51E-07	0.036	0.158
45	mTOR signaling pathway	21.048	4.61E-07	0.042	0.115
46	Gene regulation by microRNAs (cancer)	21.04	4.64E-07	0.054	0.09
47	Transcriptional regulation by Ets-1/2	20.724	5.77E-07	0.042	0.111
48	MAPK signaling pathway	20.411	7.18E-07	0.054	0.07
49	Gene regulation by microRNAs (cell cycle)	20.404	7.21E-07	0.036	0.146
50	Transcriptional regulation by p73	20.259	7.97E-07	0.042	0.106