Characterization Eclosion Hormone Receptor function reveals differential

hormonal control of ecdysis during *Drosophila* development.

Valeria Silva[1,§], Robert Scott[2], Paulina Guajardo[1], Haojiang Luan[2], Ruben Herzog[3]

Benjamin H. White[2], and John Ewer[1,3]

[1]Instituto de Neurociencias, and Centro Interdisciplinario de Neurociencia de Valparaíso,

Universidad de Valparaíso, Valparaíso, Chile

[2]Laboratory of Molecular Biology, National Institute of Mental Health, NIH, Bethesda,

Maryland, USA

[3] Université de la Sorbonne, Institut du Cerveau - Paris Brain Institute - ICM, Inserm,

CNRS, Paris, France.

[§] Current address: Centre for Neural Circuits and Behaviour, The University of Oxford,

Oxford, UK

[3]Corresponding author.

Email: john.ewer@uv.cl

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ABSTRACT

Neuromodulators and peptide hormones play important roles in regulating animal

behavior. A well-studied example is ecdysis, which is used by insects to shed their

exoskeleton at the end of each molt. Ecdysis is initiated by Ecdysis Triggering Hormone

(ETH) and Eclosion Hormone (EH), which interact via positive feedback to coordinate the

sequence of behavioral and physiological changes that cause exoskeleton shedding.

Whereas the cell types targeted by ETH are well characterized, those targeted by EH

have remained largely unknown due to limited characterization of the EH receptor (EHR).

A gene encoding an EHR has been described in the oriental fruit fly, *B. dorsalis*, and in

the desert locust, *Schistocerca gregaria*. However, little is known in these species about

its expression pattern and its precise role at ecdysis, and no other insect EHRs are known.

Here we analyze CG10738, the *Drosophila* ortholog of the *B. dorsalis* gene encoding

EHR, and show that expressing it in cells confers sensitivity to EH. In addition, mutations

of CG10738 specifically disrupt ecdysis, phenocopying the knockout of the EH gene.

Together, these results indicate that CG10738 encodes the *Drosophila* EHR. As in *B.*

dorsalis, EHR is expressed in the ETH-producing Inka cells; in addition, it is expressed in

many known targets of ETH, including the neurons responsible for the secretion of other

ecdysis-related peptides, such as CCAP and EH itself. Our results from targeted

knockdown and rescue experiments reveal that EHR is required for ecdysis in diverse

cell types and that the role of EHR in different targets differs with developmental stage.

Our findings indicate extensive convergence of EH and ETH signaling and provide an

exemplar of the complex mechanisms by which hormones control animal behavior.

AUTHOR SUMMARY

Hormones and neuromodulators are important regulators of animal behavior. In insects,

one of the best studied behaviors influenced by hormones is ecdysis, which allows the

animal to shed the remains of its exoskeleton at the end of each molt. Ecdysis is controlled

by two key hormones: Ecdysis Triggering Hormone (ETH) and Eclosion Hormone (EH).

Whereas most targets of ETH have been identified, those of EH have remained largely

unknown due to the limited characterization of its receptor, EHR. Previous studies

identified a gene encoding EHR in the oriental fruit fly, *Bactrocera dorsalis*, and in the

desert locust, *Schistocerca gregaria,* but little is known about its expression pattern or its

precise role. Here, we show that CG10738 encodes the *Drosophila* EHR. We found that

EHR is expressed in ETH-producing Inka cells, in neurons that secrete other ecdysis-

related peptides, in addition to other neuronal classes and non-neuronal cells. Targeted

knockdown and rescue experiments revealed that EHR is essential for ecdysis in various

cell types, and that its role can vary depending on the developmental stage. Our findings

reveal that the role of EH at ecdysis is complex and provides insights into how hormones

and neuromodulators regulate animal behavior.

INTRODUCTION

Peptide hormones and neuromodulators are one of the most diverse groups of signaling

molecules found in animals [1]. These small chains of amino acids have diverse functions

both within and outside the central nervous system (CNS) in regulating a wide range of

processes that that include metabolism, stress responses, circadian rhythms, locomotion,

sleep, feeding, learning, memory, and social interactions [2-10]. They also play a role in

regulating developmental processes such as insect metamorphosis, growth, and

reproduction [11]. Through their multifaceted roles, peptide hormones and

neuromodulators have profound effects on the physiology and behavior of organisms,

highlighting their significance as essential modulators of neural communication [12, 13].

Determining the mechanisms by which peptides control behavior is challenging due to

the complexity of their actions. Indeed, they operate at different levels, involving various

signaling pathways and cellular processes. They can act rapidly or over prolonged

periods, and they may exert localized or widespread actions, affecting the entire CNS,

specific neurons, as well as targets outside the CNS [13-17]. The synergistic actions of

multiple peptides in interconnected networks further complicates efforts to understand

their complex roles in behavior and physiology.

Ecdysis provides a unique system in which to investigate the mechanism of peptide action

and the complex neuromodulation of a stereotyped behavior. This essential sequence of

behavioral and physiological events occurs in all arthropods, where it is used to shed the

remains of the old exoskeleton at the completion of each molt, and to then inflate, harden,

and pigment the exoskeleton of the next stage. This innate behavior includes three

distinct and highly stereotyped phases: pre-ecdysis, ecdysis, and post-ecdysis, each

characterized by specific timing and coordinated movements [18, 19]. Any disruption or

alteration in these ecdysis phases can have severe consequences including death.

Ecdysis is controlled by a complex interaction of neuropeptides and peptide hormones

acting in a sequential order on the CNS [18, 20, 21]. Our current understanding of the

endocrine bases of ecdysis proposes that ecdysis is initiated by the release of Ecdysis

Triggering Hormone (ETH) from epitracheal cells (Inka cells) and of Eclosion Hormone

(EH) from the ventromedial neurons (Vm) in the brain. These two peptides trigger each

other's release, establishing an endocrine positive feedback that causes the sudden and

near-complete release of both peptides [22-24] and provides an unambiguous, all-or-

nothing, endocrine signal that triggers ecdysis. ETH and EH then act within the CNS, and

previous work has provided information on the identity of many of the neurons that

express the ETH receptor (ETHR) as well as on their timing of activation [25, 26]. Thus,

ETH acts on neurons that express the neuropeptides, Crustacean Cardioactive Peptide

(CCAP), Myoinhibitory Peptide (MIPs), Bursicon, FMRF-amide (FMRFa), and Leucokinin,

as well as on a large number of other peptidergic and non-peptidergic targets [19, 26, 27].

Although it is known that the actions of EH are not limited to causing ETH release but that

it also acts within as well as outside of the CNS to control ecdysis [28, 29], the identity

and function of the EH targets are not known.

Here, we focus on the role of EH at ecdysis by identifying and characterizing the neurons

and cells that express the EH receptor (EHR) in *Drosophila*. First, we confirmed that EHR

is encoded by the CG10738 gene, the ortholog of a gene in *B. dorsalis* previously

identified as an EHR [30]. We then used the Trojan exon technique [31] to generate an

EHR-GAL4 driver and Split Gal4 hemidrivers, which we used to determine the expression

pattern of the receptor and the function of EH targets as well as their pattern of activation

during ecdysis. As expected, EHR is expressed in ETH-producing Inka cells. In addition

it is expressed in the Vm neurons, which produce the EH neurohormone, suggesting that

EH may participate together with ETH in an endocrine feedback mechanism that

regulates EH release. EHR is also expressed in CCAP neurons, as well as many other

neurons that express ETHR, revealing a convergence of the EH and ETH signaling

systems. We found that disabling EHR function, silencing, or killing all EHR-expressing

cells, was lethal at larval ecdysis, phenocopying the deficits of *Eh* null mutants [28]. By

contrast, in some cases silencing EHR expression in specific subsets of cells only

affected pupal or adult ecdysis, suggesting the existence of stage-specific EH targets or

of targets that are essential only to ecdysis to a particular stage. Finally, we found that

restoring EHR function in subgroups of EHR-expressing cells rescued normal ecdysis

only partially and in a stage-dependent manner, suggesting that normal ecdysis may

require EHR expression in diverse cell types, whose relevance may vary across different

molts. Our findings underscore the complexity of the neuroendocrine control of ecdysis

and enhance our understanding of the mechanisms by which neuropeptides function and

modulate animal behaviors.

RESULTS

CG10738 gene function is required for EH-induced ETH release from Inka cells.

Previous research in the Oriental fruit fly, *Bactrocera dorsalis*, provided strong evidence

that a gene homologous to the *Drosophila* CG10738 gene encodes an EH receptor

expressed in the Ecdysis Triggering Hormone (ETH)-producing epitracheal "Inka" cells

[30]. To determine whether this receptor guanylyl cyclase has EHR activity, we

determined whether genetic lesions in CG10738 (see Fig. S1) affected the ability of

synthetic EH to trigger the release of ETH from "Inka" cells *in vitro*, which are known EH

targets [22]. As shown in Fig. 1A and quantified in Fig. 1F (see also Table S3), we found

that trachea from control (w^{1118}) 1st instar larvae at the dVP stage (double Vertical Plate;

approximately 25 min prior ecdysis to the 2nd instar; [32]) challenged with 1 nM of synthetic

EH released ETH from epitracheal cells in amounts similar to the near complete depletion

of ETH that is seen in control animals at the end of ecdysis (Fig. 1C). By contrast, no such

release was observed (Fig. 1B) in trachea from larvae *trans*-heterozygous for a genetic

deletion, *Df(3L)Exel9017* (called here *Df(3)EHR*) which includes CG10738, and either a

Minos insertion within exon 4 of CG10738 (called here *Mi{EHR}*) or a Trojan GAL4 driver

in which GAL4 was inserted in the intron between exons 10 and 11, which was designed

to interrupt the CG10738 gene (called here EHR-GAL4)(Fig. S1). A similar result was

obtained in intact mutant animals examined 2h after dVP stage (Fig. 1D and quantified in

1G; see also Table S3).

Mutations in EHR cause lethal phenotypes during ecdysis behavior.

We next evaluated the behavior of animals *trans*-heterozygous for the *Minos* insertion in

CG10738 or the GAL4 insertion in CG10738, and *Df(3L)Exel9017*. As summarized in Fig.

2, these mutant animals expressed at ecdysis phenotypes similar to those observed in

Eh null animals [28]. Indeed, they spent at least four times longer performing ecdysis-like

behaviors compared to controls (w^{1118}); they also did not express the pre-ecdysial phase

of the behavior, and the majority failed to shed their old cuticle, often dying trapped within

the old exoskeleton, and expressing the "buttoned-up" phenotype (Fig. 2A, B; see also

Table S3) first described for ETH mutants [32]. Overall, approximately 80% of EHR

mutant larvae failed to survive the first ecdysis (Fig. 2E). Although most mutant larvae

(~70%; Fig. 2C) completely filled their trachea with air, they took approximately 25 min to

do so in contrast to approximately 1 minute for control animals (Fig. 2D). The ca. 20% of

animals of either EHR mutant genotype that succeeded in shedding their old cuticle

eventually all died during the 2nd to 3rd larval ecdysis or during the pupal ecdysis.

Importantly, both the behavioral and the tracheal defects of these mutant combinations

were substantially rescued by expressing CG10738 in the EHR-expressing cells using a

Trojan exon GAL4 driver inserted in gene CG10738 (Fig. 2; Table 2 and Table S3).

The lethal phenotype exhibited by CG10738 mutants during ecdysis (Fig. 2) and the

requirement of EHR function in ETH cells for the release of ETH upon stimulation with

synthetic EH (Fig. 1), provide direct evidence that CG10738 encodes the *Drosophila* EH

receptor (EHR). The similarity of the EHR mutant phenotypes to those exhibited by

animals lacking a functional EH gene further suggests that this is the only EH receptor in

Drosophila.

CG10738-expressing cells are necessary for larval, pupal, and adult, ecdysis.

To determine the role of cells expressing CG10738 during larval, pupal, and adult ecdysis

we first examined the consequences of inactivating or ablating all EHR-expressing cells

using the inwardly rectifying potassium channel, *Kir2.1* [33], or the apoptotic inductor,

reaper [34], respectively. In both cases we observed that virtually all larvae exhibited

severe ecdysis deficits, including an extended locomotory phase, an absent or atypical

pre-ecdysis phase, and an ecdysial phase that lasted at least 10 times longer than normal

and was ultimately unsuccessful (Fig. 3A, D; cf. Table S3), with larvae dying trapped

within their old cuticle with severe deficiencies in tracheal air filling (Fig. 3B-C). We also

used the TARGET system [35] to conditionally inactivate the CG10738-expressing cells

24h before pupal and adult ecdysis and found that this also caused a lethal phenotype

during the corresponding ecdysis (Fig. 3E, F). Similarly, activation all the EHR-expressing

cells using the temperature-sensitive cation channel, *TrpA1*, for two hours prior to pupal

or adult ecdysis caused 100% lethality (Fig. S2). These results demonstrate that

CG10738-expressing cells are essential for larval, pupal, and adult ecdysis. They also

suggest that the timing and the sequence of activation of EH targets is critical for the

proper orchestration of ecdysis.

EHR is expressed in ETH-producing Inka cells, in tracheal cells, in the CNS, as well

as in other tissues, during all developmental stages.

We used EHR-GAL4 to identify cellular targets of EH. Importantly, we found that EHR is

expressed in ETH-producing Inka cells (Fig. 4A-C), consistent with our previous results

showing that EH-induced ETH release from these cells requires EHR function (Fig. 1).

EHR is also expressed in tracheal cells (Fig. 4D-E), where it plays an essential role in the

rapid inflation of the new tracheal tubes that occurs at ecdysis (Figs. 2,3; [36, 37]). We

also observed that EHR is expressed throughout all developmental stages in some body

wall cells (Fig. S3C, E) and in the proboscis of the adult (Fig. S3E). Finally, we observed

EHR expression in leg imaginal discs (Fig. 4F), which are associated with Keilin's organ.

Interestingly, cells that ring Keilin's organ have been reported to express EH [29], which

suggests a developmental signaling between this sensory structure and the developing

leg.

We also found that EHR is broadly expressed in the larval (Fig. 5) and pharate adult (Fig.

6) CNS. In particular it is expressed in CCAP neurons at both stages (Figs. 5B, 6B), which

was also expected based on work from other insects [38]. By contrast, EHR expression

in EH-producing Vm neurons (Figs. 5C, 6C) was not expected, and suggests that the EH

neuropeptide may participate together with ETH in controlling EH release.

We then used Split Gal4 hemidrivers to further identify neurons that expressed EHR (for

these drivers, GAL4 activity is reconstituted only in cells that express both a GAL4 DNA

binding domain and a transcription activation domain, thereby making them intersectional

tools). Using this tool, we further confirmed EHR expression in neurons expressing CCAP

(Fig. 5D, 6D,D') and in Vm neurons (Fig. 5E; 6E, E'; arrows), both of which also express

the ETH receptor [26], as well as in the Dl EH neurons of the adult (Fig. 6E; arrowheads).

We also found that EHR is expressed in neurons that express the ETH receptor (ETHR,

isoforms A and B) (Fig. 5I-K, 6I,I'-K,K'), thereby revealing a notable level of convergence

between the signaling of EH and ETH. In addition, we found that EHR is expressed in

neurons that express the CCAP receptor (CCAP-R) (Fig. 5F, 6F,F'), and the bursicon

receptor, *rickets* (*rk*) (Fig. 5H, 6GH,H'), which are receptors of peptide hormones that act

downstream of EH and ETH [17]. Bursicon itself is co-expressed in a subset of CCAP-

expressing neurons, which, as expected, express EHR (Fig. 5G, 6G,G'). These results

reveal that EH may control ecdysis through both feed forward and feedback mechanisms.

Finally, the use of split GAL4 drivers showed that EH targets also include glutamatergic

and cholinergic neurons (Fig. 5L-M, 6L,L'-M,M').

Downregulating EHR in specific subsets of EHR-expressing cells causes lethal

phenotypes.

In order to determine the function during ecdysis of EHR in specific subsets of EH targets,

we knocked-down EHR expression in different cell types. To do so we expressed EHR

RNAi under the control of different GAL4 drivers (Table 1) and evaluated the effects on

larval, pupal, and adult ecdysis. We found that knockdown of EHR with the broadly-

expressed *tubulin*-GAL4 driver caused significant lethality at larval stages (failure at

ecdysis from 1st to 2nd instar and 2nd to 3rd instar was 47% and 95%, respectively), with

the few (4) remaining 3rd instar larvae failing to ecdyse to the pupal stage. Overall, few of

the spatially more restricted GAL4 drivers tested caused significant ecdysial defects when

used to knockdown EHR expression (Table 1). Exceptions to this were GAL4 drivers

expressed in peptidergic neurons (*C929*-GAL4 which drives expression in *dimmed*-

positive peptidergic neurons; [39, 40] and secretory cells (*386Y*-GAL4; [41]), the ETH

cells and EH neurons, and tracheal cells (*btl*-GAL4), each of which yielded ecdysis deficits

$\geq$ 20% at least one stage. Interestingly, the impact of the knockdown was not uniform

across developmental stages, and differences occurred even between the seemingly

equivalent first and second larval ecdyses. Thus, for instance, knockdown of EHR in ETH

cells caused most animals (69%) to fail at the second to third instar larval ecdysis,

whereas no effect was observed at the first ecdysis. Similarly, knockdown of EHR in

trachea significantly affected pupal and adult ecdysis, but did not affect larval ecdysis.

Whether these results reveal stage-specific differences in the control of ecdysis or are

simply the result of varying knockdown efficiency is unknown. (Knockdown efficiency may

vary with driver strength, which itself may vary with developmental stage. Differences in

driver strength likely account for such effects as EHups-GAL4 causing more severe

phenotypes than the more widely expressed EHpan-GAL4 driver driver.) Interestingly,

knockdown of EHR using *n-syb*-GAL4 (neuron-specific driver) and *386Y*-GAL4 had no

effect on larval ecdysis but caused 100% failure at pupal ecdysis. This result suggests

that larval ecdysis may also require EH actions outside of the CNS. In this regard, it is

interesting to note that somatic sources of EH have previously been implicated in the

control of larval ecdysis [29]. Expression of EHR RNAi in CCAP neurons did not block

eclosion but caused wing expansion defects in over half of the animals, consistent with

the fact that CCAP is not essential for ecdysis in *Drosophila*, but is co-expressed with

bursicon, which controls wing inflation [42, 43]. Interestingly, although there is substantial

expression of EHR in ETHR positive neurons, we observed only modest defects in

animals bearing knockdown of EHR in ETH targets, suggesting that EH may reinforce the

response to ETH, but is not essential for ecdysial success. Finally, knockdown of EHR in

CCAP-R- and *rk-* expressing cells had no overt effect on ecdysis. Thus, although the

expression pattern of EHR suggests that EH may act on downstream elements of the

ecdysial cascade, any such feedforward action appears not to be essential for successful

ecdysis.

We were intrigued to observe EHR expression in body wall cells and in the proboscis

(Fig. S3C, E) because sensory neurons play a role at *Drosophila* pupation [44], and the

cibarial pump is activated at adult emergence in the moth, *Manduca sexta* [45].

Interestingly, EHR knockdown using GAL4 drivers expressed in several different

subgroups of sensory neurons (Ir25a, Ir7g, and 410-Gal4) impaired ecdysial success in

more than 10% of animals at least one developmental stage.

Peptidergic neurons expressing EHR are sufficient to rescue ecdysis behavior in

EHR-mutants animals.

In order to identify subsets of EHR-expressing cells that may play a critical role in the

control of ecdysis behavior, we investigated whether expression of EHR in particular

subsets of EH targets was sufficient to rescue the ecdysial failures caused by disabling

EHR function. For this, we determined whether expressing EHR using different GAL4

drivers could rescue the defects of animals mutant for EHR (mutant animals used were

trans heterozygous for *Df(3)EHR*, and either *Mi{EHR}* or *EHR*-GAL4). These results are

summarized in Table 2 and Fig. 8. As expected, expression of EHR using the EHR-GAL4

driver resulted in high levels of rescue (86-88% for larval ecdyses, and over 90% success

rate in subsequent ecdyses). By contrast, most other drivers tested produced limited

rescue. Overall, the most effective drivers were *C929*-GAL4 and *386Y-GAL4*, which are

expressed in peptidergic or secretory cells, respectively; of these, only *C929*-GAL4

rescued adult ecdysis, albeit only modestly. In addition, the results obtained were many

times stage-dependent and were greater for larval than for pupal or adult ecdyses, again

suggesting that some EH targets are preferentially involved in the control of some of the

fly's ecdyses. A caveat is that just as the absolute levels of knockdown are difficult to

evaluate due to the possible confounding effect of driver strength, the levels of rescue

obtained using different GAL4s are also difficult to compare quantitatively. For this reason

we identified drivers that produced "substantial rescue" based on whether they produced

levels of rescue that were greater than those seen in EHR mutant controls.

EHR-expressing neurons show a complex pattern of activity during fictive pupal

ecdysis.

In order to visualize the pattern of activity induced in EH targets at ecdysis, we used

synthetic ETH to stimulate the excised pupal CNS from animals expressing GCaMP6s

under the control of the EHR driver (as described in [25]). Figs. 7A-C and Supplementary

Video 1 shows the timecourse of activation of all individual EHR-expressing neurons after

hormonal stimulation *in vitro*. We observed that most neurons were active only during the

presumed ecdysial phase (min 10 to 30 of the recording), although a small group of

neurons became active earlier (which might correspond to the pattern of activity of fictive

pre-ecdysis) and others became active later, which might correspond to fictive post

ecdysis. Thus, as has been observed previously [19, 25], different targets of ecdysial

peptides respond at different times following the simultaneous stimulation with ETH,

revealing that a complex pattern of neuronal activity is set in motion following the sudden

release of the triggering neuropeptides, ETH and EH.

Early Activation and Elevated Functional Coupling of CCAP Cells in the EHR

Population

In order to understand the temporal dynamics within the EHR-expressing cell population,

we asked whether specific neuronal populations became active earlier and displayed

stronger functional coupling to the overall pattern of activity. To this end, we defined six

groups of neurons based on their position (Fig. 7B; Left and Right, which are likely made

up mostly of CCAP neurons; Central Left [CEN L], Central Right [CEN R], posterior

neurons [POS] and the remaining neurons ['REST']; see Methods for further details) and

computed their population coupling following Okun, *et al.* (2015) [46]. For this, we

calculated for each cell group and across 5 different videos, the cross-correlation function

between its activity and the average activity of the rest of the population (Fig. 7D). The

temporal position (Fig. 7E) indicated whether the cell became, on average, active before

or after the rest of the population and the maximum of this function served as an index of

population coupling strength (Fig. 7F).

Our analysis demonstrated that CCAP cells, and in particular the "Left" subgroup, reached

their peak coupling approximately 90 seconds prior to the activation of the rest of the

network ($p<0.05$, linear-mixed effect model with experiments as random effects). The

"Right" subgroup showed the same trend, but without significant effect ($p=0.17$).

Furthermore, the amplitude of the positive peak was significantly higher for both Left and

Right CCAP subpopulations compared to that of all other EHR-expressing populations

(Bonferroni corrected Wilcoxon rank sums $*p<0.05$).

These findings position CCAP cells as early activators within the EHR population,

exhibiting significantly higher functional coupling that may serve to prime subsequent

population-wide activity. The marked temporal precedence and enhanced coupling of

CCAP cells suggest that they play a critical role in orchestrating coordinated network

dynamics.

DISCUSSION

"Eclosion hormone" activity was described almost 50 years ago [47, 48], and EH has

since emerged as one of the main actors controlling ecdysis behavior in insects. However,

the breadth of its action has remained largely unknown because of the limited

characterization of its receptor. Here, we demonstrate that the gene CG10738 encodes

the *Drosophila* EH receptor (EHR) and show that it is expressed in all the cells and

neurons previously implicated in the control of ecdysis in addition to a large number of

neurons whose identity is mostly unknown. Interestingly, EH targets include the principal

EH-producing neurons, many ETH targets, as well as neurons that are targets of CCAP

and of bursicon, which act downstream of EH and ETH. This pattern of expression

suggests that EH and ETH control ecdysis via complex neuromodulatory feedback and

feedforward loops. The broad importance of EH signaling in the control of ecdysis is

underscored by the phase- and stage-specific effects of manipulations of EHR function in

subsets of EH targets. Thus, whereas some subsets were essential for the proper

execution of all ecdyses, others were required for only pupal and adult ecdysis.

Interestingly, we failed to find small subsets of EHR-expressing targets that were

sufficient to rescue the ecdysial defects of most individuals of a given genotype,

suggesting that many of the EH targets are important for successful ecdysis.

Nevertheless, our findings underscore the relevance for successful ecdysis of EHR

expression in ETH cells, in trachea, and in *dimmed*-expressing peptidergic neurons

(which are defined by the C929 GAL4 driver; [39, 40]).

Although the majority of neuropeptide receptors belong to the G protein-coupled

receptors (GPCRs) family [49], the EH receptor belongs to the family of guanylyl cyclase

receptors (GCR). Previous research by Chang *et al.*, (2009)[30] characterized the GCR,

BdmGC-1, from the Oriental fruit fly, *Bactrocera dorsalis*, and showed that it mediates

robust increases of cGMP following exposure to EH, when expressed in HEK cells. They

also showed that BdmGC-1 is strongly expressed in the epitracheal ETH cells and that

these cells respond with an increase in cGMP-immunoreactivity to an in vitro challenge

with synthetic EH. Recently, Verbakel *et al.* (2024) [50] showed that knockdown of the

locust ortholog of BdmGC-1 causes failures at ecdysis. Our results here confirm that the

Drosophila ortholog of BdmGC-1, CG10738, encodes the *Drosophila* EH receptor and

greatly extend what is known about EHR distribution and function.

Although EH is known to act within the *Drosophila* CNS [28], neuronal targets of EH have

not been identified directly. In many insects, cGMP-immunoreactivity (cGMP-IR)

increases at ecdysis in CCAP neurons [51, 52] This is also true in some dipterans, such

as mosquitoes, but has not been observed in *Drosophila*, where increases in cGMP-IR

have been detected in ETH producing Inka cells [36], but not CCAP neurons [52].

Furthermore, CCAP neurons (and CCAP itself) are not required for larval ecdysis in

Drosophila [53], suggesting that other neurons (in addition to or instead of) CCAP neurons

must express an EH receptor. Here we show that EHR is widely expressed in hundreds

of neurons including CCAP neurons, as well as in the trachea and epitracheal cells. Why

all these targets do not show increases in cGMP at ecdysis remains unknown, but may

be due to the sensitivity of the anti-cGMP antibody [52].

Interestingly we found significant colocalization of EHR and ETHR within the CNS,

revealing that EH and ETH not only coordinate each other's release, but share common

targets in the control of ecdysis. In addition, EHR is expressed in the principal EH-

producing Vm neurons themselves and is also co-expressed with receptors to

neuropeptides that have historically been viewed as acting downstream of EH (such as

bursicon and CCAP). Thus, these results indicate the presence of both feedback and

feedforward loops in EH signaling. Coherent feedforward loops in which both signals

coordinately activate a downstream target are often used to filter transient activation by a

primary signal and delay the onset of full activation [54]. Such features might underlie, at

least in part, the sequential release of neuropeptides during ecdysis and the serial

activation of the different ecdysis phases. In addition, we find considerable convergence

of EH and ETH signaling, including at the Vm and CCAP/bursicon neurons. This

convergence suggests synergistic physiological effects of the two signaling systems on

downstream neurons, perhaps to dynamically regulate excitability, though this remains to

be determined. In any case, the architecture of control revealed here, with EH and ETH

mutually reinforcing each other's release and coordinating each other's downstream

actions, is reminiscent of the architecture of developmental gene regulatory networks, in

which transcriptional determinants establish a regulatory state and then activate

downstream inductive signals [55].

In addition to the CNS, we found that EHR was expressed in the epithelial cells of the

trachea, including cells from the primary tubular branch, secondary branches, and

terminal branches (Fig. 4C, D), and that knockdown of EHR in trachea caused failures at

ecdysis. These findings are consistent with previous reports that showed that ablating the

Vm neurons [37] or disabling the *Eh* gene [28] caused defects in the vital process of

tracheal air-filling that occurs during ecdysis. These defects cannot be rescued by

injections of ETH [36] indicating that they are due to the action of EH and are not due to

the absence of ETH release associated with these genotypes.

Although the identity of all EH targets largely remains to be determined, the relatively

penetrant effects of EHR suppression in sets of peptidergic neurons, as opposed to

neurons that use fast neurotransmitters (see Table 1), suggests that EH signaling is most

important in modulating cells in the ecdysis network above the level of the synaptic

networks that directly generate behavior. This is consistent with a model in which

modulatory interactions regulate behavioral state, which is then translated into the

execution of state-specific motor programs. The fact that both ecdysis motor programs

and the function of subsets of EHR-expressing cells vary with developmental stage

suggests that either the identity or the importance of the downstream factors recruited by

EH changes over development. This plasticity in ecdysis peptide usage is also seen

phylogenetically, with the complement of essential ecdysial peptides varying across

insect species. For example, whereas CCAP and orkokinin are dispensable for ecdysis

in *Drosophila* [53, 56], both are essential in the kissing bug, *Rhodnius prolixis* [57, 58].

The stage-dependent differences in function of both ecdysial peptides and the cell types

that express them in *Drosophila* may, in fact, simply reflect necessary differences in the

control and generation of the ecdysis motor programs that evolved to accommodate

metamorphosis and its attendant changes in body plan [59]. Overall, our results suggest

an intricate interplay between multiple cell types and between multiple neuromodulatory

peptides in regulating ecdysis. Understanding of how this complex behavior is controlled

in *Drosophila* and, potentially, in other species, should contribute to our understanding of

how neuromodulation mediated by neuropeptides regulates animal behaviors.

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

Fly strains

Fly stocks were maintained at room temperature (22-25ºC) on standard cornmeal agar

media under a 12 h light/12h dark regime. Stocks used and their source are listed in Table

S1.

EHR-GAL4 generation

The EHR-GAL4 line was made by inserting a Trojan Gal4 Expression Module (TGEM)

[31] into the intron separating exons 10 and 11 of the CG10738 gene (Fig. S1). Insertion

was targeted to the following site using CRISPR/Cas9:

AAATGTGGGCTGTACTTATT<u>AGG</u> (PAM site underlined). To make the TGEM

construct, homologous arms of 1 kb flanking the Cas9 cleavage site were amplified by

PCR using the following primer pairs synthesized by Integrated DNA Technologies, Inc.

(Coralville, Iowa, USA):

EHR-3NotI: AGTCAG GCGGCCGC AAGTACAGCCCACATTTTGC,

EHR-3AgeI: AGTCAG ACCGGT TGATGGAAGTCCTGGATTCG,

EHR-5SpeI: AGTCAG ACTAGT AATAGGCATCCCCTCGTTGT,

EHR-5AscI: AGTCAG GGCGCGCC ATTAGGTTATTTTAAAGTGCATGCAGAAGG,

The PCR products were cloned into the pT-GEM(0) vector. The resulting plasmid (250-

pGS3-AgeI-NotI-arm-SA-T2AGal4-hsp70-3xP3-RFP-SV40-AscI-EHRarm) was co-

injected with a pBS-U6-sgRNA-ETH plasmid encoding the guide RNA into embryos of

flies expressing germline Cas9 as described previously [31]. Transformants were

identified by their expression of the 3xP3-RFP marker. The EHR Split-GAL4 hemidriver

lines were generated from the EHR-Gal4 strain by ΦC31-mediated cassette exchange as

described in Diao *et al.,* (2015) [31].

UAS-EHR generation

GC10738 cDNA was amplified from *Drosophila* larval CNSs using standard methods. The

entire coding sequence was re-amplified using primers that included XhoI and KpnI sites

at the 5' and 3' ends, respectively. Correct sequence was confirmed and the XhoI-KpnI

fragment (containing the entire CG10738 coding sequence) was cloned into pUAST

transformation vector by Genewiz (New Jersey, USA). Transformants were generated by

BestGene (California, USA).

EH synthesis

Synthetic EH was produced by GenScript (Hong Kong) using the pFastBac baculovirus

expression system. Several constructs were tested with the goal of producing a secreted

protein with high yield. Best results were obtained with a design that included the putative

native signal sequence (vs. the signal sequence of the major envelope glycoprotein,

gp67) and a His-tag at the amino-terminal of the protein. The sequence of the expressed

protein was (putative mature EH sequence underlined):

MNCKPLILCTFVAVAMCLVHFGNAHHHHHHENLYFQG<u>LPAISHYTHKRFDSMGGIDFV</u>

<u>QVCLNNCVQCKTMLGDYFQGQTCALSCLKFK GKAIPDCEDIASIAPFLNALE</u>

Analysis indicated that the protein was not secreted and it was therefore purified from the

cell lysate. It was then aliquoted in 50 mM Tris-HCl, 500 mM NaCl, 5% Glycerol, pH 8.0

at a concentration of 0.25 mg/ml and stored at -20°C.

Stimulation with synthetic EH

Larvae were reared at 25ºC on Petri dishes with fly medium. First instar larvae

approaching ecdysis to the second instar were identified by their double mouth hooks

(dMH), placed on Petri dishes coated with apple juice agar, and monitored until they first

pigmented the plates of the second instar (double vertical plate stage, dVP, approximately

25 min prior ecdysis to the 2nd instar; [32]. Their tracheae were then dissected in PBS and

incubated in Schneider's insect medium (Sigma). All tracheae of the same genotype

dissected within 20 min were pooled; then were challenged either with synthetic EH (1nM

final concentration) or the same volume of water. After 1h incubation at room temperature

the tracheae were fixed and processed for ETH immunoreactivity [32], as described

below. Tracheae from wild type animals prior to ecdysis as well as from larvae post-

ecdysis were included as controls. In the case of animals mutant for EHR (which do not

ecdyse) tracheae were dissected 2h after the dVP stage.

All epitracheal cells were imaged using the same parameters using an Olympus DSU

spinning disk microscope (40x oil objective Olympus). The intensity of ETH

immunoreactivity (ETH-IR) of each epitracheal cell was scored blind and assigned a score

from 0 (no detectable ETH-IR) to 3 (maximal ETH-IR). Thirty to 60 cells were measured

per conditions, representing the tracheae of 3-7 animals.

Immunohistochemistry

Preparations were dissected on Sylgard-coated plates under cold PBS and fixed in 4%

paraformaldehyde for 1h at room temperature or overnight at 4ºC, as previously described

in Clark, *et al.* (2004) [36]. Tissues were then rinsed several times in PBS with 0.3% Triton

X-100 (Sigma) (PBSTX) and incubated in primary antibodies overnight at 4°C with

constant agitation. Then they were washed in PBSTX and incubated in fluorescent

secondary antibodies (Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove, PA) and mounted onto

poly-L-lysine (Sigma) coated coverslips. Primary antibodies used include: rabbit anti-

CCAP ([52]; used at 1:500), rabbit anti-ETH ([32] used at 1:2,000) and rabbit anti-EH

([28]; used at 1:200). For GAL4 lines that produced low GFP signal when driving UAS-

GFP, tissues were processed using anti-GFP (Invitrogen; used at 1:1,000). Preparations

were viewed and imaged under a conventional fluorescent microscope or under an

Olympus DSU spinning disk microscope and analyzed using ImageJ [60].

Survival across the different ecdyses

To quantify the number of animals that successfully completed larval ecdysis, we placed

first instar larvae of the relevant genotype on Petri dishes with regular food and counted

the number of larvae that ecdysed to the second instar. These larvae were transferred to

Petri dishes with new regular food, and we then counted the number of animals that

ecdysed to the third larval instar. We then transferred these larvae to vials with regular

food, where we followed the success of pupal and adult ecdysis. For some genotypes we

preferentially focused on specific ecdyses.

Quantification of larval ecdysis behavior

Larvae were reared at 25ºC on Petri dishes with fly medium. First instar larvae at the dMH

stage were placed on Petri dishes coated with apple juice agar with yeast. At dVP larvae

were transferred individually to a new slightly wet agar Petri dish and video-recorded

under a Leica dissecting microscope (Nussloch, Germany) until they completed ecdysis

or for up to 2h after the time of ecdysis of control animals. Behavioral analysis scored for

the presence or absence of three different phases: "locomotion," consisting of normal

locomotor activity; "pre-ecdysis," consisting of anterior-posterior contractions (AP) and

squeezing waves (SW); and "ecdysis" which started with "biting" behavior and ended with

the final backward thrust, regardless of whether the old cuticle was eventually shed.

"Atypical pre-ecdysis" was defined by partial, weak, or missing AP contractions or SW (as

described previously in Scott, *et al*. (2020) [29]. Quantification of tracheal dynamics

included: (1) the time taken to completely fill the trachea with air; for those animals that

successfully completed that process and, (2) the percentage of animals that completed

the air filling process (if $\geq$ 95% of the trachea filled with air it was considered filled) or

failed.

Quantification of pupal ecdysis and adult eclosion

Flies were reared at 25ºC on standard cornmeal agar media under a 12 h light/12h dark

regime. Pupal and adult ecdysis survival and failure were evaluated as described in Lahr,

et al. (2012) [53]. For experiments using the TARGET system (temperature sensitive

GAL80ts; [35]) or the temperature-sensitive cation channel, *TrpA1* [61], flies were reared

at 18ºC and transferred to 30ºC before pupal ecdysis or adult eclosion (24h hours before

ecdysis for GAL80ts, and 2h for *TrpA1* flies), and ecdysis success or failure was

evaluated.

RNAi screening

Six different UAS-RNAi lines for CG10738 (see Table S2) were crossed with the *tubulin-*

GAL4 line and the severity of the ecdysial defects determined by counting the number of

larvae or pupae showing failures at ecdysis and the number of adults that emerged (see

Table S2). This screen revealed that line CG10738 RNAi-R1 produced the most severe

phenotype and is the one used here; it was always used in combination with UAS-*dicer2*

(UAS-*dcr2*) to boost the effectiveness of RNAi knockdown.

Real-time GCaMP Imaging

In order to record calcium dynamics in *in vitro* CNS preparations, CNSs were dissected

from animals around 2 hours prior to pupal ecdysis under cold 1X PBS and immediately

mounted on a poly-L-lysine coated glass, placed in an Attofluor chamber (Thermo-Fisher

Scientific), and covered with 2 mL of Schneider's insect medium (Sigma). GCaMP6s [62]

signal was recorded using an Olympus DSU spinning disk microscope with a 20X water

objective and a Hamamatsu high sensitivity camera. Preparations were first imaged for 5

min at 0.2 Hz, and preparations showing spontaneous activity were discarded. Synthetic

ETH (600 nM final concentration) or H_2O (control) was added and 5 Z-stacks across the

whole VNC were recorded for one hour at 0.2 Hz, as previously described in Mena, *et al*.

(2016) [25].

Video analysis

Real-time calcium imaging videos were processed using FIJI software (Schindelin et al.,

2012) to create hyperstacks and a maximum intensity projection (template). We then used

the FluoroSNNAP MATLAB program to select all ROIs that corresponded to the center of

each neuronal cell body and followed each of their activity during the 60 min recording

period to create at the time series of fluorescence intensity (Patel et al., 2015).

Calcium traces were normalized by using the previous 50 frames corresponding to 250 s

as baseline, obtaining the dF/F traces (as described in [63] and [64]).

Manual selection of cell types

We analyzed 5 different videos (n= 65.4 ± 10.78 cells; mean ± standard deviation), where

we defined six EHR cell populations: posterior cells (POS, n= 10.2 ± 2.2), Left neurons

(Left, n= 7.8 ± 0.40), Right neurons (Right, n= 6.8 ± 1.3), central cells Left (CEN L, n=

10.4 ± 2.4), central cells Right (CEN R, n= 10.2 ± 2.2) and the rest ("REST", n= 20.20 ±

13). These groups were defined by identity and their position within the VNC considering

a midline that symmetrically separate left and right side of the CNS.

Population coupling function

The functional population coupling function (PCF) of each cell was computed following

Okun, *et al.* (2015) [46]. We computed the lagged-cross correlation function between

each time series of one cell versus that of a 'population' time series, which was obtained

by averaging the activity of all the remaining cells of the population. To then characterize

the level and temporality of the coupling of each cell, the maximum of the function and its

location in terms of temporal lags were extracted. Using this measure, a positive lag

indicates that the population follows a given neuron, whereas a negative lag indicates

that the neuron follows the population activity.

A linear-mixed effect model with experiments as random effects was used to evaluate if

the lags associated with the maximum of the PCF were significantly different from zero.

One model was used for each cell type. Means were estimated from these models, using

the "REST" group as baseline. A Wilcoxon rank sums test was used to perform pairwise

comparisons between the maximum value of the PCF, and the p-values were corrected

by the Bonferroni method (15 comparisons).

Statistics

Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software, La

Jolla, CA, USA) and visualized using Adobe Illustrator. If data were normally distributed

and had equal variance, they were analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by the Tukey

test for *post hoc* multiple comparison analyses. Categorical data were analyzed by Chi-

square or Fisher's exact test. The exact values for each comparison are shown in

Supplementary Table S3.

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FIGURES

Figure 1: Genetic lesions in CG10738 abolish EH-induced ETH release.

(A) Immunoreactivity to ETH (ETH-IR) of epitracheal Inka cells from control animals

(*w^1118^*) before (left) and after (right) *in vitro* stimulation with synthetic EH.   (B) ETH-IR of

epitracheal cells of EHR mutant animals*, Mi{EHR}/Df(3)EHR* (left) and *EHR-*

GAL4/*Df(3)EHR* (right), after *in vitro* stimulation with synthetic EH.　(C) ETH-IR of

epitracheal cells of wildtype (w^{1118}) animals after ecdysis.　(D) ETH-IR of epitracheal cells

of EHR mutant animals, *Mi{EHR}/Df(3)EHR* (left) and *EHR*-GAL4/*Df(3)EHR* (right), 2h

after dVP stage.　(F, G) Quantification of ETH-IR intensity for experiments depicted in

(A) and (B), and (C) and (D), respectively (N: 30-60 ETH cells, corresponding to 3-7 larvae

per group). Data were analyzed by Chi-square test (see Supplementary Table S3). Scale

bar 10μm.

Figure 2: EHR mutant animals fail at the first larval ecdysis.

(A) Duration of the different phases of L1 to L2 larval ecdysis. Timeline has been aligned with respect to the time of tracheal collapse (TC). (B) Representative images of animals after ecdysis (for controls) or their terminal phenotype (for EHR mutants) for (1) Control (*w1118*), (2) *Mi{EHR}/Df(3)EHR*, (3) *EHR*-GAL4/*Df(3)EHR*, and (4) UAS-*EHR; EHR*-GAL4/*Df(3)EHR* (genetic rescue) animals. (C) Percentage of animals that completely filled their trachea with air. (D) Duration of tracheal air filling (for animals that completed this process; N in parentheses). (E) Percentage of animals that failed larval ecdysis (N: 4-10 larvae per condition). Data were analyzed by unpaired *t*-test (A) one-way ANOVA and Tukey multiple comparison (D). Statistically significant differences are indicated by different letters in D (see Supplementary Table S3). Scale bar in (B) 500μm.

Figure 3: Ablating or inactivating EHR-expressing cells causes failures at larval, pupal, and adult ecdysis. (A) Duration of the different phases of L1 to L2 larval ecdysis; timeline has been aligned with respect to the time of tracheal collapse (TC). (B) Representative images of post-ecdysis or terminal phenotype of *EHR>2xKir2.1* and *EHR>rpr* animals; (C) Percentage of animals that failed to fill their trachea with air; (D-F) percentage of animals that failed larval (D), pupal (E), and adult (F), ecdysis. (N: 150-500 per group for E-F). Data were analyzed by unpaired *t*-test (A) (see Supplementary Table S3). Scale bar 500μm

Figure 4: EHR is expressed in the ETH Inka cells, tracheal epithelial cells, and the leg imaginal disc of the third instar larva.

(A) Schematic representation of a larva showing the Inka cells (colored in magenta; four are indicated by black arrowheads), which are located along the dorsal trunks of the trachea. (B, C) EHR expression in Inka cell (white arrowhead) visualized using the membrane-bound form of GFP (B; *EHR*>mcd8GFP) or a nuclear version of RFP (C; *EHR*>nlsRFP), together with ETH-immunoreactivity. (In B, EHR expression in tracheal cells cannot be visualized unless gain is greatly increased, probably because the cells are too large to be strongly labeled with the membrane-bound GFP used; by contrast, they are readily visible using the nuclear reporter used in (C)). (D-E) EHR expression in tracheal epithelial cells visualized using a nuclear localized RFP transgene and counterstained with DAPI (E). (F) EHR expression in leg imaginal disc, labeled using the

809   *escargot* (*esg*)-GFP fusion protein. BF: bright field. Scale bars (B-C,E-F) 100µm, (D)

810   5mm.

Figure 5: EHR expression in the larval CNS.

EHR is expressed in a large number of neurons in the 3rd larval instar CNS (A).   In particular, EHR is expressed in CCAP neurons (B, D) and in Vm (EH) neurons (C, E). It is also expressed in neurons that express the CCAP receptor (CCAP-R) (F); in bursicon (G) and bursicon receptor (*rickets*) neurons (H); in neurons expressing the ETH receptor (ETHR) (I)(both its A (J) and B (K) isoforms); and in cholinergic (ChAT expression; L) and glutamatergic (vGlut expression; M) neurons.   In (A) EHR expression was visualized using *EHR*>GFP; in (B, C), colocalization was established by co-immunolabeling with anti-CCAP (B) and anti-EH (C) antibodies; in (D-M) different subgroups of EHR-expressing neurons were visualized using appropriate "split"-GAL4 hemidrivers (indicated by intersection symbol, "∩") together with UAS-GFP. Scale bar 100μm.

Figure 6: EHR expression in the pharate adult *Drosophila* CNS.

EHR is expressed in a large number of neurons in the pharate adult CNS (A). In

particular, EHR is expressed in CCAP neurons (B, D) and in EH neurons (Vm: C, E and

Dl: E, arrowhead). It is also expressed in neurons that express the CCAP receptor (CCAP-

R) (F); in bursicon (G) and bursicon receptor (*rickets*) neurons (H); in neurons expressing

the ETH receptor (ETHR) (I)(both its A (J) and B (K) isoforms); and in cholinergic (ChAT

expression; L) and glutamatergic (vGlut expression; M) neurons.   In (A) EHR expression

was visualized using *EHR*>GFP; in (B, C), colocalization was established by co-

immunolabeling with anti-CCAP (B) and anti-EH (C) antibodies; in (D-M) different

subgroups of EHR-expressing neurons were visualized using appropriate "split"-GAL4

hemidrivers (indicated by intersection symbol, "∩") together with UAS-GFP. Scale bar

100μm.

Figure 7: Functional population analysis of the time course of activation of EHR

neurons in response to ETH stimulation *in vitro*.

(A) *Left:* Reference image of a pharate pupal CNS showing the area where the CNS

response was recorded. *Right*: representative frames of GCaMP signal recorded *in vitro*

from CNS expressing EHR>GCaPM6s, captured at different times after ETH challenge.

CNSs were imaged for 1h, with images captured at a frequency of 0.2Hz.   (B-F)

Functional population analysis. (B) CNS with different subpopulations of EHR neurons

color coded based on their position: "Left" (dark green) and "Right" (light green), which

are likely made up mostly of CCAP neurons; "Central Left" neurons (orange); "Central

Right" neurons (dark orange); "Posterior" neurons ("POS", blue); and the remaining

("REST") neurons (gray).   (C) Timeseries of GCaMP6s signal following the same color

code used in B. Note the increased calcium activity around ~1000 s (15 min) after

stimulation with ETH (see also Supplementary Video 1). (D) Population coupling function

for the 6 different cell types for the CNS shown in (B) and (C). Solid lines represents the

average for all the cells of the same type and shaded area is the standard error. Positive

lag values means that the population activates after a given cell. (E) Estimated mean

time to peak of the functional population coupling function (PCF) from 5 different

experiments. Asterisk denotes statistically significant differences (* $p < 0.05$) estimated

using a linear-mixed effect model. (F) Estimated mean peak of the PCF. Horizontal lines

denote significant differences using Bonferroni test corrected Wilcoxon rank sum (*

$p < 0.05$) (see details in Table S3). Estimations of means and confidence intervals were

derived using a linear-mixed effect model with experiments as random effects. Error bars

for (E) and (F) are 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 8: Rescue of ecdysial defects obtained by expressing EHR in subsets of EH targets.

Percentage of successful ecdysis from the first to the second (A) and second to the third (B) larval ecdysis, and for pupal (C) and adult (D) ecdysis, when EHR was expressed under the control of the indicated GAL4 drivers in an EHR mutant background. Open bars summarize the phenotype of the different EHR mutants used; the dark grey bars indicate the percentage of rescue obtained expressing EHR under the control of the EHR-GAL4 driver; the light gray and black bars summarize, respectively, the results obtained for genotypes that did not (light gray bars) and did (black bars) produce substantial levels of rescue compared to animals of the corresponding mutant genetic background. Numbers

874 above bars indicate the number of animals examined for that ecdysis. Values and
875 percentages are shown in Table 2.
876
877

878 **Table 1: Percentage of ecdysial failure caused by downregulation of EHR in**
879 **specific subsets of cells.** Drivers causing frequent failures (20% or greater) are
880 highlighted in orange.

GAL4 Driver	L1 to L2	L2 to L3	Pupal	Adult
w[1118] (control)	0% (0/101)	0% (0/73)[1]	0% (0/72)	0% (0/93)
General				
tubulin	47% (73/156)	95% (79/83)	100% (4/4)	N/A[2]
tsh	0% (0/24)	0% (0/48)	4.5% (3/67)	0% (0/64)
Peptidergic cells				
c929	26% (7/27)	29% (23/80)	95% (53/56)	N/A
386Y	1.4% (1/73)	0% (0/108)	100% (122/122)	N/A
sNPF	ok[3]	ok	ok	0% (0/94)
CCAP	0% (0/25)	0% (0/48)	1.7% (2/121)	0% (0/53)[4]
burs	0% (0/85)	0% (0/112)	0.6% (1/175)	1.1% (2/174)
EHups	3.3% (1/30)	39% (19/49)	0% (0/27)	0% (0/27)
Ehpan	9.4% (6/64)	3% (2/67)	1% (1/94)	4.4% (4/91)
ETH	0% (0/118)	69% (59/85)	100% (87/87)	N/A
Neuronal classes				
n-syb	0% (0/19)	0% (0/37)	100% (146/146)	N/A
v-Glut	0%	10% (13/130)	0.9% (1/117)	5.2% (6/116)
ChAT	0% (0/41)	0% (0/56)	0% (0/112)	0.9% (1/112)
DDC	0% (0/26)	0% (0/54)	0% (0/46)	0% (0/51)
ple	0% (0/65)	0% (0/58)	0% (0/117)	0% (0/151)
trhn	0% (0/65)	0% (0/62)	0.6% (1/174)	0% (0/188)
GAD1	ok	ok	ok	0% (0/30)
c164	7.1% (2/28)	0% (0/38)	6.4% (5/78)	2.7% (2/73)
nompC	ok	ok	ok	0% (0/74)
Gr66a			ok	0% (0/146)
109(2)80			ok	0%
Ir20a			ok	0%
Ir8a			ok	0% (0/56)
Smid c161			ok	0% (0/77)
Ir25a	-	20% (32/159)	8.7% (11/127)	5.2% (6/116)
Ir7g	-	14% (42/306)	10% (26/253)	0.8% (2/239)
Ir40a	-	6.9% (10/144)	1.5% (2/134)	3% (4/132)
410-GAL4	-	15% (22/152)	3.8% (5/130)	4% (5/125)
Ecdysis peptide receptors				
ETHR	9.6% (27/280)	13% (32/253)	5% (11/221)	0.4% (1/210)

CCAP-R	ok	ok	ok	0% (0/23)
rk	ok	ok	ok	0% (0/46)
Other cells				
repo	4.8% (2/42)	0% (0/84)	0% (0/94)	7.1% (7/99)
btl	4% (2/50)	0% (0/52)	54% (44/82)	92% (35/38)

[1] Fraction (and associated percentage) indicates the number of animals that failed at that ecdysis (in this

case, fraction of 2nd instars that failed at ecdysis to the 3rd instar).

[2] No animals were obtained at this stage because an earlier ecdysis was lethal.

[3] The genotype of these animals could not be determined until after adult emergence, but no defects were

observed at the larval or pupal stages.

[4] 32/53 (60%) showed abnormal wing expansion.

Table 2: Success of genetic rescue of EHR lethal phenotype by expressing EHR in specific subsets of EHR-expressing cells. Cells marked in green indicate that a substantial rescue was observed (as compared to phenotype of the corresponding mutant control); lighter green indicates possible rescue. These data are also summarized graphically in Figure 8.

Genotype	L1 to L2	L2 to L3	Pupal	Eclosion
% Ecdysis Success in Mutant controls				
Mi{EHR}/Df(3)EHR	25% (133/532)	29% (38/133)[1]	2.6% (1/38)	(1/1)[2]
EHR-GAL4/Df(3)EHR	37% (125/337)	22% (27/125)	7.4% (2/27)	0% (0/2)
UAS-EHR; Mi{EHR}/Df(3)EHR	25% (66/265)	17% (11/66)	9% (1/11)	(1/1)[2]
386Y, Mi{EHR}/Df(3)EHR	27% (30/113)	6.6% (2/30)	0% (0/2)	N/A[3]
% Ecdysis Success with Rescue of EHR function				
UAS-EHR; EHR-GAL4/Df(3)EHR	86% (253/296)	88% (223/253)	92% (205/223)	100% (205/205)
CCAP>EHR; Mi{EHR}/Df(3)EHR	48% (62/130)	37% (23/62)	13% (3/23)	0% (0/3)
ETH>EHR; Mi{EHR}/Df(3)EHR	38% (39/104)	62% (24/39)	4.2% (1/24)	0% (0/1)
EHups>EHR; Mi{EHR}/Df(3)EHR	27% (29/107)	52% (15/29)	0% (0/15)	N/A
Vglut>EHR; Mi{EHR}/Df(3)EHR	39% (76/193)	21% (16/76)	0% (0/16)	N/A
UAS-EHR; 386Y, Mi{EHR}/Df(3)EHR	50% (129/256)	56% (72/129)	32% (23/72)	0% (0/23)
C929>EHR; Mi{EHR}/Df(3)EHR	66% (96/145)	82% (79/96)	17% (13/79)	31% (4/13)
rk>EHR; Mi{EHR}/Df(3)EHR	25% (49/193)	33% (16/49)	13% (2/16)	0% (0/2)
btl>EHR; Mi{EHR}/Df(3)EHR	76% (162/212)	35% (57/162)	0% (0/57)	N/A

[1] Fraction (and associated percentage) indicates the number of animals that ecdysed to the next stage (in this case, fraction of 2nd instars that ecdysed to the 3rd instar).

[2] Due to the low sample number, this outcome is not indicated as "100%" rescue.

[3] Success at this ecdysis could not be evaluated because an earlier ecdysis was lethal.