Title

Bruce suppresses autophagy-regulated caspase activity and wing tissue growth in *Drosophila*

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Abstract

Caspases are cysteine-aspartic proteases that mediate both lethal and non-lethal cellular

outcomes, including the promotion of tissue growth. However, the mechanisms underlying the

differential regulation of these activities remain unclear. We have previously shown that among

the two *Drosophila* executioner caspases, Dcp-1 and Drice, Dcp-1 promotes tissue growth in a

non-lethal manner, independent of canonical apoptotic signaling. Herein, we demonstrated that

overexpressed Dcp-1, but not Drice, was activated without canonical apoptosome components.

TurboID-based proximity labeling revealed distinct proximal proteomes, among which Sirtuin

1, an Atg8a deacetylase, which promotes autophagy, was specifically required for Dcp-1

activation. Autophagy-related genes, including Bcl-2 family members *Debcl* and *Buffy*, are

required for Dcp-1 activation. Structure-based prediction using AlphaFold3 further identified

Bruce, an autophagy-regulated inhibitor of apoptosis, as a Dcp-1-specific regulator acting

outside the apoptosome-mediated pathway. Physiologically, Bruce suppresses wing tissue

growth. These findings indicate that non-lethal Dcp-1 activity is governed by the autophagy-

Bruce axis, enabling distinct non-lethal functions independent of cell death.

Keywords

Autophagy, Caspase, Drosophila, tissue growth, TurboID

Introduction

Caspases are cysteine-aspartic acid proteases that serve as the central executioners of apoptosis. In *Drosophila*, core caspase-mediated signaling for apoptosis is well conserved (Nakajima & Kuranaga, 2017; Shinoda & Miura, 2024). Upon apoptotic stimulation, the pro-apoptotic genes *rpr*, *hid*, and *grim* (*RHG*), which antagonize DIAP-1, an inhibitor of apoptosis protein (IAP), are transcriptionally upregulated. The degradation of DIAP-1 allows the initiator caspase Dronc and its activator Dark to assemble into the apoptosome, thereby triggering a proteolytic cascade that activates the executioner caspases Dcp-1 and Drice, ultimately leading to apoptosis. In addition to their role in apoptosis, caspases perform diverse non-cell death functions collectively termed caspase-dependent non-lethal cellular processes (Aram *et al*, 2017). However, the mechanisms that differentially regulate lethal and non-lethal caspase activity remain largely unknown.

Functional specificity appears to arise at the level of the executioner caspases. Of the two executioner caspases in *Drosophila*, Drice is more potent than Dcp-1 in inducing cell death in wing imaginal discs (Florentin & Arama, 2012). In contrast, Dcp-1 is required for autophagy triggered by starvation or proteasome dysfunction in the ovaries (Hou *et al*, 2008; DeVorkin *et al*, 2014; Choutka *et al*, 2017). We have previously demonstrated that Dcp-1, but not Drice, specifically promotes imaginal tissue growth independent of apoptosome and cell death (Shinoda *et al*, 2019). Mechanistically, we showed that cleavage-mediated inactivation of Acinus, a positive regulator of autophagy (Nandi *et al*, 2014; Haberman *et al*, 2010), which limits tissue growth independently of autophagy (Tyra *et al*, 2020), partly promotes tissue growth (Shinoda *et al*, 2019). However, the upstream regulatory mechanisms that selectively regulate Dcp-1 activity remain unknown.

Proximity labeling has emerged as a powerful approach for comprehensively analyzing molecular interactions, including protein-protein interactions (Qin *et al*, 2021). TurboID

enables the rapid biotinylation of lysine residues on neighboring proteins within 10 minutes in

cultured cells (Branon *et al*, 2018). Streptavidin-based enrichment of these biotinylated proteins,

followed by mass spectrometry, allows the proteome-wide identification of proteins near a

target of interest. We previously generated *Drosophila* lines in which TurboID was knocked in

at the C-termini of Dronc, Dcp-1, or Drice (Shinoda *et al*, 2019). In wing imaginal discs,

TurboID-based labeling has revealed distinct proximity patterns for Dcp-1 and Drice,

suggesting that each executioner caspase is associated with a unique set of neighboring proteins

(Shinoda *et al*, 2019). We have shown that the differences in substrate specificity between Dcp-

1 and Drice were consistent with their distinct proximity profiles in the ovary, as exemplified

by BubR1 (Shinoda *et al*, 2023). Moreover, overexpression of *Fasciclin 3*, a Drice-proximal

protein identified in adult brains, induces non-lethal caspase activation in a Dronc-dependent

manner (Muramoto *et al*, 2025). These findings indicate that caspase-proximal proteins can

function not only as potential substrates but also as regulatory factors.

In this study, we investigated the regulatory mechanisms underlying Dcp-1 activation.

We found that the overexpression of *Dcp-1* induced a wingless phenotype. Using this

phenotype as a functional readout, we found that Dcp-1 activation specifically requires its

proximal protein Sirtuin 1 (Sirt1), Bcl-2 family members Debcl and Buffy, and components of

the autophagy pathway. Notably, the autophagy-regulated giant IAP Bruce specifically

interacts with and regulates Dcp-1 activity without affecting apoptosome-mediated core

apoptotic signaling, thereby suppressing wing imaginal tissue growth. Together, these findings

reveal that Bruce acts upstream to diverge the regulatory pathways of Dcp-1 and Drice, enabling

Dcp-1 to mediate distinct non-lethal functions through autophagy, independent of cell death.

Results

Overexpression of Dcp-1, but not Drice, induces apoptosis

Structurally, the executioner caspases, Dcp-1 and Drice, are similar, each comprising catalytic P20 and P10 domains and a highly disordered N-terminal prodomain (Fig. 1A). First, we assessed the ability of two executioner caspases to trigger apoptosis. Using the *WP-Gal4* driver, the overexpression of *Dcp-1* resulted in a wingless phenotype indicative of apoptotic cell death, whereas the overexpression of *Drice* did not (Fig. 1B), which is consistent with our previous observations in olfactory receptor neurons (Muramoto *et al*, 2025). Next, we examined the apoptotic potential of fluorescently tagged caspases in *Drosophila* S2 cells expressing mNeonGreen (mNG)-fused Dcp-1 or Drice. Dcp-1 expression caused a marked reduction in mNG intensity (Fig. EV1A–C) and a decreased number of mNG-positive cells (Fig. EV1A, D). These effects required Dcp-1 catalytic activity, as the mutation of the catalytic cysteine to glycine restored both mNG intensity and cell number (Fig. EV1A–D). In contrast, Drice expression neither reduced mNG intensity nor decreased the number of mNG-positive cells, resembling the catalytically inactive mutant (Fig EV1A–D). Taken together, these results demonstrate that Dcp-1, but not Drice, is activated upon overexpression and induces apoptosis in multiple cell types.

Dcp-1 activation is independent of the apoptosome composed of Dronc and Dark

Executioner caspases are typically activated by cleavage mediated by the initiator caspase, Dronc, which is activated through the assembly of the Dark-dependent apoptosome (Fig. 1C) (Nakajima & Kuranaga, 2017; Shinoda & Miura, 2024). We previously proposed that Dcp-1 can be activated independently of Dark and Dronc (Shinoda *et al*, 2019). To test this hypothesis further, we analyzed genetic modifiers of the Dcp-1-induced wingless phenotype. A heterozygous mutation in the *H99* deficiency, which encompasses the pro-apoptotic *reaper*, *hid*,

and *grim* (*RHG*) genes, rescued the wingless phenotype caused by *Dcp-1* overexpression (Fig. 1D, F). Similarly, expression of the caspase inhibitor *p35* or knockdown of *RHG* genes also rescued this phenotype (Fig. 1E, F), suggesting that Dcp-1 induces apoptosis in a catalytic activity-dependent manner under the control of RHG proteins. In contrast, knockdown of other core apoptotic components, including Dark, Dronc, and Drice, or overexpression of the dominant-negative form of Dronc (*Dronc^{DN}*) failed to suppress the wingless phenotype (Fig. 1E, F). These findings support our earlier observation that Dcp-1 can be activated independent of the canonical apoptosome composed of Dronc and Dark to mediate non-lethal functions (Shinoda *et al*, 2019). Collectively, these results indicate that, at least under overexpression conditions, Dcp-1 activation proceeds independently of the apoptosome, in contrast to that of Drice.

Dcp-1 and Drice show distinct expression patterns among tissues

Proximal proteins of caspases have emerged as potential regulators of executioner caspase activity (Muramoto *et al*, 2025). We have previously demonstrated that the proximal protein patterns of Dcp-1 and Drice differ even within the same tissue, such as wing imaginal discs (Shinoda *et al*, 2019). Based on this, we sought to identify Dcp-1-specific regulatory factors among its proximal proteins. First, we examined the tissue distribution of *Drosophila* caspases using previously established *Caspase::V5::TurboID* knock-in fly lines (Shinoda *et al*, 2019). Expression patterns were analyzed in larval tissues, including the salivary glands, fat bodies, and brain (Fig. EV2A), with confirmed expression in wing imaginal discs (Fig. 2A) as well as in adult tissues, including the thorax, ovary, and testis (Fig. EV2B). Drice was ubiquitously expressed in all examined tissues. In contrast, Dcp-1 expression was restricted to the larval brain and adult ovaries and testes.

Drosophila executioner caspases associate with distinct sets of proximal proteins

Next, we compared the proximal protein profiles of *Drosophila* executioner caspases, based on our previous observation that Dcp-1 and Drice are associated with distinct sets of proximal proteins, potentially reflecting differences in their activation mechanisms (Shinoda *et al*, 2019). Streptavidin staining, used to visualize proteins biotinylated via TurboID-mediated proximity labeling, revealed distinct patterns of Dcp-1 and Drice expression across tissues (Figs. 2A and EV2A, B). To directly compare their proximal landscapes in the same cellular context, we focused on the imaginal discs. NeutrAvidin-based purification of biotinylated proteins, followed by mass spectrometry, identified 818 proteins (Fig. 2B, C). As expected, the proximal proteomes of Dcp-1 and Drice were distinct. BubR1 and Fasciclin 3 isoform G, previously identified as Drice-proximal in adult brain and ovary tissues (Shinoda *et al*, 2023; Muramoto *et al*, 2025), were enriched in the Drice-associated proteome (Fig. 2C, Table EV1), suggesting that Drice maintains its proximity to specific partners across tissues. Among the top Dcp-1-enriched proximal proteins was the chaperonin containing TCP1 subunit 8 (CCT8). To validate these findings, we generated an antibody against CCT8 (Fig. 2D). Western blotting confirmed the presence of CCT8 in Dcp-1::V5::TurboID samples but not in Drice::V5::TurboID samples (Fig. 2E). Taken together, these results show that, even when expressed at comparable levels in the same tissue, Dcp-1 and Drice are associated with distinct sets of proximal proteins, which is consistent with their differential regulation and functional specificity.

Screening of Dcp-1 proximal proteins identifies Sirt1 as a Dcp-1-specific activator

To identify potential regulators of Dcp-1 activation, we performed an RNAi screen targeting eight genes that were selectively proximal to Dcp-1 relative to Drice and wild-type controls (Dcp-1/Drice fold change > 1.5, Dcp-1/Control fold change > 10 and PSM $\geqq$ 2; Table EV1), using two independent RNAi lines per gene (Fig. 2F). Under normal conditions, RNAi-

mediated knockdown of the chaperonin components *CCT2* and *CCT8* resulted in a wingless

phenotype, whereas knockdown of other genes had no effect (Fig. EV3A). Under *Dcp*-1

overexpression conditions, knockdown of *Fkbp59* or *Sirt1* partially suppressed Dcp-1-induced

cell death (Fig. 2G, Fig. EV3B). The requirement for Sirt1 was further confirmed using a

transheteroallelic combination of two previously described *Sirt1* deletion alleles, *Sirt1*[2A-7-11]

(Xie & Golic, 2004; Furuyama *et al*, 2004) and *Sirt1*[4.5] (Newman *et al*, 2002), which

significantly rescued the wingless phenotype (Fig. 2H, I). These results indicate that the Dcp-

1-proximal protein Sirt1 is required for Dcp-1 activation upon overexpression.

Dcp-1 activation specifically depends on Debcl, Buffy, and autophagy

Sirt1, also known as dSir2, is a lysine deacetylase that promotes the expression of autophagy-

related genes via Atg8a deacetylation under starvation (Jacomin *et al*, 2020). Multiple studies

have linked Dcp-1 to the regulation of autophagy. Dcp-1, together with the Bcl-2 family

proteins Debcl and Buffy, but not Drice, has been shown to be required for starvation-induced

autophagy in *Drosophila* l(2)mbn cells (Hou *et al*, 2008), and Dcp-1 is also required for

autophagy in the ovary (Hou *et al*, 2008; DeVorkin *et al*, 2014; Choutka *et al*, 2017). More

recently, the BH3-only protein Sayonara (Synr) was reported to induce Dcp-1-dependent cell

death, which is regulated by Debcl, Buffy, and autophagy (Ikegawa *et al*, 2023). In contrast, a

gain-of-function modifier screen revealed that autophagy antagonizes Dcp-1-induced cell death

(Kim *et al*, 2010) and that Dcp-1 suppresses autophagy through cleavage-mediated inactivation

of Acinus (Haberman *et al*, 2010; Nandi *et al*, 2014).

Based on these reports, we examined whether Synr, Debcl, Buffy, and core autophagy

components regulate Dcp-1 activation. Knockdown of *Synr* did not suppress Dcp-1-induced

cell death, whereas knockdown of *Debcl* or *Buffy* significantly rescued this wingless phenotype

(Fig. 3A, B). Similarly, knockdown of the autophagy-related genes *Atg2* and *Atg8a* suppressed

Dcp-1-induced cell death (Fig. 3A, B), indicating that Debcl, Buffy, and autophagy are required

for Dcp-1 activation. To assess the specificity of these regulators, we analyzed the eye ablation

phenotype caused by overexpression of *Hid*, which triggers apoptosis via canonical apoptotic

signaling. As expected, this phenotype was rescued by *p35* expression or knockdown of *RHG*

genes and partially suppressed by inhibition of the Dark-, Dronc-, and Drice-dependent

apoptosome pathways (Fig. 3C), confirming its dependence on canonical apoptosis (Fig. 1C).

In contrast, *Hid*-induced apoptosis was not rescued by RNAi against *Dcp-1* (Fig. 3C), nor by

knockdown of *Sirt1* or *Fkbp59* (Fig. 3D). Furthermore, knockdown of *Debcl*, *Buffy*, and

autophagy genes failed to rescue *Hid*-induced apoptosis (Fig. 3E). Taken together, these results

indicate that Sirt1, Debcl, Buffy, and autophagy components are not general regulators of

apoptosis but function as specific activators of Dcp-1.

Cleaved Dcp-1 specifically interacts with a giant-IAP Bruce

Next, we examined the molecular link between autophagy and Dcp-1 activation. Caspase

activation is negatively regulated by IAPs. In *Drosophila*, DIAP1 suppresses caspase activity

through ubiquitination (Ditzel *et al*, 2008) (Fig. 1C). In addition to DIAP1, *Drosophila* has

another giant IAP, *Bruce*, which is degraded via autophagy during oogenesis (Nezis *et al*, 2010).

Bruce inhibits autophagy under nutrient-rich conditions (Hou *et al*, 2008), suggesting mutual

negative regulation of Bruce and autophagy. Bruce selectively inhibits *reaper*-induced cell

death, but not *hid*-induced apoptosis, suggesting a degree of pathway specificity (Domingues

& Ryoo, 2012). These observations led us to focus on Bruce as a potential selective regulator

of Dcp-1 activation.

The structure of human Bruce/BIRC6 has recently been resolved using cryo-electron

microscopy (Hunkeler *et al*, 2023; Ehrmann *et al*, 2023; Liu *et al*, 2024; Dietz *et al*, 2023),

revealing several conserved domains: linker domain (LD), baculoviral IAP repeat (BIR), WD40,

β-X1, β-X2, carbohydrate-binding module (CBM), ubiquitin-like (UBL), and ubiquitin-

conjugating (UBC) (Fig. 4A). Human Bruce/BIRC6 ubiquitinates the activated executioner

caspases caspase-3 and caspase-7, but not their non-processed proforms *in vitro* (Dietz *et al*,

2023). The BIR domain mediates interactions with ubiquitination substrates by recognizing N-

terminal IAP-binding motifs (IBMs) (Berthelet & Dubrez, 2013). The consensus IBM sequence

is defined as A(K/T/V/I)(P/A/E)(F/E/I/S/Y) (Vaux & Silke, 2005). We identified IBM-like

sequences at the N-termini of the P20 domains of both Dcp-1 and Drice (Fig. 4B, C). To assess

the potential interaction between Bruce and these caspases, we used AlphaFold3 to predict the

structure of the complexes between Bruce and the IBM-like motifs of Dcp-1 and Drice

(Abramson *et al*, 2024). Consistent with the known architecture of BIRC6, AlphaFold3

predicted that the BIR domain of Bruce interacts with LD, WD40, β-X1, and β-X2 domains

(Fig. EV4A, B). For structural prediction, we used a Bruce fragment spanning residues 1–1960,

including the BIR domain and its associated Zn^{2+}-binding site (Fig. 4A), and 15-residue

peptides from the Dcp-1 and Drice cleavage sites encompassing their IBM-like motifs (Fig. 4B,

C). The predicted structures revealed a high-confidence interaction between Dcp-1 and the

Bruce BIR domain. All five AlphaFold3 models showed confident pLDDT scores (70–90) for

the N-terminal residues of Dcp-1, corresponding to the IBM-like motif (Fig. 4D, F). The

predicted binding mode resembled the canonical BIR-IBM interaction observed in XIAP BIR3-

Smac (Wu *et al*, 2000) (Fig. EV4C). In contrast, although Drice appeared to bind to Bruce in

the predicted models, the pLDDT scores were consistently low (<70) across the interaction

interface, including the four N-terminal residues, indicating low confidence in the predicted

interaction (Fig. 4E, G).

To validate these predictions, we performed co-immunoprecipitation assays on

Drosophila S2 cells. We found that only the cleaved form of Dcp-1, which forms a head-to-tail

dimer composed of the P20 and P10 domains (Julien & Wells, 2017), and not the full-length

protein, interacted with the N-terminal BIR domain of Bruce following apoptosis induction (Fig.

4H), consistent with the observation that human Bruce/BIRC6 only targets cleaved executioner

caspases for ubiquitination *in vitro* (Dietz *et al*, 2023). Conversely, neither the cleaved nor full-

length forms of Drice showed detectable interactions with the Bruce BIR domain (Fig. 4H),

corroborating the AlphaFold3 predictions. Taken together, these findings suggest that Bruce

specifically suppresses activated Dcp-1 but not Drice and serves as a branching point for a Dcp-

1-specific, non-canonical regulatory pathway.

Bruce is ubiquitously expressed in wing imaginal discs

Bruce has been reported to function in oogenesis and spermatogenesis in the ovaries and testes,

respectively (Arama *et al*, 2003, 2007; Kaplan *et al*, 2010; Nezis *et al*, 2010; Hou *et al*, 2008).

However, its expression in other tissues has not been thoroughly characterized. To examine the

tissue distribution of Bruce, we generated CRISPR/Cas9-mediated knock-in flies in which an

mStayGold::C4 linker::V5-tag (Ando *et al*, 2024) was inserted into the N-terminus of Bruce

(Fig. EV5A). Using the knocked-in line, we confirmed that Bruce was expressed in the ovaries

(Fig. EV5B) and testes (Fig. EV5C), consistent with previous reports (Arama *et al*, 2003, 2007;

Kaplan *et al*, 2010; Nezis *et al*, 2010; Hou *et al*, 2008). Western blot analysis revealed Bruce

expression in both adult males and females (Fig. EV5D). We also detected Bruce expression in

wing imaginal discs (Fig. EV5E). This signal was abolished by the RNAi-mediated knockdown

of *Bruce*, confirming the specificity of the signal (Fig. EV5F). These findings indicate that

Bruce not only functions in the gonads but can also exert Dcp-1 regulatory functions in wing

imaginal discs.

Bruce specifically suppresses Dcp-1 overexpression-induced cell death

Next, we investigated whether Bruce regulated Dcp-1 activity. Upon overexpression of *Bruce*

(Fig. 5A), we observed marked suppression of Dcp-1-induced cell death (Fig. 5B, C). Although

DIAP1 overexpression also inhibited Dcp-1 activation, this suppressive effect was stronger

following *Bruce* overexpression (Fig. 5B, C). We examined the specificity of Bruce in the

regulation of other forms of cell death. As mentioned earlier, the BH3-only protein Synr induces

autophagy and Dcp-1-dependent cell death (Ikegawa *et al*, 2023). To investigate whether Bruce

was involved in Debcl/Buffy-autophagy-Dcp-1-mediated cell death, we examined the role of

Bruce in Synr-induced cell death. Overexpression of *Bruce*, but not *DIAP1*, specifically

suppressed Synr-induced cell death (Fig. 5D). In contrast, *Bruce* overexpression failed to rescue

the eye ablation phenotype independent of autophagy caused by *Hid* overexpression, whereas

DIAP1 fully rescued this phenotype (Fig. 5E). Taken together, these results suggest that Bruce

and DIAP1 regulate distinct cell death pathways, with Bruce acting as a selective inhibitor of

autophagy-regulated Dcp-1- and Synr-dependent cell death.

Bruce suppresses wing tissue growth

We have previously reported that Dcp-1 activity can promote imaginal tissue growth

independent of the core apoptosis signaling pathway, including Dronc (Shinoda *et al*, 2019).

To investigate the role of Bruce in imaginal tissue growth, we analyzed its effect on wing

imaginal discs using *WP-Gal4*, which drives expression throughout the wing pouch.

Overexpression of *p35* suppressed wing tissue growth (Fig. 5F, G), whereas inhibition of

canonical apoptotic signaling by *Dronc^{DN}* and *DIAP1* had no effect (Fig. 5F, G). In contrast,

Bruce overexpression suppressed wing growth to an extent similar to *p35* overexpression,

whereas *Bruce* knockdown tended to increase wing size, although the difference was not

statistically significant (Fig. 5F, G). We confirmed these results using *Engrailed-Gal4*, which

is expressed in the posterior compartment of the wing imaginal disc. *p35* overexpression

suppressed wing tissue growth (Fig. 5H, I). In this context, the inhibition of canonical apoptosis

signaling by *Dronc^{DN}* and *DIAP1* had a minor but negative effect on wing size (Fig. 5H, I).

Bruce overexpression suppressed wing growth, whereas *Bruce* knockdown increased wing size

(Fig. 5H, I), indicating that Bruce negatively regulates wing tissue growth. Finally, to enhance

the sensitivity of the assay, we overexpressed the dominant-negative form of the insulin

receptor (*InR^{DN}*) using *WP-Gal4*, which significantly reduced wing size (Fig. 5J, K). Under this

sensitized condition, simultaneous *Bruce* knockdown significantly enhanced wing tissue

growth (Fig. 5J, K). Overall, these results indicate that Bruce suppresses wing tissue growth.

Discussion

Autophagy-facilitated alternative caspase activation pathway

In this study, we identified a distinct regulatory mechanism governing the activation of the *Drosophila* executioner caspase, Dcp-1, in sharp contrast to its paralog Drice. Although both caspases share structural similarities and are expressed in overlapping tissues, Dcp-1, but not Drice, is activated upon overexpression in an apoptosome-independent, autophagy-regulated manner. Previous studies have implicated Dcp-1 in the induction of autophagy (Hou *et al*, 2008; DeVorkin *et al*, 2014; Choutka *et al*, 2017). Our findings extend this view by showing that autophagy is required for Dcp-1 activation, suggesting a positive feedback loop between Dcp-1 and autophagy during apoptosis. Although the precise downstream targets of the Bcl-2 family proteins, Debcl and Buffy, remain unknown, their roles in autophagy regulation (Hou *et al*, 2008) suggest that they influence Dcp-1 activity through autophagic pathways. Additionally, we identified Bruce, a giant inhibitor of apoptotic proteins, as a Dcp-1-specific suppressor. Functionally, Bruce limits wing tissue growth, suggesting that Dcp-1 activation contributes to growth regulation in a non-lethal manner (Shinoda *et al*, 2019). Taken together, our results demonstrate that the regulatory mechanisms of Dcp-1 and Drice diverge at the level of IAPs and that Dcp-1 activation is regulated by autophagy, enabling specific non-lethal functions that promote tissue growth independent of canonical apoptotic signaling (Fig. 5L). It is important to note that Dcp-1 can also suppress autophagy through cleavage of Acinus (Haberman *et al*, 2010; Nandi *et al*, 2014). Although this may seem contradictory, the ability of caspases to function in a non-lethal manner requires strict prevention of excessive activation. Such suppression may represent a key mechanism that enables non-lethal caspase activity.

It is also important to understand how cells determine the usage of canonical versus alternative caspase activation pathways depending on physiological or environmental conditions. In mammals, two major apoptotic pathways are activated by distinct initiator

caspases, caspase-8 and caspase-9, in response to different upstream signals (Newton *et al*, 2024). Similarly, in *Drosophila*, while most developmental cell death is driven by canonical apoptotic signaling involving Dronc (Xu *et al*, 2005), alternative caspase activation pathways may be preferentially engaged in response to environmental stimuli, such as starvation or heat shock.

Initiator caspase-independent activation mechanism for Dcp-1

The mechanism by which Dcp-1 is activated by itself remains an open and important question. In contrast to Drice, Dcp-1 is activated upon overexpression in an apoptosome-independent but autophagy-dependent manner. Unlike initiator caspases, executioner caspases such as Dcp-1 generally lack long N-terminal prodomains and require proteolytic cleavage to become catalytically active. Proximity-labeling analysis revealed that Dcp-1 was predominantly associated with the chaperonin subunit CCT8 (Fig. 2E). Given that the overexpression of *Dcp-1* increases its local concentration for activation, we propose that its accumulation in the chaperonin complex may serve as a local scaffold for caspase activation. This model implies a spatially restricted mode of regulation in which caspase activity is compartmentalized within the cell. In this model, we speculated that Dcp-1 activation occurs sporadically in subcellular regions enriched in activators or scaffolding molecules such as CCT8. Under these conditions, Dcp-1 activation may need to be tightly regulated to prevent its unintended proteolytic activity. Supporting this notion, we proposed that Bruce functions as a basal suppressor of Dcp-1 in non-lethal contexts, restraining caspase activity when full apoptotic signaling is not engaged.

Distinct roles of evolutionarily multiplicated executioner caspases

Caspases are essential cysteine proteases that execute apoptotic cell death and are conserved from *C. elegans* to mammals (Shinoda & Miura, 2024). Multiple executioner caspases exist,

including caspase-3 and caspase-7 in mammals and Dcp-1 and Drice in *Drosophila*. Although

these enzymes are often functionally redundant in apoptosis, growing evidence indicates that

each executioner caspase harbors distinct substrate specificities and fulfills non-overlapping

roles (Walsh *et al*, 2008; Boucher *et al*, 2012; Desroches & Denault, 2019; Shinoda *et al*, 2019,

2023). In mammals, caspase-3 and caspase-7 exhibit high sequence similarity but differ in their

substrate preferences. Caspase-7, for instance, contains polybasic residues in its exosite that

enhance its ability to cleave RNA-binding proteins, a function not observed in caspase-3

(Boucher *et al*, 2012). Mechanistically, this exosite enables caspase-7 to interact directly with

RNA, thereby promoting selective proteolysis of RNA-associated substrates (Desroches &

Denault, 2019). Furthermore, we have recently demonstrated that caspase-7 is essential for

early-peaking caspase activity at the plasma membrane during apoptosis, a process mediated

by its N-terminal intrinsically disordered region, which facilitates rapid efferocytosis of

apoptotic cells (Taira *et al*, 2025). In this study, we demonstrated that *Drosophila* executioner

caspases Dcp-1 and Drice are also subject to distinct activation mechanisms for the specific

non-lethal function of tissue growth. These findings underscore that the evolutionary expansion

of executioner caspases does not merely provide functional redundancy for apoptotic execution

but rather confers unique biochemical properties and regulatory roles under distinct cellular

contexts. This diversification allows executioner caspases to participate in both lethal and non-

lethal cellular processes, highlighting their broader functional repertoire beyond canonical

apoptosis.

Methods

Fly strains and rearing conditions

We raised the flies in standard *Drosophila* medium at 25°C. For in vivo biotin labeling

experiments, flies were raised in standard *Drosophila* medium supplemented with 100 μM (+)-

biotin (#029-08713, WAKO). The fly strains used in this study are listed in Table EV2.

Genotypes corresponding to each figure are shown in Table EV3.

Intrinsically disordered region prediction

Amino acid sequences were obtained from the FlyBase database [https://flybase.org/].

Disordered regions were predicted using the PSIPRED protein sequence analysis workbench in

DISOPRED3 [http://bioinf.cs.ucl.ac.uk/psipred/].

Adult wings and eyes phenotypes scoring

Adult female flies were anesthetized using CO_2. The wing and eye images were acquired using

a Leica MZ16F fluorescent stereomicroscope (Leica Microsystems) equipped with a Leica

DFC450 C CCD camera. Each wing was manually classified into one of four categories: *Intact*

(no defect), *Mild* (≧50% of wing area intact), *Severe* (<50% but ≧5% of wing area intact), and

Wingless (<5% of wing area intact).

Molecular cloning

For *pAc5-Caspases-myc-mNeonGreen*, the coding sequences of *Dcp-1* and *Drice* were

amplified using PCR from the corresponding *pUASz-Caspase::V5::TurboID* plasmids

(Muramoto *et al*, 2025). The coding sequence of myc-tagged mNeonGreen was PCR-amplified

from *pUASz-Drice::myc::mNeonGreen plasmid* (Muramoto *et al*, 2025). The two fragments

were ligated into EcoRI/XhoI-digested *pAc5_STABLE2_neo* (González *et al*, 2011) using In-

Fusion (TaKaRa, Z9648N).

For *pCold I-EcoRI-CCT8-EcoRI*, the coding sequence of *CCT8* was PCR-amplified

from *Drosophila* cDNA, and the fragment was ligated into the *Eco*RI-digested *pCold I DNA*

vector (#3361, TaKaRa) using In-Fusion.

For *pAc5-Caspases^{CG}-myc*, the coding sequences of *Dcp-1* and *Drice* were PCR

amplified from the corresponding *pAc5-Caspases-myc-mNeonGreen* plasmids. The fragments

were ligated into EcoRI/BamHI-digested *pAc5_STABLE2_neo* (González *et al*, 2011) using In-

Fusion. For pAct-Bruce^{1-900a}a-3xFLAG, the first 900 aa of the coding sequences of *Bruce* were

PCR-amplified from *Drosophila* cDNA, and the fragment was ligated into the *Eco*RI-digested

pAc5-Fasciclin 3 isoform A-3xFLAG plasmids (Muramoto *et al*, 2025) using In-Fusion. For

*pAc5-3xFLAG-mRuby*3, *Drosophila* codon-optimized mRuby3 was synthesized (Integrated

DNA Technologies, Coralville, IA, USA) and ligated into the BamHI-digested *pAc5-3xFLAG-*

Bub3 plasmids (Shinoda *et al*, 2023) using In-Fusion.

For mStayGold::C4 linker::V5-tag knock-in for Bruce, the guide RNA was identified

using   the   CRISPR   Optimal   Target   Finder   tool   available   on   flyCRISPR

[http://flycrispr.molbio.wisc.edu/]. The DNA fragments for the guide RNA were subcloned into

BbsI-digested pDCC6 vectors (#59985, Addgene) (Gokcezade *et al*, 2014) to establish the

pDCC6-dBruce-sgRNA plasmid. The following primers were annealed to generate the DNA

fragments   for   guide   RNAs: 5′-CTTCGCTTGCTTGAGGACGCGCTGC-3′   and   5′-

AAACGCAGCGCGTCCTCAAGCAAGC-3′. For the generation of the homology-directed

repair template (*pBac-mStayGold-c4-V5-dBruce-donor-3xP3-dsRed-polyA*), DNA fragments

of the 5′ homology arm were assembled into the BsaI site, and the DNA fragment of the 3′

homology arm with mStayGold::C4 linker::V5-tag was assembled into the SapI site of

pBac[3xP3-DsRed_polyA_Scarless_TK] (Shinoda *et al*, 2019) using In-Fusion. The PAM

sequence (TGG) of the gRNA-binding sites in the donor template was mutated (TGA) to

prevent Cas9-directed cleavage following homology-directed repair. The mStayGold::C4

linker::V5-tag fragment was amplified from pRSETB/mStayGold(c4) (#212018; Addgene)

(Ando *et al*, 2024) with V5-tag harboring primers. DNA fragments were amplified using PCR

with the following primers: dBruce 5′ homology arm (forward primer, 5′-

TGAAGGTCTCCTTAAAAGCCCGATTGGCGGCGCAGGAAGT-3′, and reverse primer,

5′-TCTTTCTAGGGTTAATCGAGTGCCCAGGGGGCGCGCGAGT-3′), dBruce 3′

homology arm-1 (forward primer, 5′-

TCTTTCTAGGGTTAATTTTTGGCATTCACAGGCGATTGCT-3′, and reverse primer, 5′-

TCCGGAGGTGCGCCGCGGCAATTTG-3′), mStayGold-C4 linker-V5-tag (forward primer,

5′-CGGCGCACCTCCGGAATGGTGTCTACAGGCGAGGAGCTGT-3′, and reverse primer,

5′-

GGTGCTGTCCAGGCCCAGCAGGGGGTTGGGGATGGGCTTGCCCACGGCAGAAGC

AGAAGGCTCGTGC-3′), 3′ homology arm-2 with mutated PAM (forward primer, 5′-

GGCCTGGACAGCACCGCCACGGAGCAGCATCATCAGCAGCGCGTCCTCAA-3′, and

reverse primer, 5′-GACGGCTCTTCATTAACTCTTAAATCAAATTTAAATTGAA-3′). The

established plasmids were injected into *yw; nos-Cas9(II-attP40)* for CRISPR/Cas9-mediated

transgenesis (BestGene Inc.). Each DsRed-positive transformant was isogenized and confirmed

using genomic PCR and sequencing.

All established plasmids were sequenced by Eurofins, Inc. The detailed plasmid DNA

sequences are available upon request.

Cell culture

Drosophila S2 cells were grown at 25°C in Schneider's *Drosophila* medium (GIBCO,

21720001) supplemented with 10% (v/v) heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum, 100 U/mL

penicillin, and 100 μg/mL streptomycin (WAKO, 168-23191).

mNeonGreen signal quantification of S2 cells

Drosophila S2 cells (2.5×10^5) seeded in 24-well plates were transfected with 200 ng of the

desired plasmid using Effectene Transfection Reagent (QIAGEN, 301427) following the

manufacturer's protocol. Sixteen hours after transfection, cells were transferred to four-

compartment glass-bottomed dishes (Greiner #627870). After another 24 hours, images were

captured using a Leica TCS SP8 confocal microscope (Leica Microsystems).

The mNeon Green intensity was quantified using Fiji (ImageJ) software (NIH Image).

Images were analyzed automatically using the ImageJ macro, as previously described (Fujisawa

et al, 2020) with modifications. Briefly, the mNeonGreen channel was filtered by the "Gaussian

Blur (sigma = 1)", processed with "Auto Threshold ("Mean" method)," processed with

"Watershed," and processed with "Analyze particles (size = 40–200 μm², circularity = 0.2–1.0)"

to define the region of interest. For a given region of interest, the average mNeon Green

intensity was measured.

Protein preparation of Drosophila tissues

Whole larvae without digestive tract and fatobodies, larval salivary glands, fatbodies, brains,

wing discs and whole adults, adult thoraxes, ovaries, and testises of desired genotype were

dissected and lysed with RIPAi buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 150 mM sodium chloride, 0.5

wt/vol% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% w/v sodium dodecyl sulfate, and 1.0% w/v NP-40)

supplemented with cOmplete ULTRA EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (#05892953001,

Roche). Samples were homogenized and centrifuged at 20,000 × *g*, 4°C for 10 min. The

supernatants were collected and snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen. Protein concentrations were

determined using the BCA assay (#297-73101, Wako) following the manufacturer's protocol.

The samples were mixed with Laemmli buffer, boiled at 95°C for 5 min, and then subjected to

western blotting analysis.

Western blotting

Each sample was separated using SDS-PAGE. The proteins were then transferred onto

Immobilon-P polyvinylidene fluoride membranes (#IPVH00010; Millipore) for

immunoblotting. Membranes were blocked with 4% skim milk diluted in 1× TBST.

Immunoblotting was performed using the antibodies mentioned below, which were diluted with

4% skim milk. Signals were visualized using Immobilon Western Chemiluminescent HRP

Substrate (#WBKLS0500; Millipore) and FUSION SOLO. 7S. EDGE (Vilber-Lourmat).

Contrast and brightness adjustments were applied equally using Fiji (ImageJ) software (NIH

Image).

The primary antibodies used included mouse anti-V5 monoclonal antibody (1:1,000,

#46-0705, Invitrogen), mouse anti-FLAG M2 monoclonal antibody (1:5,000, Sigma), rabbit

anti-CCT8 polyclonal antibody (1:5,000, this study), rabbit anti-Myc-Tag (71D10) monoclonal

antibody (1:5,000, #2278, CST), rabbit anti-3xDYKDDDDK Tag (3xFLAG Tag) (E7C5T)

monoclonal antibody (1:5,000, #87537, CST), mouse anti-alpha tubulin (DM1A) monoclonal

antibody (1:10,000, #T9026, Sigma), mouse anti-Histone H3 (1B1B2) monoclonal antibody

(1:10,000, #14269, CST), and mouse anti-Actin monoclonal antibody (1:5,000; #A4700,

Sigma). The secondary antibodies used were goat anti-rabbit IgG horseradish peroxidase

(HRP)-conjugated antibody (1:5,000, #7074S, CST) and goat/rabbit/donkey anti-mouse IgG

HRP Conjugate (1:5,000, #W402B, Promega). The membranes for streptavidin blotting were

blocked with 3% bovine serum albumin. Streptavidin blotting was performed using

streptavidin-HRP (1:10,000, #SA10001; Invitrogen) diluted in 3% bovine serum albumin.

Experimental design for liquid chromatography–mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) analyses

Two biological replicates were analyzed for each experimental condition to determine the

abundance of Drice/Dcp-1::TurboID relative to the control.

Purification of biotinylated proteins

Samples were prepared as previously described (Shinoda *et al*, 2023). Briefly, 100 µg of

biotinylated protein-containing lysate was subjected to FG-NeutrAvidin bead (#TAS8848

N1171, Tamagawa Seiki) purification. FG-NeutrAvidin beads (25 µL, approximately 500 µg)

were washed three times with RIPA buffer. Benzonase-treated biotinylated protein samples

suspended in 1 mL of RIPA buffer were incubated overnight at 4°C. Conjugated beads were

magnetically isolated and washed with 500 µL of an ice-cold RIPA buffer solution, 1 M KCl

solution, 0.1 M Na_2CO_3 solution, and 4 M urea solution. For western blot analyses, the purified

samples were mixed with Laemmli buffer, boiled at 95°C for 5 min, and then subjected to

western blot analysis. For LC-MS/MS analysis, the purified samples were washed with 500 µL

ultrapure water (#214-01301, Wako) and 500 µL of 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate. The

samples were then mixed with 50 µL of 0.1% Rapigest diluted in 50 mM ammonium

bicarbonate, and 5 µL of 50 mM TCEP was subsequently added. Samples were incubated at

60°C for 5 min, and then 2.5 µL of 200 mM methyl methanethiosulfonate was added. One

microgram sequence-grade modified trypsin (#V5111, Promega) was then added for on-bead

trypsin digestion at 37°C, leaving the treatment for 16 h. The beads were then magnetically

isolated, and 60 µL of the supernatant was collected. Then, 3 µL of 10% trifluoroacetic acid

was added to the supernatants, incubating them at 37°C for 60 min with gentle agitation. The

samples were then centrifuged at 20,000 × *g*, 4°C for 10 min. The peptides were then

desalinated and purified using a GL-tip SDB (#7820-11200, GL Sciences) following the

manufacturer's instructions. The samples were speed-backed at 45°C for 30 min and dissolved

in 25 µL of 0.1% formic acid. The samples were then centrifuged at 20,000 × *g*, 4°C for 10

min, and the supernatants were collected. The peptide concentrations were determined using

the BCA assay. Finally, 500 ng of the purified protein was subjected to LC-MS/MS analysis.

LC-MS/MS analyses

Samples were loaded onto an Acclaim PepMap 100 C18 column (75 µm x 2 cm, 3 µm particle

size and 100 Å pore size; #164946, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and separated on a nano-capillary

C18 column, (75 µm x 12.5 cm, 3 µm particle size, #NTCC-360/75-3-125, Nikkyo Technos)

using EASY-nLC 1200 system (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Elution conditions are listed in

Table EV4. The separated peptides were analyzed using QExactive (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

in data-dependent MS/MS mode. The parameters for the MS/MS analysis are listed in Table

EV5. The collected data were analyzed using Proteome Discoverer (PD) 2.2 software with the

Sequest HT search engine. The parameters for the PD 2.2 analysis are described in Table EV6.

Peptides were filtered at a false discovery rate of 0.01 using the Percolator node. Label-free

quantification was performed based on the intensities of the precursor ions using a precursor-

ion quantifier node. Normalization was performed using the total amount of peptides in all

average scaling modes. MS proteomic data were deposited in the ProteomeXchange

Consortium via the jPOST partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD067425 (Okuda *et*

al, 2017).

Anti-CCT8 antibody generation

CCT8 was expressed in *Escherichia coli BL21* transformed with *pCold I-EcoRI-CCT8-EcoRI*.

Cells were grown at 37 °C overnight, diluted to OD_{600} 0.2 and cultured until OD_{600} 0.5 at 37°C.

Protein expression was induced by the addition of 1 mM IPTG at 15°C for 24 h. Cells were

centrifuged at $4000 \times g$, 4 °C for 20 min and resuspended in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS).

Cells were centrifuged at $4000 \times g$, 4°C for 10 min. Purification of 6x His-tagged CCT8 was

performed using the QIAexpress Ni-NTA Fast Start Kit (#30600, Qiagen) according to the

manufacturer's protocol: purification of 6xHis-tagged proteins under denaturing conditions.

Briefly, the cell pellets were lysed in Lysis Buffer (Denaturing Buffer adjusted to pH 8.0) with

gentle agitation for 60 min. The sample was centrifuged at $9,200 \times g$, 20°C for 30 min. The

supernatant was applied to Fast Start column and washed twice with Wash Buffer (Denaturing

Buffer adjusted to pH 6.3). Proteins were eluted using Elution Buffer (Denaturing Buffer

adjusted to pH 4.5). Polyclonal antibodies were raised in rabbits using purified 6xHis-tagged

CCT8 as an immunogen (Eurofins Inc.).

Protein complexes prediction with AlphaFold3

Amino acid sequences were obtained from the FlyBase database [https://flybase.org/]. The

protein complex structures were predicted using AlphaFold3 (Abramson *et al*, 2024) on the

AlphaFold server [https://alphafoldserver.com/].

Co-immunoprecipitation

Drosophila S2 cells (2.0×10^6) seeded in 6-well plates were transfected with the desired

plasmid using Effectene Transfection Reagent. For live cell lysate, *Drosophila* S2 cells were

lysed on ice using 550 µL of IP lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, 0.5%

NP-40) supplemented with cOmplete ULTRA EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail. For

apoptotic cell lysate, the cells were treated with 10 µg/mL cycloheximide (#C7698, Sigma) for

apoptosis induction. After 6 h of incubation, cells were harvested and centrifuged at $800 \times g$,

4 °C for 5 min and washed twice. Then, cells were lysed by using 550 µL of IP lysis buffer (50

mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, and 0.5% NP-40) supplemented with cOmplete

ULTRA EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail. The cell lysates were centrifuged at $20,000 \times g$,

4 °C for 5 min. Supernatants (50 µL) were collected as inputs. The remainder of the supernatant

was incubated for 2 h at 4°C with 20 µL of anti-DDDDK-tag mAb-Magnetic Agarose (#M185-

10R, MBL) equilibrated with the IP lysis buffer. The beads were washed thrice in IP lysis buffer

and boiled for 5 min at 95°C with 50 µL 1× Laemmli buffer. The samples were magnetically

separated, and the supernatants were subjected to SDS-PAGE.

Immunohistochemistry

Wing imaginal discs of the late third-instar larvae and testes and ovaries of the adults were fixed

with 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS. The wing imaginal discs and testes samples were washed

in PBS containing 0.1% Triton X-100 (PBST), and the ovary samples were washed in 1.0%

PBST, blocked in PBST with 5% normal donkey serum (PBSTn) for 30 min, and incubated

with primary antibodies in PBSTn overnight at 4°C. The samples were washed with PBST,

incubated for 2 h with secondary antibodies suspended in PBSTn, and washed again with PBST.

Images were captured using a TCS SP8 microscope (Leica Microsystems).

The primary antibodies used were mouse anti-Myc-tag monoclonal antibody (1:500,

#R950-25, Invitrogen) and mouse anti-V5 tag monoclonal antibody (1:100, #960-25,

Invitrogen). The secondary antibodies used were Alexa488-conjugated donkey anti-mouse IgG

(1:500 (Myc) or 1:100 (V5), #A-21202, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Hoechst 33342 (8 µM;

#H3570, Invitrogen) for nuclear staining was used during the secondary antibody incubation.

Images were analyzed and edited using ImageJ software.

Wing size measurement

Flies were raised, and their wings were mounted and digitized as previously described (Shinoda *et al*, 2019). Briefly, flies were placed on an acetic acid agar plate (2% agar, 1% sucrose, and 0.36% acetic acid) to lay eggs overnight. The plates were collected, and the eggs were incubated at 25°C for 24 h. The 1st instar larvae were collected from the agar plate, and 30 larvae were placed in one vial to precisely control the larval density. These flies were raised at 25°C. After more than two days of hatching, the adult female flies were collected and submerged in 99.5% ethanol to dehydrate for 24 hours. Dehydrated flies were dissected to mount their wings using Euparal (Waldeck) with the dorsal side upward. Images were digitized using an upright microscope (Leica DM5000B; Leica Microsystems) equipped with a CCD camera. The wing size was measured using a Drosophila wing digital twin [https://datamarkin.com/models/drosophila-wings-beta] developed by Datamarkin. Areas 0, 1, and 2 were quantified as the anterior parts, whereas areas 4, 6, 7, and 8 were quantified as the posterior parts, respectively.

Statistical analysis

The data are presented as the means ± standard error of measurement (SEM). *p*-values were calculated using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), followed by Sidak's multiple comparison test for selected pairs (Fig. EV1B, C, D; Fig. 5K), or Dunnett's multiple comparison test using GraphPad Prism 8. NS: $p \geqq 0.05$, †: $p < 0.05$.

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Author Contributions

N.S. and M.M. designed the study; N.S. conducted most of the experiments and analyzed most of the data; Y.H conducted protein structural predictions; N.H. analyzed the expression patterns of Drosophila caspases; and N.S. and M.M. wrote the manuscript.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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     Figures and figure legends

     Figure 1

Figure 1. *Dcp-1* overexpression induces apoptosis independent of the apoptosome.

(A) Schematic structures and intrinsically disordered region prediction of Dcp-1 (dark cyan) and Drice (red). The predicted disordered score plot is shown. Regions wherein the score is more than 0.5 are predicted to be disordered.

(B) Representative images of female wing phenotypes upon caspase overexpression using *WP-Gal4*.

(C) Schematic diagram of canonical apoptosis signaling in *Drosophila*.

765   (D, E) Representative images of female wing phenotypes upon *Dcp-1::VENUS* overexpression
766   using *WP-Gal4* with the genetic perturbation of canonical apoptosis signaling.
767   (F) Quantification of (D) and (E). Each wing is manually classified into four (wingless, severe,
768   mild, and intact) categories. Schematic images of the four categories are shown on the right.
769   Sample sizes are shown in the figure.
770

Figure EV1. Dcp-1 overexpression induces apoptosis in *Drosophila* S2 cells.
(A) Representative images of *Drosophila* S2 cells transfected with mNeonGreen (mNG)-tagged
wild-type (WT) or catalytically inactive (catalytic cysteine mutated to glycine; CG) Dcp-1 and
Drice. Scale bars: 50 μm (left) and 5 μm (right).
(B) Quantification of mNG intensity for each cell, shown as a violin plot. Quartiles are indicated
by black broken lines, and the median is indicated by a red bar. (B′) Magnified view of the data
in (B), with the Y-axis limited to 0–40. *p*-values were calculated using one-way analysis of
variance (ANOVA) followed by Sidak's multiple-comparison test for selected pairs. NS, *p* >
0.05; †, *p* < 0.05. Sample sizes: mNG (n = 712 cells), Dcp-1^WT::mNG (n = 212 cells), Dcp-
1^CG::mNG (n = 380 cells), Drice^WT::mNG (n = 434 cells), and Drice^CG::mNG (n = 442 cells).
(C) Quantification of the average mNG intensity in each field of view. Data are presented as
mean ± SEM. *p*-values were calculated using one-way ANOVA followed by Sidak's multiple-

comparison test for selected pairs. NS, $p \geqq 0.05$; †, $p < 0.05$. Sample size for each condition is
4.
(D) Quantification of the mNG-positive cell number in each field of view. Data are presented
as mean ± SEM. p-values were calculated using one-way ANOVA followed by Sidak's
multiple-comparison test for selected pairs. NS, $p \geqq 0.05$; †, $p < 0.05$. Sample size for each
condition is 4.
791

Figure 2

Figure 2. Dcp-1-enriched proximal proteins are required for Dcp-1 activation.

(A) Western blotting of expression of C-terminally V5::TurboID knocked-in tagged caspases and biotinylation patterns of their proximal proteins detected by streptavidin (SA) in larval wing imaginal discs.

(B) A schematic diagram of the TurboID-mediated identification of proximal proteins. Dcp-1- and Drice-proximal proteins are promiscuously labeled in vivo with the administration of biotin. Then, biotinylated proteins are purified using NeutrAvidin magnetic beads and are subsequently analyzed by mass spectrometry.

(C) A summary of mass spectrometry analysis of proteins in the larval imaginal discs. Among
818 proteins identified, 230 proteins were detected as highly enriched proteins in
Drice::V5::TurboID flies (FC [Drice::V5::TurboID/Dcp-1::V5::TurboID] > 2) and 16 proteins
were detected as highly enriched proteins in Dcp-1::V5::TurboID flies flies (FC [Dcp-
1::V5::TurboID/Drice::V5::TurboID] > 2).
(D) Western blotting validation of the anti-CCT8 antibody in whole larval lysates without the
digestive tract and fat body. The anti-CCT8 antibody detects both endogenous CCT8 (MW:
59.4 kDa) and 3xFLAG::StrepII::VENUS::StrepII (FSVS)-tagged CCT8 (MW: 91.1 kDa).
(E) Western blotting of endogenous CCT8 expressed in larval wing imaginal disc. Dcp-1-
proximal and Drice-proximal proteins biotinylated by C-terminally knocked-in tagged
V5::TurboID are purified using NeutrAvidin. The red asterisk represents a non-specific band
in the marker lane.
(F) Schematic diagram of the RNAi screen targeting eight Dcp-1-enriched proximal proteins.
The *WP > Dcp-1::VENUS* line was crossed with each *UAS-RNAi* line, and wing phenotypes of
the F1 progeny were scored.
(G) Representative images of female wing phenotypes from *Dcp-1::VENUS* overexpression
driven by *WP-Gal4* with knockdown of Dcp-1-enriched proximal proteins. "XX" denotes the
knocked-down gene, and "#1" and "#2" indicate independent RNAi lines.
(H) Representative images of female wing phenotypes upon *Dcp-1::VENUS* overexpression
driven by *WP-Gal4* in the *Sirt1* null mutant background.
(I) Quantification of (H). Each wing is manually classified into four (wingless, severe, mild,
and intact) categories. Sample sizes are shown in the figure.
824

Figure EV2

Figure EV2. Expression patterns of *Drosophila* caspases in larval and adult tissues.

(A) Western blotting of expression of C-terminally V5::TurboID knocked-in tagged caspases and biotinylation patterns of their proximal proteins detected by streptavidin (SA) in larval salivary gland, fat body, and brain.

(B) Western blotting of expression of C-terminally V5::TurboID knocked-in tagged caspases and biotinylation patterns of their proximal proteins detected by SA in adult thorax, ovary, and testis.

Figure 3

Figure 3. Debcl, Buffy, and autophagy are specifically required for *Dcp-1* overexpression-induced apoptosis.

(A) Representative images of female wing phenotypes from *Dcp-1::VENUS* overexpression driven by *WP-Gal4* with the genetic perturbation of *Synr*, *Debcl*, *Buffy,* and autophagy. "XX" denotes the knocked-down gene, and "#1" and "#2" indicate independent RNAi lines.

(B) Quantification of (A). "XX" denotes the knocked-down gene, and "#1" and "#2" indicate independent RNAi lines. Each wing is manually classified into four (wingless, severe, mild, and intact) categories. Sample sizes are shown in the figure.

(C) Representative images of female eye phenotypes upon *Hid* overexpression with the genetic perturbation of canonical apoptosis signaling.

(D) Representative images of female eye phenotypes upon *Hid* overexpression with the genetic perturbation of *Sirt1* or *Fkbp59*. "#1" and "#2" indicate independent RNAi lines.

(E) Representative images of female eye phenotypes upon *Hid* overexpression with the genetic perturbation of *Debcl*, *Buffy*, and autophagy.

Figure EV3

Figure EV3. RNAi screening of Dcp-1-enriched proximal proteins for regulators of Dcp-
1 activation.
(A) Quantification of female wing phenotypes upon knockdown of Dcp-1-enriched proximal
proteins driven by *WP-Gal4*. "XX" denotes the knocked-down gene, and "#1" and "#2" indicate
independent RNAi lines. Each wing is manually classified into four (wingless, severe, mild,
and intact) categories. Sample sizes are shown in the figure.
(B) Quantification of female wing phenotypes upon *Dcp-1::VENUS* overexpression driven by
WP-Gal4 with simultaneous knockdown of Dcp-1-enriched proximal proteins. "XX" denotes
the knocked-down gene, and "#1" and "#2" indicate independent RNAi lines. Each wing is
manually classified into four (wingless, severe, mild, and intact) categories. Sample sizes are
shown in the figure.
865

Figure 4

867
Figure 4. Cleaved Dcp-1, but not Drice, interacts with Bruce.
(A) Domain structure of Bruce. LD denotes the linker domain, WD40 a WD40 domain, BIR
the Baculoviral IAP repeat, β-X a β-sandwich-like fold, CBM a domain resembling the

carbohydrate-binding module family 32 (CBM), UBL the ubiquitin-like domain, and UBC the
E2-E3 hybrid ubiquitin-conjugating (UBC) domain. The region used for structural prediction
using AlphaFold3 is indicated in red.
(B) IBM-like sequence in Dcp-1. The propeptide cleavage site of Dcp-1 is indicated by a black
dashed line; the caspase recognition motif is highlighted in black; the IBM-like sequence is
highlighted in pink; and the region used for AlphaFold3 prediction is shown in red.
(C) IBM-like sequence in Drice. The propeptide cleavage site of Drice is indicated by a black
dashed line; the caspase recognition motif is highlighted in black; the IBM-like sequence is
highlighted in pink; and the region used for AlphaFold3 prediction is shown in red.
(D) Predicted complex structure of Bruce BIR and Dcp-1 IBM-like sequence. The AlphaFold3
prediction [model 0] is shown. The Bruce β-X2 and BIR domains are displayed as surfaces in
green and pink, respectively. Dcp-1 is shown in stick representation and color-coded according
to pLDDT scores, as indicated in the figure. See also panel (F).
(E) Predicted complex structure of Bruce BIR and Drice IBM-like sequence. The AlphaFold3
prediction [model 0] is shown. The Bruce β-X2 and BIR domains are displayed as surfaces in
green and pink, respectively. Drice is shown in stick representation and color-coded according
to pLDDT scores, as indicated in the figure. See also panel (G).
(F) pLDDT scores of Dcp-1 in the five predicted complex structures with Bruce. For all five
AlphaFold3 models, per-residue pLDDT scores of Dcp-1 are plotted. Prediction confidence is
color-coded as follows: very high (pLDDT > 90) in dark blue, confident (90 > pLDDT > 70)
in light blue, low (70 > pLDDT > 50) in yellow, and very low (pLDDT < 50) in orange.
(G) pLDDT scores of Drice in the five predicted complex structures with dBruce. For all five
AlphaFold3 models, per-residue pLDDT scores of Drice are plotted. Prediction confidence is
color-coded as follows: very high (pLDDT > 90) in dark blue, confident (90 > pLDDT > 70)
in light blue, low (70 > pLDDT > 50) in yellow, and very low (pLDDT < 50) in orange.
(H) Co-immunoprecipitation of N-terminally 3xFLAG-tagged N-terminal region of Bruce (Br,
1–900 aa; containing LD, BIR, and WD40 domains) with C-terminally myc-tagged,
catalytically inactive Dcp-1 or Drice (catalytic cysteine mutated to glycine; CG) expressed in
Drosophila S2 cells. N-terminally 3xFLAG-tagged mRuby3 (mRb3) was used as a control.
Apoptosis was induced by cycloheximide (CHX) treatment. 3xFLAG-tagged proteins were
immunoprecipitated using an anti-3xFLAG antibody.
902

Figure EV4. Predicted structures of Bruce complexed with Dcp-1 and Drice IBM-like
sequences.

(A) Overall view of the predicted complex structure of Bruce and Dcp-1. Model 0 is shown
with the same color scheme as in Figure 4A and B. The predicted position error is shown in
(A').

(B) Overall view of the predicted complex structure of Bruce and Drice. Model 0 is shown with
the same color scheme as in Fig. 4A and C. The predicted position error is shown in (B').

(C) Structural comparison between the experimentally determined complex of XIAP BIR3 and
Smac IBM (C), and the predicted complex of dBruce BIR and Dcp-1 IBM (C'). XIAP BIR3 is
shown as a pink cartoon and the Smac IBM as green sticks (PDB ID: 1G73, right panel). dBruce
BIR domain is shown as a pink cartoon and the Dcp-1 IBM as dark green sticks (model 0, left

panel). Zn^{2+} ions are shown as gray spheres. Salt bridges are indicated by black dashed lines,
along with the corresponding interacting residues.
918

919   **Figure 5**

Figure 5. Bruce selectively suppresses Dcp-1 activity and wing tissue growth.

(A) Expression pattern of overexpressed *myc::Bruce* (green) by using *WP-Gal4* in the wing imaginal discs. Nuclei are visualized using Hoechst 33342 (magenta). Scale bar: 50 μm.

(B) Representative images of female wing phenotypes from *Dcp-1::VENUS* overexpression driven by *WP-Gal4* with *DIAP1* or *Bruce* overexpression.

(C) Quantification of (B). Each wing is manually classified into four (wingless, severe, mild, and intact) categories. Sample sizes are shown in the figure.

(D) Representative images of female wing phenotypes upon *Synr* overexpression driven by *Nub-Gal4* with *DIAP1* or *Bruce* overexpression.

(E) Representative images of female eye phenotypes upon *Hid* overexpression with *DIAP1* or *Bruce* overexpression.

(F) Representative images of female wing upon *Bruce* or *Bruce-RNAi* (*Bruce-i*) overexpression using *WP-Gal4*. Scale bar: 1 mm.

(G) Quantification of relative wing size normalized to the corresponding *No-Gal4* control. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. *p*-values were calculated using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Dunnett's multiple-comparison test against no UAS control. NS, $p \geqq$ 0.05; †, $p < 0.05$. Sample sizes are shown in the figure.

(H) Representative images of female wing upon *Bruce* or *Bruce-RNAi* (*Bruce-i*) overexpression using *En-Gal4*. The grey area (labelled as A) represents the anterior part, and the green area (labelled as P) represents the posterior part of the wing. Scale bar: 1 mm.

(I) Quantification of relative posterior part of wing size normalized to corresponding anterior part of wing size. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. *p*-values were calculated using one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test against no UAS control. †, $p < 0.05$. Sample sizes are shown in the figure.

(J) Representative images of female wing upon InR^{DN} and *Bruce-RNAi* (*Bruce-i*) overexpression using *WP-Gal4*. Scale bar: 1 mm.

(K) Quantification of relative wing size normalized to control (*WP > +*). Data are presented as mean ± SEM. p-values were calculated using one-way ANOVA followed by Sidak's multiple comparison test for selected pairs.†, $p < 0.05$. Sample sizes are shown in the figure.

(L) Schematic diagram of Dcp-1 activity-regulating alternative apoptosis signaling pathway in *Drosophila* mediated by autophagy-Bruce axis.

Figure EV5. Expression patterns of mStayGold::V5-tag knocked-in Bruce.

(A) Schematic diagram of CRISPR/Cas9-mediated knock-in of mStayGold::C4 linker (C4)::V5 tag at the N-terminus of Bruce. A 3xP3-DsRed cassette was integrated at the endogenous TTAA site as a transformation marker. Removal of the cassette restores the genomic TTAA site, enabling scarless genome engineering.

(B) Expression pattern of mStayGold (mSG)::C4::V5-tag knocked-in Bruce (green) in the
ovariole. Nuclei are visualized using Hoechst 33342 (magenta). Scale bar: 50 µm.
(C) Expression pattern of mSG::C4::V5-tag knocked-in Bruce (green) in the testis. Nuclei are
visualized using Hoechst 33342 (magenta). Scale bar: 50 µm.
(D) Western blotting of expression of mSG::C4::V5-tag knocked-in tagged Bruce in the whole
adult male and female.
(E) Expression pattern of mSG::C4::V5-tag knocked-in tagged Bruce (green) in the wing
imaginal discs. Nuclei are visualized using Hoechst 33342 (magenta). Scale bar: 50 µm.
(F) Expression pattern of mSG::C4::V5-tag knocked-in tagged Bruce (green) in the wing
imaginal discs upon *Bruce-RNAi* using *WP-Gal4*. Nuclei are visualized using Hoechst 33342
(magenta). Scale bar: 50 µm.
971

Legends for Tables

Table EV1. Dcp-1 and Drice proximal protein lists.

Lists of the identified Dcp-1 proximal proteins (abundance ratio (Dcp-
1::V5::TurboID/Drice::V5::TurboID) > 2), Drice proximal proteins (abundance ratio
(Drice::V5::TurboID/Dcp-1::V5::TurboID) > 2), and candidates for RNAi screening
(abundance ratio (Dcp-1::V5::TurboID/Drice::V5::TurboID) > 1.5, abundance ratio (Dcp-
1::V5::TurboID/Control) > 10, PSM ≧ 2). The UniProt accessions, gene description,
abundance ratio, and # PSMs are listed.

Table EV2. Fly stock list.

List of fly strains. Genotypes, maps, source or references, and stock numbers are listed.

Table EV3. Detailed genotypes.

Detailed genotypes and their related figure # are presented.

Table EV4. Liquid chromatography (LC) settings.

Gradient settings for LC analysis are presented.

Table EV5. Tandem mass spectrometry (MS/MS) settings.

Settings used for the MS/MS analysis are presented.

Table EV6. Proteome Discoverer 2.2 settings.

Proteome Discoverer 2.2 settings for proteomics analysis are presented.