Unravelling a mechanistic link between mitophagy defect, mitochondrial malfunction, and

apoptotic neurodegeneration in MPS VII

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Summary

Progressive neurodegeneration and cognitive disability are prominent symptoms of MPS VII, a

lysosomal storage disorder caused by β-glucuronidase enzyme deficiency. Yet, the mechanism of

neurodegeneration in MPS VII remains elusive thereby limiting the scope of targeted intervention. To

address this, we recently developed a β-glucuronidase-deficient (CG2135^{-/-}) *Drosophila* model of MPS

VII. The CG2135^{-/-} flies exhibited signs of neuromuscular degeneration, including loss of dopaminergic

neurons, and accumulated engorged lysosomes, ubiquitinated proteins and mitochondria in their brains.

These observations, coupled with our current finding that the CG2135^{-/-} flies were highly susceptible to

starvation, prompted us to investigate potential defects in the autophagy-lysosomal clearance machinery

in the brain. We found that both autophagy induction and lysosome-mediated autophagosomal turnover

were impaired in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brain. This was evidenced by lower Atg8a-II levels, reduced Atg1

and Ref(2)P expression along with accumulation of lipofuscin-like inclusions and multilamellar bodies.

Interestingly, mitophagy was also found to be defective in their brain, causing buildup of enlarged

mitochondria with distorted cristae and reduced membrane potential. This, in turn, affected

mitochondrial function as reflected by drastically reduced brain ATP levels. Energy depletion triggered

apoptosis in neuronal as well as non-neuronal cells of the CG2135^{-/-} fly brain, where we also detected

apoptotic dopaminergic neurons. Resveratrol treatment, previously found to protect against loss of

dopaminergic neurons in the CG2135^{-/-} flies, has now been shown act by correcting the mitophagy

defect and preventing ATP depletion. Collectively, our study establishes a causal link between

mitophagy defect, mitochondrial malfunction, and apoptotic neurodegeneration in MPS VII.

Introduction

Mucopolysaccharidosis VII (MPS VII) is a recessively inherited lysosomal storage disorder caused by mutations in the *β-glucuronidase* (*β-GUS*) gene. β-GUS is one of the eleven glycosaminoglycan (GAG)-catabolizing lysosomal hydrolase, deficiency of which results in accumulation of undegraded or partially degraded GAGs in the lysosomes [1,2]. MPS VII patients suffer from progressive multiorgan dysfunction, and most of them eventually succumb to premature death. Common clinical manifestations of MPS VII include, hydrops fetalis, short stature with coarse face and skeletal deformities, heart valve abnormality, hepato-splenomegaly, and recurrent infections [1–3]. Additionally, MPS VII patients also develop a variety of neurological symptoms like mental retardation, limited vocabulary, delayed speech, hearing impairment and restricted movement [3,4]. This indicates that MPS VII patients suffer from neurodegeneration, which was corroborated by autopsy studies showing extensive lysosomal storage in different regions of the patient's brain [5,6]. The MPS VII mouse model also exhibited accumulation of storage vacuoles throughout the brain and signs of neurodegeneration in the hippocampus and cerebral cortex regions that worsened with age [7]. However, the molecular and cellular events that connect lysosomal storage to neurodegeneration in MPS VII are still not well-understood. Without this knowledge, developing a mechanism-based therapy to ameliorate neurological problems of MPS VII patients remains an unmet need. This issue has become even more critical because enzyme replacement therapy (ERT), the only approved treatment for MPS VII patients, despite being successful in alleviating some of the disease symptoms, has not yet been shown to resolve the neurological complications [8,9]. This is most likely due to the limited ability of the infused enzyme to cross the blood brain barrier [9]. All these challenges emphasize the urgent need for an in-depth study of the brain pathology and the mechanism of neurodegeneration in MPS VII that would facilitate exploration of small molecule-based therapy.

Towards this goal, recently we developed the first *Drosophila* model of MPS VII by knocking-out the fly *β-GUS* gene (*CG2135*) [10]. The CG2135^{-/-} fly exhibited progressive locomotor disability, attributed to neuromuscular degeneration. The CG2135^{-/-} fly brain displayed distinctive features like, extensive vacuolation, abnormal buildup of engorged lysosome as well as ubiquitinated proteins and an increased abundance of MitoTracker-positive vesicles. Interestingly, a significant loss of dopaminergic neurons

was also observed in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brain [10]. Dopaminergic neurons are classically known to control

locomotion and their depletion is associated with movement disorders such as Parkinson's disease [11,12].

These initial findings provided us with an excellent platform for delving deeper into the underlying

mechanism of neurodegeneration in MPS VII.

In line with our observation in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brain, Martins *et. al.* previously reported mitochondrial

accumulation in the MPS IIIC mouse brain. Their data also revealed a progressive decline in activities

of some of the respiratory chain enzymes in mitochondria isolated from the MPS IIIC mice brain [13].

Apart from these two MPS disorders, mitochondrial accumulation in brain was also reported in animal

models of few other unrelated lysosomal storage disorders, e.g. Gaucher disease, multiple sulfatase

deficiency and CLN7 [14–16]. In this context, it is worth mentioning that, due to their high energy demand,

neuronal cells rely heavily on mitochondrial quality control to maintain a healthy and efficient pool of

mitochondria. These quality control mechanisms include biogenesis of mitochondria, their

fusion/fission dynamics and selective clearance of damaged mitochondria through the mitophagy

pathway [17]. Aberrations in these processes have been reported to play a role in many neurodegenerative

diseases [18,19]. However, very little is known about the mechanistic link between mitochondrial quality

control in the brain and neurodegeneration associated with MPS disorders in general, and MPS VII in

particular.

In this study, we systematically investigated the causes and consequences of abnormal buildup of

mitochondria in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brain to better understand the mechanism of neurodegeneration in

MPS VII. We initially focused on the autophagy-lysosomal clearance pathway in the brain to check if

any defect in this machinery led to inefficient turnover of mitochondria. This notion was fuelled by our

previously reported observation of aberrant autophagy in the CG2135^{-/-} larvae [20]. A similar defect was

also reported in β-GUS deficient chondrocyte cell line [21]. Autophagy is a coordinated cellular waste

disposal system in which cell debris is packed into double-membrane autophagosome vesicles and

targeted to lysosome for degradation and recycling [22]. The process involves a series of autophagy-related

genes (Atg) and proteins which are regulated by various physiological cues [23]. Apart from bulk

autophagy, there are specialized forms of autophagy such as ER-phagy or mitophagy, via which

damaged cellular organelles are specifically degraded [19,24]. We first suspected a gross autophagy defect

in adult CG2135^{-/-} flies when they were found to be highly susceptible to starvation. Following this lead,

we confirmed that autophagy is indeed compromised in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brain. Further probing

uncovered that the process of mitophagy was also impaired in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brain, resulting in the

accumulation of abnormally large mitochondria with deformed cristae structure and decreased

membrane potential. Consequently, ATP levels dropped significantly, triggering extensive apoptotic cell

death in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brain, including dopaminergic neurons. Treatment with resveratrol, previously

shown to prevent loss of dopaminergic neurons in the CG2135^{-/-} flies, has now been found to protect

the CG2135^{-/-} fly brain from mitophagy defect and ATP exhaustion. Our findings thus established a

mechanistic link between mitophagy defect, mitochondrial malfunction, and apoptotic

neurodegeneration in MPS VII.

Results

Defective autophagy-lysosome clearance system in CG2135^{-/-} fly brain

During initial characterization of the MPSVII fly (CG2135^{-/-}), we observed an abnormal accumulation

of MitoTracker-positive puncta and ubiquitinated proteins in their brain, indicating a potential defect in

the lysosome-mediated cellular clearance system [10]. In a follow-up study, we reported aberrant

autophagy in the CG2135^{-/-} larvae [20]. These findings prompted us to analyze the status of autophagy in

the adult CG2135^{-/-} fly, specifically in its brain, to better understand the mechanism of

neurodegeneration in this fly model. Autophagy pathway is known to be activated as a protective

response to nutrient starvation [25]. Studies with various model organisms have established that an

autophagy defect results in enhanced susceptibility to starvation [26–28]. Taking cue from these reports, we

compared the starvation sensitivity of the adult CG2135^{-/-} flies with their age-matched wild-type

counterparts. For this, we took wild type (W^{1118}) and CG2135^{-/-} flies of different age groups (young flies

- 4 days old, middle-aged flies - 15 days old and old flies - ≥ 30 days old) and subjected them to a no-

food condition. The percentage survivability was analyzed every 12 hours by counting the number of

surviving flies (Figure 1A). The survival curves, as well as the mean survival time (MST) under starved

condition, clearly showed that the CG2135^{-/-} flies were more susceptible to starvation than the wild type

flies at all ages (Figures 1B-1D). This data strongly indicated that the adult CG2135$^{-/-}$ flies could be

suffering from an autophagy defect. We then shifted our focus to a detailed analysis of the autophagy

status in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain. For this, we collected the wild type and CG2135$^{-/-}$ flies of different age

groups (4-days old to 45-days old) and examined the level of Atg8a, the *Drosophila* homolog of

mammalian LC3, in their brains. Atg8a is considered as a reliable marker for autophagy as it gets

recruited to autophagosome vesicles in its phosphatidylethanolamine (PE) conjugated form [29].Our

western blot data clearly showed a marked reduction in the Atg8a-II levels (the PE-conjugated form of

Atg8a that correlates with the autophagosome abundance) in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain as compared to

their wild type counterparts across all age groups. Notably, the differences in brain Atg8a-II levels

between the wild type and the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly progressively increased with age (Figures 2A and 2B).

Consistent with this finding, immunofluorescence staining of whole fly brains with an Atg8a antibody

showed a significant reduction in the Atg8a-positive autophagic vesicles in 30-days old CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly

brain compared to age-matched control (Figures. S1A-F). In this context, it is worth noting that although

there was no significant difference in the Atg8a transcript levels between the wild type and the CG2135$^{-/-}$

fly brains, the Atg8a-I protein level (the non-autophagosome bound form of Atg8a) was also found to

be reduced in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brains (Figures S1G – S1I). To ascertain the reason behind the reduced

abundance of autophagosomes in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain, we checked the status of the Ref(2)P, the fly

homologue of the mammalian autophagic cargo adapter protein p62/SQSTM1 [30]. As evident from our

whole-brain immunofluorescence staining and western blot data, the Ref(2)P protein level in the

CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain was significantly less as compared to the wild type flies of similar age (Figures 2C

– 2I). To study if lowering of the Ref(2)P protein level is due to transcriptional downregulation, we

analyzed the Ref(2)P mRNA level by RT-qPCR and found reduced by ~ 40% in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain

(Figure 2J). This prompted us to also check the expression of Atg1, one of the important autophagy

initiation genes [31]. Interestingly, almost 60% decline in the transcript level of Atg1 was observed in the

CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain as compared to their age-matched wild type counterparts (Figure 2K). Collectively,

these data indicate that a defect in the autophagy induction might be the underlying reason behind the

reduced abundance of the autophagosomes in the old CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain. We also noticed that in stark

contrast to the wild type flies, the optical lobe and midbrain region of the 45-days old CG2135$^{-/-}$ flies

exhibited distinctive autofluorescence when imaged in the FITC channel (Figures 2L – 2N). Such

autofluorescent puncta are reminiscent of lipofuscin, the storage granules of undegraded lipids and

misfolded proteins that accumulate in the lysosomes of postmitotic neurons [32]. Accumulation of

lipofuscin is a hallmark of ageing and also has been reported in many neurodegenerative diseases [33–35].

This intriguing finding prompted us to further analyze the tissue architecture of the fly brains using high

resolution transmission electron microscopy (TEM). Our TEM images revealed that compared to the

wild type flies, the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brains contained very few double-membrane autophagosome vesicles

but instead had an abundance of multilamellar bodies (MLBs) with whorl-like structures (Figures 2O–

2S). Abnormal accumulation of MLBs has been observed in a variety of lysosomal storage disorders,

resulting from dysfunction of lysosomal hydrolytic activity [34,36,37]. Considering all these findings, it is

evident that both autophagy induction and lysosome-mediated autophagosomal clearance were

impaired in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain.

Abnormal accumulation of enlarged and damaged mitochondria in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain

One of the unexplained pathological features of the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain is the increased accumulation

of MitoTracker-stained puncta [10]. Upon further analysis, we noted that in the 30-days old CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly

brain there was a significant increase in the MitoTracker staining intensity (by ~ 1.9 folds) as well as

the size of the MitoTracker-positive puncta (by ~ 1.3 folds) compared to the wild type fly brain (Figures

3A-3F). The level of the mitochondrial protein ATP5A was also significantly elevated in the CG2135$^{-/-}$

fly brain, as revealed from our western blot analysis (Figure S2). Taken together, these data indicated

an increased abundance of mitochondrial mass in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain. To gain deeper insights, we

next performed ultrastructure analysis of the mitochondria in the 45-days old fly brains using TEM

(Figures 3G and 3H). Examination of the TEM images revealed that compared to the wild type fly brain,

there was ~ 1.6 folds increase in the average mitochondria size in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain (0.27 μm^2 vs.

0.43 μm^2) (Figure 3I). Percent frequency distribution analysis of the mitochondria size further revealed

that the smaller mitochondria (< 0.2 μm^2) were much more abundant in the wild type fly brain compared

to their CG2135$^{-/-}$ counterparts (~ 46% in the wild type vs. ~ 17% in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain). In contrast,

the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain had an increased number of enlarged mitochondria of sizes ≥ 0.4 μm^2 (~ 21%

in the wild type vs. ~ 44% in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain). Abundance of intermediate sized mitochondria

(0.2 μm^2 - 0.4 μm^2) was also slightly higher in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain than the wild type (Figure 3J).

Aged mitochondria often exhibit distorted cristae structure and are found to be functionally

compromised [38]. This prompted us to methodically examine the mitochondrial ultrastructure from the

TEM images and categorized them into healthy, intermediate-damaged, and damaged mitochondria

based on the integrity of their cristae structure (Figures 3K-3M). Our analysis revealed that in the wild

type fly brain, over 70% of the mitochondria were healthy with orderly packed cristae, whereas, the

percentage of healthy mitochondria in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain was only ~ 45%. In contrast, the CG2135^{-}

$^{/-}$ fly brain exhibited a higher abundance of the damaged and intermediate-damaged mitochondria

compared to their wild type partners (damaged: 30% in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ vs. 14% in the wild type,

intermediate damaged: 25% in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ vs. 14% in the wild type) (Figure 3N). Having confirmed

the abundance of enlarged and damaged mitochondria in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain, our next goal was to

understand its cause and functional consequences.

Impaired mitophagy in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain

Mitochondria are particularly susceptible to oxidative damage due to continuous ROS production

during cellular respiration. As a cellular cleansing mechanism, the damaged mitochondria are

eliminated through the process of mitophagy, a specialized form of autophagy [17,18]. In this context, it is

important to note that impairment of mitophagy has been reported in several age-related

neurodegenerative diseases [19]. These prior reports, combined with our finding that autophagy is

suppressed in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain, led us to investigate whether these flies also suffer from a

mitophagy defect. For this, 45 days old fly brains were co-stained with LysoTracker (green) and

MitoTracker (red), and the mitophagy status was analysed by quantifying the extent of colocalization

of lysosomes and mitochondria from confocal images. Data presented in Figures 4A-4H clearly shows

that, compared to the wild type flies, there was a significantly reduction in the lysosome-mitochondria

colocalization in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain, indicating a mitophagy defect in these flies. This was further

corroborated by our TEM images, which showed fewer autophagosome-engulfed mitochondria in the

45-day-old CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain compared to their wild type counterparts (Figures 4J and 4L). As an

alternative approach to analyse mitophagy, we isolated the mitochondria-rich fraction from 45 days old fly brains and checked for the presence of Atg8a -II, an autophagosome-associated protein, in that fraction. Our western blot data showed that the Atg8a -II protein levels in the mitochondria-rich fraction isolated from the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain was significantly lower than in the age-matched wild type flies (Figures 4M-4O). Taken together, our data suggest that impaired mitophagy is the reason behind the accumulation of enlarged and damaged mitochondria in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain. This prompted us to investigate the mitochondrial function in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain, particularly in terms of ATP production.

CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly suffers from brain energy deficit

Mitophagy plays a neuroprotective role by maintaining mitochondrial homeostasis, thereby ensuring sufficient ATP supply for proper brain function [39,40]. Since mitochondrial membrane potential ($\Delta\Psi$m) is a key indicator of functionally active mitochondria and is essential in driving ATP synthesis, we used JC-1 dye to analyse $\Delta\Psi$m in the mitophagy-deficient 45 days old CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain. JC-1 is a lipophilic green fluorescent monomeric dye that accumulates within the mitochondria in a potential-dependant manner and forms aggregates (J-aggregate) shifting its fluorescence property to red. The red-to-green fluorescence ratio of the JC-1 dye is often used to measure to $\Delta\Psi$m [41]. Compared to the age-matched wild type flies, we observed > 40% reduction in the red-to-green fluorescence ratio in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain, indicating a significant decrease in $\Delta\Psi$m in these flies (Figures 5A-5G). Strikingly, the ATP levels in the 45 days old CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain was found to be reduced by >50% than in the wild type fly brain (Figure 5H). This data indicates that the older CG2135$^{-/-}$ flies suffer from severe brain energy deficit, which may be the trigger for neurodegeneration in these flies. ATP is produced in the mitochondrial inner membrane by the enzyme ATP synthase, which utilizes the proton gradient across the mitochondrial membrane as the driving force for generating ATP [41]. It has been reported that if $\Delta\Psi$m is compromised for some reason, ATP synthase reverses its direction acting as an ATP-consuming enzyme to translocate protons from the mitochondrial matrix to the intermembrane space. In such situations, the expression of ATPase Inhibitory Factor 1 (ATPIF1) is upregulated to prevent wasteful ATP expenditure by inhibiting the ATP synthase activity [42]. Consistent with these findings, we observed a significant

upregulation of ATPIF1 transcript level in the 45 days old CG2135^{-/-} fly brain, suggesting that ATP

synthase activity is indeed inhibited in these flies, possibly to counteract further depletion of ATP levels

(Figure 5I).

Increased apoptosis in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brain

We previously reported prominent signs of neurodegeneration, including loss of dopaminergic neurons,

in the CG22135[-/-] fly brains [10]. However, the mechanism underlying this neurodegeneration is far from

clear. Since mitochondrial damage and ATP depletion have been reported to induce apoptotic cell death

in both neuronal and non-neuronal cells [43–45], we checked the status of apoptosis in the energy-deficient

45 days old CG2135^{-/-} fly brain. Our western blot data clearly showed that the CG2135^{-/-} fly brains had

significantly elevated levels of cleaved-caspase-3, a key mediator of apoptosis (Figures 6A an 6B) [46].

Interestingly, co-immunostaining of the fly brains with antibodies against cleaved-caspase-3 and ELAV

(a pan-neuronal marker) [47] revealed that both neuronal (ELAV-positive) as well as non-neuronal (ELAV-

negative) cells in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brain showed signs of apoptosis (Figure S3). These findings were

corroborated by transcript analysis of the proapoptotic factor Hid[48], which showed ~ 2.4 folds

upregulation in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brain compared to their age-matched counterparts (Figure 6C). For

direct visualization of DNA fragmentation in apoptotic cells, we next performed TUNEL staining in

whole mount brains. We observed ~ 2.8 folds increase in the abundance of TUNEL-positive cells in the

45 days old CG2135^{-/-} fly brains compared to the wild type fly brains (Figures 6D-6L). When the brains

were co-stained with anti-Tyrosine Hydroxylase antibody (to mark the dopaminergic neurons) and

TUNEL (to mark the apoptotic nuclei), we observed that ~ 18% of the dopaminergic neurons in the

CG2135^{-/-} fly brains were TUNEL positive, as compared to only ~ 2% in the wild type flies (Figures

6M-6S). Collectively, these data suggest that apoptosis plays a key role in neurodegeneration in the

MPS VII fly.

Resveratrol treatment corrects mitophagy defect and prevents ATP loss in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brain

We previously reported that resveratrol treatment reversed the locomotor deficit in the CG2135^{-/-} fly

and protected against loss of their dopaminergic neurons [10]. But how these abnormalities were corrected

by resveratrol remained a mystery. To evaluate the mechanism of resveratrol action, we treated the

CG2135$^{-/-}$ flies with it for 30-45 days starting from day 4 post-eclosion. We then assessed the status of

Atg1 transcript and the level of mitochondrial protein ATP5A in the brain. We found that Atg1 transcript

level, which was significantly downregulated in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain, was completely restored to the

normalcy in the resveratrol-treated CG2135$^{-/-}$ flies (Figure 7A). The elevated ATP5A level in the

CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain was also reduced to the to the basal level upon resveratrol treatment (Figures 7B

and 7C). Most importantly, resveratrol treatment protected the CG2135$^{-/-}$ flies from brain energy deficit

by completely restoring their ATP levels (Figure 7D). From our data, it can be conjectured that

correction of mitophagy defect and restoration of ATP levels in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain upon resveratrol

treatment is the mechanistic basis for its neuroprotective effect.

Discussion

Despite being known as a debilitating disease with prominent neurological symptoms, the mechanism

of neurodegeneration in MPS VII remains poorly understood. The work presented here aimed to bridge

this knowledge gap by employing a *Drosophila* model of the disease (the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly). We report a

gross defect in the autophagy-lysosome clearance pathway in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain, which also

manifested as impaired mitophagy. As a consequence, there was an accumulation of structurally

deformed and functionally compromised mitochondria leading to bioenergy deficit in the brain and

apoptotic neurodegeneration. We also demonstrated that mitophagy defect and brain energy deficit in

the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly could be corrected by treatment with resveratrol, providing a potential explanation for

its neuroprotective property.

Autophagy is crucial for maintaining cellular homeostasis by clearing cytotoxic protein aggregates and

damaged organelles, a process especially vital for post-mitotic cells like neurons in the central nervous

system (CNS) [22,49]. In fact, defective autophagy has been linked with neurodegenerative diseases like

Alzheimer's, Parkinson's, and ALS [49]. Lysosomal storage disorders (LSDs) such as multiple sulfatase

deficiency, Gaucher disease and mucolipidosis type IV, often exhibit neurodegeneration in brain with

impaired autophagy [14,15,34]. Despite these studies, the status of autophagy in the MPS VII brain remained

completely unexplored. Even for other MPS disorders, there is hardly any systematic study on brain

autophagy. We, therefore, took up this challenge following the lead from our earlier observation of

defective autophagy in the CG2135^{-/-} larvae [20]. Also, in the present study, the adult CG2135^{-/-} flies were

found to be highly susceptible to starvation. Since autophagy is typically induced as a survival response

under nutrient starvation, this starvation-sensitivity was an indicator of a global autophagy defect in the

CG2135^{-/-} flies [26,27]. However, as autophagic response is highly tissue-specific and it is known that

starvation-induced autophagy in brain is much less pronounced than in other tissues [50], it was imperative

for us to specifically analyze the autophagy status in the adult CG2135^{-/-} fly brains. A significantly

reduced abundance of Atg8a-II protein, a bona fide marker of autophagosomes, confirmed that

autophagy is indeed altered in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brains. It was interesting to note that the Atg8a-II levels

in the wild type fly brains gradually increased with age, indicating normal autophagy induction but

progressive decline of lysosome-mediated autophagosome turnover leading to autophagosome

accumulation [51,52]. But, the Atg8a-II levels in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brains did not increase with age and

remained almost at the basal level throughout. This result, together with our data demonstrating

significantly reduced expression of Atg1 and Ref(2)P in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brains, suggest impaired

autophagy induction in the MPS VII flies. The process of autophagy is fine-tuned by multilayered

regulation of Atg1/ULK1 initiation factor [53]. Various transcription factors (like ATF4, FoxO3, STAT1,

and ZKSCAN3) and signal transducers (like mTOR and AMPK) have been shown to regulate the

expression and activity of Atg1/ULK1[54,55]. It remains to be seen whether altered expression of any of

these regulatory proteins is responsible for downregulation of Atg1 in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brains.

Atg1/ULK1, once activated, initiates autophagy by phosphorylating its downstream targets leading to

the assembly of Atg12-Atg5-Atg16L1 complex. It acts as a E3 ligase, facilitating lipidation of cytosolic

Atg8a-I/LC3-1 to autophagosome-bound Atg8a-II/LC3-II [51]. So, it is not surprising that under the

condition of suppressed Atg1 expression, Atg8a-II levels remained consistently low at all ages in the

CG2135^{-/-} fly brains. The low transcript as well as protein levels of Ref(2)P in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brains

was rather intriguing. Ref(2)P, the fly orthologue of the mammalian autophagic cargo adaptor protein

p62, usually accumulates when there is a block in the autophagy pathway [56]. However, a contrasting

observation was reported in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) from Gaucher disease

patients, where LC3-II levels as well as p62 transcript were both found to be reduced compared to

PBMCs from healthy donor [57]. This suggest that Ref(2)P/p62 expression and autophagy induction could

be simultaneously impaired under certain conditions, although physiological implication of such

phenomenon is not clear. Ref(2)P/p62 being a TFEB-inducible gene, its reduced expression in the

CG2135^{-/-} fly brains might be a collateral consequence of TFEB downregulation [58]. While TFEB has

been found to be dysregulated in some neurodegenerative diseases [59], its status is not known in any of

the MPS disorders and this remains a future area for investigation.

In addition to stunted autophagy induction, defective clearance of the autophagosomal content was also

evident in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brains, as indicated by accumulation of lipofuscin-like inclusions and

multilamellar bodies (MLBs). Lipofuscin is an intralysosomal autofluorescent material mainly

composed of lipids and misfolded proteins that are resistant to lysosomal degradation. Lipofuscin

accumulation can be aggravated when lysosomal degradation process is hampered, particularly in

certain lysosomal storage diseases such as Batten disease, Tay-Sachs disease and Sanfilippo syndrome

[33,60,61]. Accumulation of concentric multilamellar structures in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brains is another

signature for dysfunctional lysosomal activity, as has been observed in the brains of a *Drosophila* model

of mucolipidosis type IV and fibroblasts form Parkinson's disease patients [34,36,62].

Autophagy being a critical homeostatic machinery in neuronal as well as some non-neuronal cells of

the central nervous system [63–65], blockage in multiple steps of this pathway in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brains

was expected to have deleterious consequences. This notion was validated when we found significantly

reduced mitochondria-lysosome colocalization and fewer autophagosome-sequestered mitochondria in

the CG2135^{-/-} fly brains, indicating a defect in mitophagy, a specialized form of autophagy to remove

damaged mitochondria. As the primary site for cellular energy production, mitochondria are prone to

oxidative damage [18]. This vulnerability is even more pronounced in high energy-demanding tissues like

the brain [66]. To maintain a healthy pool of mitochondria, cells are endowed with a robust mitochondrial

quality control mechanism that comprises two opposing but coordinated processes: mitochondrial

biogenesis, and removal of damaged mitochondria through mitophagy [17,18]. The canonical mitophagy is

mediated by the PINK1-Parkin signalling cascade. In this pathway, PINK1 is stabilized on the

mitochondrial outer membrane, following which it phosphorylates and recruits Parkin, thereby

triggering ubiquitin-dependent mitophagy [17]. In PINK1-Parkin-independent non-canonical mitophagy,

adaptor molecules on the mitochondrial membrane, such as FUNDC1, can directly initiate mitophagy

[67,68]. It has been reported that Atg1/ULK1 plays a vital role in regulating mitophagy through both

canonical and non-canonical pathways by phosphorylating key molecules like Parkin or FUNDC1 [68–

71]. Thus, it can be speculated that reduced Atg1 expression in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brains is responsible, at

least in part, for the observed mitophagy defect. Decreased Ref(2)P levels may also contribute to

impaired mitophagy, as p62/Ref(2)P downregulation has been shown to cause autophagic cargo loading

failure [72]. Furthermore, PINK1-Parkin-mediated mitophagy is reported to depend on p62/Ref(2)P [73],

suggesting that reduced levels of this cargo adapter protein could aggravate the mitophagy defect in the

CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brains.

The mitophagy defect in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brains provided an explanation for the accumulation of

enlarged mitochondria with deformed cristae structure and reduced $\Delta\Psi m$. It is well-documented that

such excessive buildup of damaged mitochondria is a direct consequence of a mitophagy defect,

regardless of the actual cause of the defect [74,75]. It is noteworthy that while signs of autophagy defect

were evident even in the younger CG2135$^{-/-}$ flies, accumulation of damaged and depolarized

mitochondria in their brains could be detected only in the older flies, aged 30 days and beyond. In fact,

the brains of 45 days old CG2135$^{-/-}$ flies were found to be bioenergetically inefficient showing nearly a

50% drop in ATP levels. Such mitophagy deficiency-induced depletion of ATP levels in the brain has

been observed in other neurodegenerative diseases [76,77], but not reported earlier in any of the MPS

disorders. Since $\Delta\Psi m$ is a key driver for ATP synthesis [41], it can be inferred that ATP depletion in the

CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain is primarily due to accumulation of depolarized mitochondria with significantly

reduced ATP-synthesizing ability. Consumption of ATP via reversal of ATP synthase activity, as often

occurs in depolarized mitochondria [42], may further exhaust the ATP levels in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brains.

Robust upregulation of ATPIF1 transcript level in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brains support this possibility.

Under conditions of compromised $\Delta\Psi m$, ATPIF1 is known to act as an inhibitor of ATP synthase

activity, preventing ATP wastage [42].

Depleted level of intracellular ATP is an established determinant of apoptotic cell death [45,78]. Thus, it

was not unexpected that ATP depletion in a high energy-demanding tissue like brain would induce

apoptotic cell death in the CG2135^{-/-} flies. Multiple reports have confirmed that autophagy machinery

plays a crucial pro-survival role and defects in this process predispose cells to apoptosis [79–81]. Therefore,

in addition to ATP depletion, autophagy impairment could be another factor for inducing apoptosis in

the CG2135^{-/-} fly brains. Earlier, we reported a significant loss of dopaminergic neurons in the CG2135^{-/-}

fly brains, which could be mitigated with resveratrol treatment [10]. However, the underlying cause of

this neuronal loss and the mechanism by which resveratrol conferred protection against it remained

unclear. The cause of neuronal loss became evident when we discovered that neuronal cells, particularly

the dopaminergic neurons, are undergoing apoptosis in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brains. This finding mirrors

one of the hallmarks of Parkinson's disease, which is characterized by progressive loss of dopaminergic

neurons via apoptosis [82]. It is worth noting that dopaminergic neurons have a high metabolic demand

due to their extensive axonal network and dopamine secretory activity, making them particularly

vulnerable to energy crisis [83]. Intriguingly, we observed that resveratrol treatment could correct the

mitophagy defect and fully restore ATP levels in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brains, providing a mechanistic

explanation for its neuroprotective property. These findings align with an earlier report demonstrating

that resveratrol provides neuroprotection by safeguarding against rotenone-induced mitochondrial

damage through the enhancement of autophagic activity [84].

Apart from neuronal cells, signs of apoptosis were also found in some non-neuronal cells of the

CG2135^{-/-} fly brains. In *Drosophila* brain, non-neuronal cells are predominantly glial cells, which play

crucial roles in maintaining and protecting neural environment [85]. Whether degeneration of glial cells

also drives neurodegeneration in MPS VII remains an open question. It has been observed that

degenerating glial cells derived from MPS II mice were able to promote neuronal death in a co-culture

condition [86]. Given that the role of mitophagy in glial cells has been implicated in the pathogenesis of

other neurodegenerative diseases [87,88], it may be worthwhile to investigate the contributions of these

cells in neurodegeneration associated with MPS VII and related disorders.

To conclude, the work presented here significantly advances our understanding of the pathogenesis of

MPS VII by uncovering a previously unknown mechanistic link between mitophagy defect,

mitochondrial malfunction leading to brain energy deficits, and apoptotic neurodegeneration. This study

also led to the identification of critical molecular alterations in the autophagy-lysosomal pathway in the

MPS VII fly brains, which may provide novel therapeutic leads for pharmacological interventions. The

promising results with resveratrol treatment in correcting the mitophagy defect and preventing loss of

ATP could be an important first step towards this direction. Since MPS disorders share many

commonalities, our findings are likely to have broader implications in understanding the mechanisms

of neurodegeneration associated with this group of lysosomal storage diseases.

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Author contributions

426 N.M. A.D. and R.D. conceptualized the work and designed the experiments; N.M. and A.D. performed

427 the experiments; N.M. A.D. and R.D. analysed the data; N.M. A.D. and R.D. wrote the manuscript;

428 R.D. supervised the work and acquired the funding.

Declaration of interests

430 The authors declare no competing interests

Supplemental information

432 Figure S1 – S3

Materials and methods

434 All the reagents are enlisted in the resource table.

435   **Key resource table:**

Reagent or Resource	Source	Identifier
Antibodies		
anti-GABARAP [1:1000 (WB), 1:100 (IF)]	Cell signalling technology	Cat no.: E1J4E
anti-Ref(2)P [1:1000 (WB), 1:500 (IF)]	Abcam	Cat no.: ab178440
Anti-ATP5A [1:10000]	Abcam	Cat no.: ab14748
Anti-cleaved caspase-3 [1:750 (WB), 1:75 (IF)]	Cell signalling technology	Cat no.: 9661
Anti-α-tubulin [1:5000 (WB)]	Biobharati	Cat no.: BB-AB0118
Anti-Elav [1:100]	DSHB	Cat no.: Elav-9F8A9
Anti-tyrosine-hydroxylase [1:500]	Millipore	Cat no.: AB152
Goat Anti-rabbit Alexa-488	Thermo scientific	Cat no.: A11008
Goat Anti-rabbit Alexa-568	Thermo scientific	Cat no.: A11011
Goat Anti-mouse Alexa-488	Thermo scientific	Cat no.: A11001
Goat Anti-mouse Alexa-568	Thermo scientific	Cat no.: A11031
Goat Anti-rabbit I_gG-Peroxidase	Sigma Aldrich	Cat no.: A9169
Goat Anti-mouse I_gG-Peroxidase	Sigma Aldrich	Cat no.: A9044
Chemicals		
Vectashield	Vecta laboratories	Cat no.: H1000
MitoTracker	Invitrogen	Cat no.: M7513
LysoTracker DND green	Invitrogen	Cat no.: L7526
JC1	Invitrogen	Cat no.: T3168
TUNEL	Merck	Cat no.: 12156792910
ATP Determination kit	Invitrogen	Cat no.: A22066
Trizol	Ambion	Cat no.: 15596026
cDNA kit	Thermo scientific	Cat no.: AB1453A
DNase	Thermo scientific	Cat no.: 18068-015
SYBR green	Biorad	Cat no.: 1725121
Protease inhibitor cocktail	Sigma Aldrich	Cat no.: S8830
Triton-X100	Sigma Aldrich	Cat no.: T9284
Tween-20	Sigma Aldrich	Cat no.: 93773
S2 media	Gibco	Cat no.: 21720
FBS	Avantor	Cat no.: 97068-085
Penicillin-streptomycin	Gibco	Cat no.: 10378016
Paraformaldehyde	Sigma Aldrich	Cat no.: P6148

Bovine serum albumin	Sigma Aldrich	Cat no.: A2153
Hoechst	Thermo scientific	Cat no.: H1399
Glutaraldehyde	Sigma Aldrich	Cat no.: G7776
Osmium tetroxide	Sigma Aldrich	Cat no.: 75632
Propylene oxide	Sigma Aldrich	Cat no.: 110205
Embed-812	EMS	Cat no.: 14900
DER736	EMS	Cat no.: 13000
NMA	EMS	Cat no.: 19000
DMP-30	EMS	Cat no.: 13600
Uranyless	EMS	Cat no.: 22409
Super Signal West Pico Chemiluminescent Substrate	Thermo scientific	Cat no.: 34580
Resveratrol	Calbiochem	Cat no.: 554325
Oligonucleotides		
dAtg8aF: CGTCGCAAATATCCAGACCG dAtg8aR: GAAGAAGAGGGCATCCTCGG	IDT	NA
dAtg1F: GCCCAACGAACTGAAGTCCTA dAtg1R: TGGCATGTCAACTGGCGAC	IDT	NA
Ref(2)PF: TTCCAGGAGCGCCAGTTAC Ref(2)PR: CGTGCATATTGCTCTCGCAC	IDT	NA
ATPIF1F: CGTAGCGCATCTCGTCTGTA ATPIF1R: AGCTGCTCCCTTTGCTTCTT	IDT	NA
Hid F: GGTACATCCCAAGCGGAGAG Hid R: GGCCAAAACGAAAACGGTCA	IDT	NA

RP49 F: TCTGATGCCCAACATCGGTT RP49 R: TCTCCTTGCGCTTCTTGGAG	IDT	NA
Experimental models/Strains		
W^{1118}	BDSC	
CG2135$^{-/-}$	Bar *et al.*, 2018	NA
Softwares		
Zen lite	Carl Zeiss	Version 3.4.91.00000
Fiji	Software	https://imagej.net/Fiji
Prism8	Software	https://www.graphpad.com/scientific-software/ prism/
LASx	Leica	

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND METHOD DETAILS:

Drosophila strains and maintenance

W^{1118} flies were obtained from the Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Centre at Indiana University, USA.

The CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly used in this study was reported earlier from our lab by Bar *et. al.* [10] and was

maintained by routine outcrossing. W^{1118} and CG2135$^{-/-}$ flies were maintained in controlled density at

25°C under a 12-hour day and night cycle. The standard cornmeal food (corn flour 75g/L, sugar 80g/L,

agar 10g/L, dry yeast 15g/L, and malt extract 30g/L) media was used for raising the flies.

For age-matched flies, flies were allowed to lay eggs after synchronization for 24 hours in a cage setup.

Then the freshly hatched larvae were collected in equal numbers in food vials. After 9-10 days the newly

eclosed flies were collected and used for respective in the experiments. For all the experiments only

male flies were used.

Resveratrol dissolved in 100% ethanol (Merck) was added to liquid cornmeal food at 400 µM

concentration as previously reported [10]. Flies were kept in continuous exposure of resveratrol starting

at day 4 after eclosion till the day of experiment. Resveratrol containing food vials were replaced with

fresh vials every alternative day.

Starvation assay:

Flies from W[1118] and CG2135^{-/-} of 4 days, 15 days, and 30 days old were assayed for their survivability

in no food condition. On the day of the experiment, flies in a cohort of 10 were kept in vials including

a tissue paper soaked in distilled water to mimic no food condition and maintained under a constant

temperature of 25°C with 12 hours dark and light cycle. The number of surviving flies monitored from

their mobility was considered alive or dead and recorded every 12 hours. More than 130 flies were

analysed for the starvation assay, and the experiment was done independently three times. The

percentage of survivability was calculated from the total number of flies and live flies at each time

point. To calculate mean survivability average number of flies that survived was determined [89].

Western blot

For western blot, 5-10 fly heads were homogenized in 1x Laemmli's (for 1ml 2X 0.5M Tris-Cl pH 6.8

0.312ml, SDS 0.05g, glycerol 0.25ml, 1M DTT 50μl) buffer supplemented with 1x protease inhibitor

cocktail and boiled at 100°C for 5 min. An equal volume of the fly lysate was subjected to SDS-PAGE.

Gels were transferred for 1 hour and blocked in 5% skim milk in 0.025% TBST. The primary antibody

incubation was done at 4°C overnight in respective dilutions of antibodies. The secondary antibodies

were incubated after washing for 1.5 hours. After final washing, the blots were developed using Super

Signal West Pico Chemiluminescent Substrate and captured using the ChemiDoc imaging system

(Biorad). α-Tubulin has been used as a loading control. Densitometric analysis of protein bands was

quantified using ImageJ software.

Isolation of mitochondria-rich fraction from fly head

Differential centrifugation was performed to isolate mitochondria from the fly head as described

previously [90]. Briefly, 50 fly heads were crushed gently with a mortar pestle (25 strokes) in 1 ml lysis

buffer containing 250 mM sucrose, 0.1 mM EDTA and 2 mM EGTA. Homogenate was centrifuged at

350g for 3 min to eliminate the tissue debris. The supernatant was centrifuged twice at 1000g to

eliminate the nuclear fraction. The mitochondria containing supernatant were centrifuged at 10000g for

10 min, the pellet was lysed in 1X Laemmeli's buffer and western blot was performed. All the steps

were performed in cold. Fractions were checked for the presence of mitochondrial and cytosolic proteins

determined by immunoblotting with ATP5A and GAPDH, respectively.

RNA isolation and qRT-PCR

Total RNA was isolated from 10-20 heads of W[1118] and CG2135^{-/-} flies using TRIzol reagent following the manufacturer's instruction. 1 μg of RNA was used for DNase treatment and DNA-free RNA was reverse transcribed using a cDNA synthesis kit. Transcript levels of different genes were quantified using this cDNA as the template. Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) was performed with SYBR Green PCR reaction mix (BioRad) using the Biorad real-time PCR system. Target gene expression was normalized to RP49 as the reference gene (endogenous control). The results of quantitative real-time PCR were analysed by the comparative threshold cycle (CT) method [91].

Immunostaining and imaging

Adult brains from W[1118] and CG2135^{-/-} were dissected in S2 media supplemented with 10% FBS, 100 U/ml penicillin and 100 μg/ml streptomycin. The brains were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 30 minutes at room temperature. After fixation, the samples were washed in 0.3% PT (1x PBS + 0.3% triton X-100) and blocked with PBT x GS (0.3% PT+0.5% BSA+ 5% Normal goat serum) for 2 hours. The brains were incubated in primary antibodies at 4°C for 36 hours. Following incubation, the brains were washed 5x with 0.3% PT for 15 minutes under gentle shaking conditions and incubated in secondary antibody for 12 hours at 4°C. The washing steps were repeated and counter-stained with DAPI (1μg/ml). After the final wash for 15 minutes the brains were stored in Vectashield until use in the cold. The mounted brains were imaged in Apotome.2 microscope (Carl Zeiss) or Leica SP8 confocal microscope. The image processing was done using the ZEN blue software from Carl Zeiss and for quantification, ZEN blue software and ImageJ were used. For mean intensity measurement, 15-20 stacks from the Z planes were merged as MIP (maximum intensity projection) and the mean was taken from the multiple ROIs for each field using ZEN blue.

MitoTracker, LysoTracker, and JC-I staining

MitoTracker staining for age-matched flies was done after dissecting the brain in S2 media [10]. The samples were incubated in 500 nM MitoTracker for 1 hour and Hoechst (2μg/ml) with gentle shaking. After incubation 2 quick washes were given with S2 media. The brains were mounted in media and

imaged immediately in Apotome.2 (Carl Zeiss). The intensity of the MitoTracker per unit (1000 x 1000

pixel unit area) area and mitochondrial size were measured using ImageJ software.

For MitoTracker and LysoTracker co-staining, brains were dissected in S2 media. Following dissection

live brains were incubated with 500 nM MitoTracker in S2 media for 30 minutes with Hoechst (2μg/ml)

hour at 25°C with gentle shaking in between. After 30 minutes, fresh Mitotracker along with 100 nM

LysoTracker green and Hoechst was added and incubated for further 30 minutes. After incubation, 2

quick washes were given to remove the excess stain, followed by mounting in S2. The stained brains

were immediately imaged with Apotome.2 40X objective. Colocalization between MitoTracker and

LysoTracker was analysed using ImageJ. Single stacks of Z plane were taken and analysed using the

JaCoP plugin.

For JC1 staining the brains were dissected in S2 media supplemented with 10% FBS. Dissected brains

were incubated with 2 μM JC1 in S2+10% FBS for 45 mins. After incubation, the stain was discarded

and washed quickly with S2+10% FBS. Washed brains were mounted in S2+10% FBS and imaged

immediately using Apotome.2 (Carl Zeiss). The red-to-green ratio was calculated from individual stacks

analysed in ImageJ.

TUNEL staining

To determine the mechanism of cell death in W^{1118} and CG2135$^{-/-}$ TUNEL assay was performed [92]. The

brains were dissected in PBS and fixed in 4% PFA in 0.1% triton for 30mins. Then the samples were

washed 2 times each in 0.1% PT and 0.5% PT for 3 mins. The brains were permeabilized in sodium

citrate at 65°C for 30 minutes followed by three washes in 0.5% PT. The samples were incubated with

the TUNEL mix at 37°C for 3 hours following the manufacturer's instructions. After three washes with

0.1% PT and counter-staining with DAPI, the brains were stored in Vectashield and imaged the next

day in Apotome.2 (Carl Zeiss). Images acquired were processed in ZEN. 15-20 Z-stacks were taken for

MIP and after threshold set for the samples count of TUNEL positive puncta was determined using

ImageJ. The count has been represented per brain.

For co-staining with TH (tyrosine hydroxylase), the dissected brain was first immunostained with anti-TH antibody following the above-mentioned methodology used for the TUNEL staining protocol. The brains were mounted in Vectashield and imaged in 63x oil objective Leica SP8 confocal. TUNEL-positive dopaminergic neurons were analysed and manually counted.

Lipofuscin imaging

Lipofuscin imaging was performed following previously described protocol [93]. Briefly, brains from age-matched flies were dissected in cold phosphate buffer and kept on ice for 20 minutes. Then, they were immediately imaged in Apotome.2 (Carl Zeiss) using the FITC channel (Autofluorescence). The images were processed in ZEN blue. To count the number of autofluorescence bodies, MIP of 15 stacks was taken and the threshold was kept the same for all the samples and analysed in ImageJ.

Tissue preparation and Electron microscopy (TEM)

Briefly, the dissected brains were fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde overnight, followed by post-fixation in 1% osmium tetroxide for 6h. The fixed tissues were dehydrated in a gradient of ethanol (30 to 100%) and finally in propylene oxide. Dehydrated tissues were infiltrated with resin (Embed-812 2ml, DER736 8ml, NMA 8.9ml and DMP-30 0.28ml) overnight. The next day, individual samples were embedded in capsule moulds and kept at 60°C for 48 hours to facilitate hardening. The samples were cut into ultra-thin using Leica Ultramicrotome. Sections of 70nm were negatively stained in uranyless. The images were acquired in Jeol JEM 2100Plus at 200 keV. The samples were analysed using ImageJ to determine the size and number of mitochondria and multilamellar bodies.

ATP quantification

Total ATP was quantified using an ATP determination kit. For each set of measurement, 10-15 fly heads were homogenized in 1X PBS supplemented with 1X PIC in cold. Supernatant collected by centrifuging the homogenate at 20000g for 20 min was used to measure ATP. Total ATP quantified following manufacturer protocol using a standard curve generated with known concentrations of ATP. Total ATP content was normalized per µg of total protein.

Statistical analysis

557 All the experiments were done at least three times independently. All statistical analysis were done using

558 GraphPad Prism. *p*-values ≤0.05 were considered statistically significant as indicated by asterisks:

559 *P≤0.05, **P≤0.01, and ***P≤0.001.

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Figure 1: **CG2135^{-/-} flies are significantly more susceptible to starvation**

(A) Schematic representation of experimental setup for starvation assay.

(B-D) Wild type (WT) and CG2135^{-/-} flies of different ages, as indicated in the figure, were subjected to starvation for varying duration and survival curves were plotted. The filled circles and empty squares represent WT the CG2135^{-/-}, respectively. Mean survivability time (MST) are mentioned at the bottom of each curve. The survival curves as well as the MST values indicate that the CG2135^{-/-} flies were significantly more susceptible to starvation than their wild type counterparts. All experiments were done independently (N=3), total flies analysed: n≥130.

Error bars represent the standard error of mean (SEM). MST means mean survivability time (hours). Asterisks represent level of significance (****$P \leq 0.0001$, **$P \leq 0.01$, *$P \leq 0.05$; Student's *t*-test).

Figure 2: Defective autophagy-lysosome clearance machinery in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain

(A) Western blot of Atg8a showing the protein level of Atg8a-II (14 kDa) from head lysate of wild type (WT) and CG2135$^{-/-}$ of different ages, as indicated in the figure. α-Tubulin (54 kDa) was used as loading control.

(B) The graph represents quantification for Atg8a-II/Tubulin band intensity showing reduced level of Atg8a-II in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ head lysate. (N=3)

(C-F) Immunostaining of Ref(2)P in the 30 days old mid-brain of WT and CG2135$^{-/-}$ with anti-Ref(2)P (green) showing reduced Ref(2)P aggregates in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ brain. Nucleus was counterstained with DAPI (blue).

(G) The bar graph depicting mean fluorescence intensity of Ref(2)P of WT and CG2135$^{-/-}$ brain (N≥4 fly).

(H) Western blot of Ref(2)P (100 kDa) using anti-Ref(2)P from 30 days old WT and CG2135$^{-/-}$ head lysate showing reduced level of the protein in CG2135$^{-/-}$. α-Tubulin (54 kDa) was use as loading control.

(I) The bar graph showing the relative level of Ref(2)P/Tubulin protein (N=3).

(J) Ref(2)P transcript level in 30 days old WT and CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly head was determined by RT-qPCR and normalised to RP49 as housekeeping gene control. (N=3)

(K) Atg1 transcript levels in 30 days old WT and CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly head was determined by RT-qPCR and normalised to RP49 as housekeeping gene control. (N=6)

(L-M) Autofluorescent bodies (detected using the FITC channel) in 45 days old WT and CG2135$^{-/-}$ brain showing an increased autofluorescence in CG2135$^{-/-}$.

(N) Bar graph depicting mean autofluorescence intensity of WT and CG2135$^{-/-}$ brain (N=4).

(O-R) Electron micrograph showing autophagosome and multilamellar bodies from 45 days old WT and CG2135$^{-/-}$ brain. P and R represents magnified images from the respective insets.

(S) Quantification of the number of multilamellar bodies compared between WT and CG2135$^{-/-}$ brain has been represented as a bar graph. Multiple fields were analysed from 3 brains of each genotype. The CG2135$^{-/-}$ had increased number of multilamellar bodies.

All experiments were done independently. Error bars represent the standard error of mean (SEM). Asterisks represent a level of significance (****$P \leq 0.0001$, **$P \leq 0.01$, *$P \leq 0.05$; Student's *t*-test).

Figure 3: Accumulation of enlarged and damaged mitochondria in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain

(A-D) Optic lobes of 30 days old wild type (WT) and CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain stained with MitoTracker red (showing mitochondria in red) and Hoechst (marking the nucleus in blue), indicating mitochondrial accumulation CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain.

(E-F) Quantification of MitoTracker intensity and the size of the MitoTracker positive puncta showing increased mitochondrial mass and puncta size in CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain (N ≥ 5 fly brain).

(G-H) Electron micrographs of 45 days old WT and CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brains. The mitochondria are marked with white arrows are showing the increased number of mitochondria can be seen in CG2135$^{-/-}$ brain.

(I-J) Quantification of the individual mitochondrial area and percent frequency distribution of different sizes showing abundance of larger mitochondria in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain (N=276 mitochondria from 3 independent experiments) compared to age-matched WT fly brain (N=245 mitochondria from 3 independent experiments). Multiple fields were analysed for measuring the size of the mitochondria using ImageJ.

(K-M) Mitochondria observed under TEM were categorized as healthy (K), intermediate (L), and completely damaged (M) based on their cristae structure.

(N) The percentage of healthy, intermediate-damaged, and completely damaged mitochondria was quantified from multiple fields of 3 independent experiments, showing reduced healthy but increased damaged mitochondria in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ brain.

All experiments were done independently. Error bars represent the standard error of mean (SEM). Asterisks represent a level of significance (****$P \leq 0.0001$, **$P \leq 0.01$, *$P \leq 0.05$; Student's t-test).

Figure 4: Impaired mitophagy in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain

(A-H) MitoTracker-LysoTracker co-staining of 45 days old wild type (WT) and CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain (optic lobe region) showing fewer colocalization spots (yellow puncta, indicated with yellow arrows) in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly, indicating reduced mitophagy. Only MitoTracker positive red puncta are indicated with white arrows. Hoechst is (blue) used for counterstaining the nucleus.

(I) Pearsons' colocalization coefficient (PCC) analysis showing reduced LysoTracker-MitoTracker colocalization in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ brain compared to WT (N ≥ 7).

(J-L) Electron micrograph of 45 days old WT and CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brains showing reduced mitochondria-sequestered autophagy vesicle (K) in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain as indicated by white arrow.

(M) Verification of mitochondria-rich fraction isolated from the 45 days old fly head by western blot for mitochondrial protein, ATP5A (55 kDa), and cytosolic marker GAPDH (36 kDa).

(N) The western blot with anti-Atg8a showing reduced Atg8a-II protein in the mitochondria-rich fraction from the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly head. ATP5A was used as the loading control.

(O) The bar graph showing the quantification for the Atg8a-II/ATP5A. N=3

All experiments were done independently. Error bars represent the standard error of mean (SEM). Asterisks represent a level of significance (****$P \le 0.0001$, *$P \le 0.05$; Student's *t*-test).

Figure 5: Reduced mitochondrial membrane potential and ATP levels in the CG2135^-/- fly brain.

(A-F) The optic lobes of 45 days wild type (WT) and CG2135^-/- fly brains were stained with JC-1 dye for assessing the mitochondrial membrane potential (ΔΨm).

(G) The bar graph represents quantification of the red/green ratio showing reduced ΔΨm in CG2135^-/- brain (N ≥ 16)

(H) The bar graph represents quantification of total ATP from 45-days old fly head (N = 3), showing significantly reduced ATP levels in the CG2135^-/- fly brains.

(I) Relative transcript levels of ATPIF1 in 45 days old CG2135^-/- fly head determined by RT-qPCR and normalised to RP49 as housekeeping gene control (N=4).

All experiments were done independently. Error bars represent the standard error of mean (SEM). Asterisks represent a level of significance (**$P \leq 0.01$, *$P \leq 0.05$; Student's *t*-test).

Figure 6: Increased apoptosis in the CG2135^{-/-} fly brain.

(A) Western blot of Cleaved-caspase 3 using anti-Cleaved-caspase 3 antibody showing increased processed form of 22 kDa at 45 days old CG2135^{-/-} fly head compared to the wild type (WT). α-Tubulin (54 kDa) was used as the loading control.

(B) The bar graph showing the relative level of Cleaved-caspase 3/Tubulin. N=3

(C) Relative transcript level of pro-apoptotic gene Hid determined by RT-qPCR and normalised to RP49 as housekeeping gene control (N=3)

(D) TUNEL staining of 45 days old WT and CG2135^{-/-} brain, DAPI (blue) used for marking the nucleus.

(J) The bar graph showing quantification of the TUNEL-positive nucleus showing increased TUNEL-positive cells in CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain. (N=4 fly brain)

(K-P) Co-staining of TUNEL and anti-TH (tyrosine hydroxylase) showing elevated TUNEL-positive dopaminergic neurons in 45 days old CG2135$^{-/-}$ brain. DAPI (blue) was used for counter-staining the nucleus.

(Q) The bar graph representing quantification of apoptotic dopaminergic neurons (TUNEL and TH double positive) in WT and CG2135$^{-/-}$. (N=5)

All experiments were done independently. Error bars represent the standard error of mean (SEM). Asterisks represent level of significance (**$P \leq 0.01$, *$P \leq 0.05$; Student's t-test).

Figure 7: Resveratrol treatment corrects mitophagy defect and prevents ATP loss in the CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly brain.

(A) The bar graph represents the Atg1 transcript level determined by RT-qPCR in 30 days old wild type (WT), CG2135$^{-/-}$ and resveratrol-treated CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly head showing restoration of Atg1 level on resveratrol treatment. The gene expression was normalised to RP49 as housekeeping gene control. (N=6 for untreated WT and CG2135$^{-/-}$; N=3 for resveratrol treated CG2135$^{-/-}$).

(B) Western blot of ATP5A using anti-ATP5A antibody showing restoration of the protein level in the head lysate of CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly compared to untreated WT and CG2135$^{-/-}$ at 45 days.

(C) The bar graph showing quantification of ATP5A/Tubulin protein level in untreated WT, CG2135$^{-/-}$ and resveratrol-treated CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly head. (N=4).

(D) The bar graph represents the ATP level of WT, CG2135$^{-/-}$ and resveratrol-treated CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly head at 45 days. ATP level in CG2135$^{-/-}$ fly head restored to normalcy with resveratrol treatment. (N $\geq$ 3)

All experiments were done independently. Error bars represent the standard error of mean (SEM). Asterisks represent a level of significance (****$P \leq 0.0001$, ***$P \leq 0.001$, *$P \leq 0.05$; Student's t-test).

Figure S1: Reduced Atg8a in 30 days old CG2135^{-/-} fly brain, Related to Figure 2

(A-F) The whole brain of 30 days WT and CG2135^{-/-} was stained with anti-Atg8a (green) and counterstained with DAPI (blue), showing a low Atg8a signal in CG2135^{-/-} brain compared to WT. Images taken in Apotome.2 (Carl Zeiss) and the tiles were reconstructed using Zen software. Scale bar represents 100μm.

(G) The bar graph represents the Atg8a transcript level in 30 days WT and CG2135^{-/-} determined by RT-qPCR normalised to RP49 as housekeeping gene control. (N=3)

(H-I) Immunoblot of Atg8a for 30-day-old head lysate of WT and CG2135^{-/-}. Relative quantification of Atg8a-I/Tubulin intensity from immunoblot and tubulin kept as a loading control. (N=3)

All experiments were done independently. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean (SEM). Asterisks represent a level of significance (**$P \le 0.01$, Student's *t*-test).

Figure S2: Western blot analysis of ATP5A protein, Related to Figure 3

(A-B) Western blot of mitochondrial protein ATP5A followed by quantification of the data shows an increased abundance of ATP5A in ≥30 days CG2135^{-/-} fly brain sample, suggesting increased accumulation of mitochondria. (N=6)

All experiments were done independently. Error bars represent the standard error of mean (SEM). Asterisks represent a level of significance (***$P \leq 0.001$, Student's *t*-test).

Figure S3: Accumulation of cleaved caspase3 positive cells in 45 days old CG2135⁻/⁻ fly brain, Related to Figure 6

(A-H) Co-immunostaining with anti-Cleaved caspase 3 and anti-ELAV showed ELAV positive cells (pan-neuronal) are Cleaved caspase 3 positive cells (white arrow). A few non-ELAV cells are also Cleaved-caspase 3 positive (yellow arrow).

(I-J) Zoomed image showing ELAV positive (white arrow) pan-neuronal as well as non-Elav (yellow arrow) cells are cleaved caspase 3 positive suggesting a global apoptosis activation.