Glial response to hypoxia in *trachealess* mutants induces synapse

remodeling

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Abstract

Synaptic structure and activity are sensitive to environmental alterations. Modulation of synaptic morphology and function is often induced by signals from glia. However, the process by which glia mediate synaptic responses to environmental perturbations such as hypoxia remains unknown. Here, we report that, in the *Drosophila trachealess* (*trh*) mutant, smaller synaptic boutons form clusters named bunch boutons appear at larval neuromuscular junctions (NMJs), which is induced by the reduction of internal oxygen levels due to defective tracheal branches. Thus, the bunch bouton phenotype in the *trh* mutant is suppressed by hyperoxia, and recapitulated in wild-type larvae raised under hypoxia. We further show that hypoxia-inducible factor (HIF)-1α/Similar (Sima) is critical in mediating hypoxia-induced bunch bouton formation. Sima upregulates the level of the Wnt/Wingless (Wg) signal in glia, leading to reorganized microtubule structures within presynaptic sites. Finally, hypoxia-induced bunch boutons maintain normal synaptic transmission at the NMJs, which is crucial for coordinated larval locomotion.

Author summary

Oxygen is essential for animals to maintain their life such as growth, metabolism, responsiveness, and movement. It is therefore important to understand how animal cells trigger hypoxia response and adapt to hypoxia thereafter. Both mammalian vascular and insect tracheal branches are induced to enhance the oxygen delivery. However, the study of hypoxia response in the nervous system remains limited. In this study, we assess the morphology of *Drosophila* neuromuscular junctions (NMJs), a model system to study development and function of synapses, in two hypoxia conditions, one with raising wild-type larvae in hypoxia, and the other in the *tracheless* (*trh*) mutant in which the trachea is defective, causing insufficient oxygen supply. Interestingly, glia, normally wrapping the axons of NMJs, invade into synapse and trigger Wg signals to reconstitute the synaptic structure under hypoxia. This synaptic remodeling maintains the synaptic transmission of synapse, which associate the locomotor behavior of larvae.

Introduction

Animals need oxygen and food, not only to sustain life, but also for motility.

In vertebrates, oxygen and nutrients are delivered through the vascular systems to

organs and tissues throughout the body. To maintain proper nutrient and oxygen

supply, and thus physiological functions, the vascular system is also highly

coordinated with the nervous system during development. Indeed, the vascular and

nervous systems resemble each other in terms of their anatomical structures and

developmental processes [1, 2]. In the brain, nerves and vessels, form close

associations and are in physical contact through the third player astrocytes to form

neurovascular units (NVU) [3]. Such organization is essential for controlling oxygen

and glucose delivery through the blood vessels by neuronal activity, and this

regulatory process is mediated through the coupled astrocytes [4]. However, some

invertebrates lack the complex vascular systems [5]. In nematodes, oxygen is supplied

simply by ambient diffusion to inner cells [6]. Insects such as *Drosophila* have

evolved a prototype of the tracheal system to deliver oxygen and a primitive vascular

system, the dorsal vessel, to facilitate nutrient delivery [7]. However, the physical

association of nerves, trachea, and glial processes has also been demonstrated at the

NMJs of adult *Drosophila* flight muscles [8].

Animals respond to changing oxygen levels by altering their oxygen delivery

system. Insufficient oxygen levels (hypoxia) activate a broad range of genes to re-

establish body homeostasis. One crucial regulator of these hypoxia-responsive genes

is the sequence-specific DNA-binding transcription factor hypoxia inducible factor 1

(HIF-1) [9]. HIF-1 consists of α and β subunits that form heterodimers [10]. Whereas

HIF-1β is expressed constitutively, HIF-1α protein levels are modulated by oxygen

levels [11]. Under normal oxygen conditions (normoxia), oxygen-dependent prolyl

hydroxylases (PHDs) catalyze hydroxylation of a conserved prolyl residue in the

central oxygen-dependent degradation (ODD) domain of HIF-1α [12-14].

Hydroxylation of HIF-1α promotes interaction with Von Hippel Lindau (VHL),

which is the substrate recognition subunit of the cullin2-based E3 ubiquitin ligase,

leading to HIF-1α ubiquitination and proteasomal degradation [15]. Under hypoxia,

prolyl hydroxylation does not occur, HIF-1α proteins are stabilized and are

translocated from the cytoplasm to the nucleus where they form heterodimers with

HIF-1β to activate transcription of target genes [16, 17]. One major class of target

genes encoding the Fibroblast Growth Factor (FGF) is involved in inducing

angiogenesis in mammals. In *Drosophila,* the FGF member encoded by *Branchless*

(*Bnl*) induces tracheal branching [18]. When oxygen levels are reduced, oxygen-

starved cells express Bnl as a chemo-attractant to guide the growth tracheal terminal

branches toward them [19].

In addition to adaptations of the respiratory system, the nervous system also

responds to hypoxia. Oxygen levels modulate the survival, proliferation, and

differentiation of radial glial cells (RGCs) in the human cerebral cortex. Interestingly,

physiological hypoxia (3% O_2) induces neurogenesis and differentiation of RGCs into

glutamatergic neurons [20]. Hypoxia induces neurite outgrowth in PC12 cells through

activation of A2A receptor [21]. Brief exposure to anoxia and hypoglycemia caused

axonal remodeling in hippocampal neurons, including presynaptic protrusion of

filopodia and formation of multi-innervated spines [22]. Under hypoxia or upon

depletion of PHD2, upregulation of the actin cross-linker Filamin A (FLNA) induces

generation of more immature spines [23]. Astrocytes have been shown to play a

crucial role in ischemic tolerance via the activation of P2X7 receptors, which trigger

upregulation of HIF-1α [24].

Neuronal PAS (NPAS) proteins containing a DNA-binding Per-Arnt-Sim

domain function in vascular and nervous system development. In mice, NPAS1 is

responsible for cortical interneuron generation [25], whereas NPAS3 is required for

adult neurogenesis [26]. NPAS1 and NPAS3 also play key roles in lung development

[27, 28]. The homolog of NPAS1/3 in *Drosophila*, Trachealess (Trh), has been well

studied for its involvement in formation of the respiratory tracheal system. Trh is a

master regulator of tracheal cell fates, activating gene expression to induce tracheal

development [29, 30]. However, the role of Trh in the development of other tissues,

particularly the nervous system, is unknown. In this study, we found altered synaptic

bouton morphology at the NMJs of *trh^1/trh^2* mutants. By performing *trh-RNAi*

knockdown and *UAS-trh* transgene rescue experiments, we show that *trh* is required

in tracheal cells for normal bouton formation. Defective tracheal branching in the

trh^1/trh^2 mutant mimics the effect of hypoxic conditions during larval development,

and supplying higher than normal oxygen levels restored normal bouton morphology.

We further show that glial cells respond to hypoxia by elevating Wnt/Wg expression

to mediate synaptic bouton remodeling through HIF1-α/Sima in *Drosophila*. Finally,

we reveal that this synaptic remodeling maintains normal synaptic transmission and it

is required for normal locomotion in larvae.

Results

trh modulates synaptic bouton formation non-cell autonomously

To understand the possible role of Trh in synapse formation, we examined NMJ morphology in the *trh* mutants. Since both trh^1 and trh^2 loss-of-function alleles are homozygous lethal [31-33], we examined the trans-heterozygous trh^1/trh^2 mutant that survive to adult stages and compared it to wild-type (w^{1118}) and heterozygous $trh^1/+$ controls. Synaptic boutons of w^{1118} and $trh^1/+$ NMJs were evenly spaced along the axonal terminals, displaying the typical "beads-on-a-string" pattern (Fig 1A, upper and middle panels, enlarged images at right). Strikingly, the trh^1/trh^2 mutant larvae exhibited aberrant NMJ morphology in that their synaptic boutons were small and formed clusters without discernable connections, particularly at the terminals (Fig 1A, bottom panel); a phenotype described as "bunch boutons" [34]. This bunch bouton phenotype in the trh^1/trh^2 mutant was detected at a high frequency; 18% of total boutons were bunched compared to 3% for $trh^1/+$ and 0% for w^{1118} (Fig 1B). Of the 12 trh^1/trh^2 NMJs we examined, 11 possessed at least one bunch, with an average of 5 bunches per NMJ. Each bunch consisted of 3 to 10 small boutons (mean = 4.3). The $trh^1/+$ larvae exhibited a much weaker phenotype; only 4 of 10 examined larvae had 1 or 2 bunches, with an average of 5 small boutons per bunch. We did not observe a bunch bouton phenotype in any of the nine w^{1118} NMJs we assayed (Fig 1B). Although the percentage of bunch boutons in the trh^1/trh^2 mutant was greatly increased, total bouton number was only slightly higher than that observed in controls, suggesting that bunch boutons form at the expense of normal ones (Fig 1B). We also assessed the percentage of satellite boutons that are also small ones stemmed from normal-size boutons, and are often observed in wild-type NMJs. We observed some satellite boutons in the w^{1118} control and the trh^1/trh^2 mutant, and found no significant

differences between them (Fig S1A). Given the small size and clustering of synaptic

boutons in the trh^1/trh^2 mutant, we examined whether these bunch boutons express

synaptic proteins normally. We found that the synaptic vesicle protein Synapsin (Syn

in Fig 1A) was normally distributed relative to control, but the active zone protein

Bruchpilot (Brp) was expressed at higher levels in bunch boutons (Fig S1B). The

postsynaptic glutamate receptor, as revealed by GluRIIA (Fig S1C) and GluRIII (Fig

S1B) signal, as well as dPAK (Fig S1C) were also localized in bunch boutons, which

were surrounded by the subsynaptic reticulum protein Dlg (Fig S1D). Thus, although

the Brp signal intensity in the trh^1/trh^2 mutant was stronger than in the wild-type, the

composition of synaptic proteins in bunch boutons was largely similar to that of

normal-sized boutons.

As trh is expressed in both tracheal and nervous systems during embryonic

stages [35], altered bouton morphology in the $trh^1/trh2$ mutant could be due to a lack

of trh in neurons, tracheal cells or other cells/tissues. Therefore, we performed trh-

$RNAi$ knockdown by using tissue-specific GAL4 drivers for trachea (btl-$GAL4$),

neurons ($elav$-$GAL4$), glia ($repo$-$GAL4$), and muscles (MHC-$GAL4$). We observed a

dramatic increase in bunch boutons upon tracheal trh knockdown using btl-$GAL4$ (Fig

1C and 1D). In contrast, trh-$RNAi$ alone or using $elav$-$GAL4$, $repo$-$GAL4$ or MHC-

$GAL4$ failed to replicate the bunch bouton phenotype (Fig 1D).

To further confirm the necessity of tracheal trh for normal bouton formation,

we performed a rescue experiment of the trh^1/trh^2 phenotype. When we expressed a

UAS-trh transgene in the trachea of the trh^1/trh^2 mutant upon using the tracheal btl-

$GAL4$ driver, the bunch bouton phenotype was suppressed (Fig 1E and 1F). Controls

bearing only the btl-$GAL4$ driver or the UAS-trh transgene still contained the

comparably high numbers of bunch boutons observed in trh^1/trh^2 (Fig 1B) or upon

tracheal *trh-RNAi* knockdown (Fig 1D). These results indicate that *trh* is required in

the trachea for normal bouton formation.

Hypoxia induces bunch bouton formation

Apart from specifying the tracheal cell fate, Trh is also involved in the

branching of tubular structures during post-embryonic stages [30]. Therefore, we

examined the tracheal phenotypes in the trh^1/trh^2 larvae and observed an increase of

the number of terminal branches in the dorsal branch of the third segment (Fig S2A

and S2B). Furthermore, we identified morphological defects such as tracheal breaks

and tangles, suggesting structural defects in the trh^1/trh^2 larvae (arrows in Fig S2A).

Tracheal branching activity is enhanced under hypoxia [18]. Thus, the increased

number of terminal branches in trh^1/trh^2 could be a compensatory mechanism for

defective trachea formation.

To understand whether trh^1/trh^2 mutant cells are under hypoxia, we used the

hypoxia biosensor GFP-ODD, in which the GFP is fused to the oxygen-dependent

degradation (ODD) domain of Sima, under the control of the *ubiquitin-69E* (*ubi*)

promoter [36]. We first confirmed that GFP-ODD signal was low under normoxia

(21% O_2) and enhanced under hypoxia (5% O_2, Fig 2A) in wild-type late-stage

embryos when tracheal tubules are already formed and functioning [36]. Indeed,

enhanced GFP signal was ubiquitous under hypoxia in wild-type embryos, with some

pronounced focal GFP signals (Fig 2A, upper row, and Fig S2C). The signal of

mRFP-nls, also under the control of *ubi* promoter as an internal control, remained

constant under hypoxia (Fig 2A, bottom row, and Fig S2D) [36]. Quantification of the

GFP/RFP ratio revealed a significant difference between normoxia and hypoxia

conditions (Fig 2B). We then examined whether oxygen supply is deficient in the

trh^1/trh^2 mutant by measuring the GFP-ODD signals. We detected higher GFP-ODD

signal under hypoxia in the mutant compared to *w^{1118}* control (Fig 2A and Fig S2C).

The heterozygous *trh^1/+* presented similar GFP-ODD signal to *w^{1118}*. Quantification

of the GFP/RFP ratio also demonstrated a significant increase in GFP-ODD signal in

trh^1/trh^2 (Fig 2B), supporting that the *trh^1/trh^2* mutant senses reduced oxygen levels.

Thus, formation of bunch boutons in the *trh^1/trh^2* mutant could be caused by

hypoxia. To test this hypothesis, we reared wild-type larvae under hypoxia (5%) and

assessed synaptic bouton morphology at the third instar stage. Consistently, we

observed small clustered boutons, mirroring the bunch bouton phenotype, at NMJs

(Fig 2C and 2D). Furthermore, when we subjected the *trh^1/trh^2* mutant to a high

oxygen level (50%), the bunch bouton phenotype was completely suppressed, with

trh^1/trh^2 NMJs exhibiting normal bouton morphology (Fig 2C and 2D). These results

suggest that hypoxia due to the defective tracheal system in the *trh^1/trh^2* mutant

induces the bunch bouton phenotype, and that this phenotype can be suppressed by

extra oxygen supply.

Glial HIF-1α/Sima mediates bunch bouton formation

HIF-1α/Sima mediates the response to low oxygen supply [37, 38]. Protein

levels of Sima are increased in wild-type *Drosophila* embryos subjected to hypoxia

[39], leading to transcriptional activation of downstream target genes and the

induction of tracheal branching [18]. We overexpressed Sima in tracheal cells,

neurons, glia, or muscle cells by tissue-specific drivers to investigate which types of

cells may play a role in modulating synaptic bouton formation. Overexpressing Sima

in trachea caused embryonic lethality, preventing us from observing NMJ phenotypes.

Larvae in which Sima was overexpressed in muscles, neurons, and glia could survive

to the third instar stage and we detected a substantial number of bunch boutons upon

glial Sima overexpression (Fig 3A and 3B). This result shows that the hypoxia-

responding factor Sima is capable of inducing bunch bouton formation when

overexpressed in glia.

If glial Sima is the factor responsible for responding to hypoxia in the trh^1/trh^2

mutant, reducing the Sima level in glia would suppress bunch bouton formation.

Accordingly, we expressed the *sima-RNAi* transgene, which could effectively deplete

sima expression (Fig S3A), using *repo-GAL4* in the trh^1/trh^2 mutant. As our

prediction, the bunch bouton phenotype was almost completely suppressed upon glial

sima knockdown (Fig 3C and 3D). In controls, trh^1/trh^2 mutants carrying only the

UAS-sima-RNAi transgene or the *repo-GAL4* driver still exhibited large numbers of

bunch boutons (Fig 3C and 3D). We also tested whether low oxygen level-induced

bunch bouton formation is mediated through Sima in glia. Bunch bouton phenotypes

were detected in controls carrying either *repo-GAL4* or *UAS-sima-RNAi* when raised

in 5% O_2 (Fig 3E). However, almost no bunch boutons were detected in larvae

carrying both *repo-GAL4* and *UAS-sima-RNAi* when raised in the same low-oxygen

environment (Fig 3E and 3F). We also examined Sima protein levels in larvae, and

found ubiquitous increases (including in Repo-positive glia) in the trh^1/trh^2 mutant or

for the control under the 5% O_2 condition (Fig S3B). Thus, glial Sima mediates the

hypoxia response in the trh^1/trh^2 mutant and in the low O_2 condition to modulate

synaptic bouton formation.

Glial Wg remodels bouton morphology

Next, we explored possible signals transduced from glia to neurons in

response to hypoxia. The glia-secreted Wingless (Wg) signaling molecule regulates

synaptic growth at *Drosophila* NMJs [40, 41]. Therefore, we examined whether Wg

can be induced under hypoxia in the trh^1/trh^2 mutant. Wg signal was enriched around

the synaptic boutons of wild-type NMJs (Fig 4A), similar to previous reported

staining patterns [40, 42]. Although the pattern of Wg signal at $trh^1/+$ NMJs was

similar to that of w^{1118}, we detected much higher levels of Wg at trh^1/trh^2 NMJs (Fig

4A). Quantification of Wg immunofluorescence intensities normalized to co-stained

HRP revealed a ~3-fold increase relative to w^{1118} and $trh^1/+$, respectively (Fig 4B).

We then examined whether Sima is required for the enhanced Wg expression in the

trh^1/trh^2 mutant. In a trh^1/trh^2 mutant carrying *repo-GAL4*, Wg levels were also

increased 3.0-fold relative to the *repo-GAL4* control (Fig 4C, 4D). When we reduced

sima levels in the trh^1/trh^2 mutant by *repo-GAL4*-driven *UAS-sima-RNAi*, Wg signal

was suppressed to a level equivalent to that in the *repo-GAL4* control (Fig 4C and 4D).

Interestingly, *sima-RNAi* knockdown in glia of the *repo-GAL4* control had no effect

on the Wg level (Fig 4C and 4D), suggesting that Sima is induced to upregulate Wg

expression in the trh^1/trh^2 mutant but has no role in basal Wg expression in the wild-

type. Taken together, we suggest that glial Sima is required for Wg upregulation at

the NMJs of the trh^1/trh^2 mutant.

If glia-secreted Wg is responsible for bunch bouton induction in the trh^1/trh^2

mutant, then glia-specific knockdown of *wg* in that mutant should suppress bunch

bouton formation. Indeed, the bunch bouton phenotype was almost undetectable in the

trh^1/trh^2 mutant also bearing *repo-GAL4* and the *UAS-wg-RNAi* transgene (Fig 4E and

4F). In control, bunch boutons were still prominent in the trh^1/trh^2 mutant bearing

only *UAS-wg-RNAi* (Fig 4E and 4F). Inactivation of Wg signaling has been shown to

induce unbundled filaments and a reduction of the more stabilized loops upon

immunostaining for the microtubule-binding protein Futsch [41, 43]. To show that

elevated Wg signaling remodels presynaptic bouton structure in the *trh^1/trh^2* mutant,

we examined Futsch-labeled microtubules within synaptic boutons and found

significantly more Futsch-positive loops within the boutons (Fig S4A and S4B),

supporting the elevation of presynaptic Wg signaling. Taken together, these results

suggest that Wg plays a prominent role in the *trh^1/trh^2* mutant to transduce the

hypoxia signal from glia to remodel presynaptic bouton structure.

Since glial processes can invade synaptic boutons to match the growth of

NMJs [44], we were intrigued to assess whether glia the *trh^1/trh^2* mutant exhibits

morphological change. In a live preparation of NMJs, we found that glial processes

invaded the area of synaptic boutons in the *trh^1/trh^2* mutant, whereas glial processes

were comparatively restrained in the control (Fig S4C). Quantification of fluorescent

signals of glial process overlaying the synaptic bouton area revealed significantly

greater area of overlap in the *trh^1/trh^2* mutant relative to control (Fig S4D). This

increased extent of glial processes in the synaptic area may facilitate signal

transduction from glia to synaptic boutons for structural reorganization.

Impaired crawling behavior in the *trh* mutant

Given the evident morphological changes at *trh^1/trh^2* NMJs, we wondered if

locomotion is affected in mutant larvae. We observed larvae crawling under free-

movement conditions and found that wild-type control and *trh^1/+* heterozygous larvae

presented smooth crawling paths with an average speed of ~0.5 mm/s (Fig 5A and

5B), whereas the trh^1/trh^2 larva had shorter paths and a slower speed of 0.14 mm/s.

The head turning frequency in trh^1/trh^2 was comparable to both controls, not

contributing to the slow moving (Fig 5C). Larval crawling is a rhythmic behavior

involving a series of periodic strides (S1 Movie) [45-48]. We noticed uncoordinated

crawling in trh^1/trh^2 larvae, with their posterior body segments failing to follow the

rhythmic movement (S2 Movie). We recorded larval forward crawling and

constructed kymographs to represent the stride cycle. In wild-type larvae, normal and

consistent periodic strides were apparent with regular head and tail displacements (Fig

5D, left panel). Similar to the wild-type, head movements of trh^1/trh^2 larvae were

smooth and periodic, albeit slower. However, tail movements of trh^1/trh^2 larvae were

abrupt (Fig 5D, right panel). Approximately 70% of the strides of trh^1/trh^2 larvae

were uncoordinated (Fig 5E), which might contribute to the slower crawling of the

trh^1/trh^2 mutant.

This uncoordinated stride cycle prompted us to examine the bouton

morphology in anterior and posterior segments of trh^1/trh^2 larvae. Strikingly, we

detected the bunch bouton phenotype in segments A2-A4 of individual trh^1/trh^2

mutant larvae, whereas bouton morphology in their respective posterior A5 and A6

segments was relatively normal (Fig 6A). In fact, we seldom observed the bunch

bouton phenotype in posterior segments (Fig 6B). In wild-type larvae, all segments

we examined had normal bouton morphology (Fig 6A and 6B). While bunch boutons

appeared in A2-A4 segments, the total numbers of boutons were comparable in all

segments between wild-type and trh^1/trh^2. We further examined whether Wg signal

from glia has any effect on modifying bouton morphology in trh^1/trh^2 larvae. Glial

wg-RNAi knockdown suppressed bunch bouton formation in the anterior A3 segment,

but had no effect on the morphological phenotype of the posterior A6 segment (Fig

6E). Thus, induction of bunch boutons is specific to anterior A2-A4 segments.

Given the bunch bouton phenotype in trh^1/trh^2 larvae, we assessed basal

synaptic transmission properties, firstly at muscle 6 of anterior A3 segments.

Amplitude of evoked junctional potential (EJP), as well as the amplitude and

frequency of miniature EJP (mEJP), were comparable among controls and trh^1/trh^2

larvae (**Fig 7A-7E**). The quantal content, calculated by dividing the EJP amplitude

with that of mEJP, were also equivalent (**Fig 7F**). We then evaluated the synaptic

transmission properties of muscle 6 for posterior A6 segments. Although the

amplitude and frequency of mEJP and the EJP amplitude in trh^1/trh^2 larvae remained

similar to controls, we did detect a significant reduction in the quantal content of

mutant larvae (**Fig 7F**). Thus, the impaired synaptic activity of posterior segments of

mutant larvae seems to be consistent with their defective stride cycle.

Discussion

Here, we demonstrate that Trh, a member of the NPAS protein family, non-cell autonomously regulates synaptic bouton formation at NMJs through a hypoxia response from glia. We observed small-sized and clustered boutons, so-called bunch boutons, at the NMJs of *trh* mutant larvae or larvae reared at low oxygen levels. The abnormal bouton morphology at *trh* NMJs could be suppressed by reducing levels of the hypoxia response factor Sima in glia. We further showed that Sima enhanced the Wg signal from glia to cause bunch bouton formation. Although normal synaptic transmission was detected at NMJs located in anterior segments of larvae bearing bunch boutons, reduced synaptic transmission was found in posterior segments lacking bunch boutons of the *trh* mutant, suggesting that glia-induced bunch bouton formation might be a homeostatic response to restore normal synaptic transmission. Imbalanced synaptic functioning of mutant NMJs might contribute to the uncoordinated stride cycles detected in the *trh* mutant, slowing larval crawl speed. Thus, we provide a model for studying the glial responses that modulate synaptic remodeling during hypoxia.

Glia play a critical role in response to hypoxia in the *trh* mutant

Animal cells adapt to hypoxia by triggering the expression of HIF-1α/Sima, the master transcriptional regulator of the hypoxia response [49]. We observed defective tracheal structure in the *trh* mutant (Fig S2A), which may result in hypoxic conditions inside the larval body. The increase in terminal branch number (Fig S2B) may be a response to oxygen supply deficiency [18]. Moreover, the increases in Sima protein levels and *ODD-GFP* reporter expression indicate reduced internal oxygen levels (Fig

2A, 2B and S3B). Finally, the bunch bouton phenotype in the *trh* mutant was

recapitulated by rearing larvae under hypoxia, and it was suppressed by rearing larvae

under hyperoxia. Taken together, these observations suggest that cells in the *trh*

mutant sense low oxygen levels caused by the defective tracheal system and respond

by elevating Sima protein levels. It is not clear how profound this effect is for other

types of larval cells. Based on our ODD-GFP and Sima immunostaining patterns (Fig

2A, 2B and S3B), many types of cells are likely to be affected [50]. Our results also

suggest that Trh has a late developmental role in tracheal morphogenesis, in addition

to its well-characterized role in early tracheal cell fate specification [29, 30]. Unlike

the mammalian homologs NPAS1 and NPAS3 that function in the nervous system,

the *Drosophila* NPAS1/3 homolog Trh is more dedicated to tracheal development.

Glia induce synaptic remodeling

We suggest that glia is the major cell type mediating bunch bouton formation

in the *trh* mutant under hypoxia. HIF-1α/Sima was ubiquitously, including glia,

increased in both the *trh^1/trh^2* mutant and the control grown under hypoxia (Fig S3B).

Importantly, by manipulating Sima expression in glia we could regulate bunch bouton

formation (Fig 3). Elevated Sima levels induce tracheal sprouting in tracheal cells, as

well as protrusions in non-tracheal cells [18]. Interestingly, we also observed

increased overlap of glial processes with synaptic area in the *trh* mutant, indicative of

a glial response (Fig S4C, S4D). Several types of cells in *Drosophila* have been

shown to respond to hypoxia [39, 51]. For instance, under hypoxia, elevated Sima

levels induce the expression of Breathless (Btl, the FGF receptor) in tracheal cells that

branch out seeking cells that express Branchless (Bnl)/FGF, with this latter process

also being partially dependent on Sima [18, 19]. In an alternative pathway, atypical

soluble guanylyl cyclases that are less sensitive to nitric oxide than conventional

soluble guanylyl cyclases can mediate graded and immediate hypoxia responses

mainly in neurons [52, 53]. *Drosophila* glia have not been reported to sense and

respond to hypoxia, but mammalian astrocytes in the central nervous system have

been shown to be involved in these processes. In a middle cerebral artery occlusion

mouse model, astrocyte activation was shown to play a crucial role in ischemic

tolerance, which is mediated through P2X7 receptor-activated HIF-1α upregulation

[24]. Under physiological hypoxia, reduced mitochondrial respiration leads to the

release of intracellular calcium and exocytosis of ATP-containing vesicles, thereby

signaling the brainstem to modulate animal breathing [54]. Our results reveal a role

for *Drosophila* larval glia in sensing hypoxia via the conventional HIF-1α/Sima

pathway, warranting further detailed study.

We also demonstrated that under hypoxia, glia modulate the formation of

synaptic boutons (Fig 3). These results clearly place the glia-modulated morphology

of synaptic boutons in the context of hypoxia responses. Several studies have

suggested that glia play important roles in regulating synaptic morphology at

developmental stages or in response to neural insult. Perisynaptic Schwann cells

surround nerve terminals and express neurotransmitter receptors, modulating synaptic

efficacy upon nerve stimulation at mouse NMJs [55]. After nerve injury, Schwann

cells participate in synaptic homeostasis and remodeling during NMJ re-innervation

[56]. Chronic hypoxia causes hypomyelination, leading to synaptic reduction in the

mouse cortex, which could be rescued by genetically-induced or drug-enhanced

hypermyelination [57]. In *Drosophila*, expansion of glial structures to synaptic

boutons matches synaptic growth [44]. Glial invasion of the synaptic region is also

suggested to clear presynaptic debris of unstable boutons during activity-dependent

synaptic growth [58]. Our study further establishes that in response to hypoxia, Wg is

a glial signal that modulates synaptic bouton formation. Two sources of Wg, from

presynaptic motor neurons and from glia, are involved in synapse growth and

remodeling [40]. Our results suggest that Sima upregulates the level of Wg secreted

from glia to modulate synapse formation in the *trh* mutant or in control larvae grown

under hypoxia. In hypoxic macrophages, HIF-1α mediates the induction of Wnt1,

which is a mammalian homolog of Wg [59-61]. Although it is unclear whether Wg is

a direct target of the hypoxia signal Sima in *Drosophila*, we show that the level of Wg

is controlled by glial Sima (Fig 4C, 4D) and that it mediates Sima-induced bunch

bouton formation at *trh* NMJs (Fig 4E, 4F). As a secreted morphogen, Wg functions

in both pre-synaptic and post-synaptic sites [41]. At presynaptic terminals, the

canonical Wg pathway induces microtubule loop formation to regulate synaptogenesis

[43]. We also detected an increase in microtubule loops in the *trh* mutant (Fig S4A,

S4B), consistent with a role for Wg in mediating the hypoxia response by modulating

synapse formation. Postsynaptic Wg signaling leads to subsynaptic reticulum

differentiation [41], which was not apparent in the *trh* mutant (Fig S1D), suggesting

that Wg might be a component of the complex hypoxia response that induces synapse

remodeling. Brief exposure to hypoxia induces immature spines and impaired

synaptic function in hippocampal neurons [23]. The morphological change to bunch

boutons at *trh* NMJs (Fig 1A and 1B) was not accompanied by altered synaptic

transmission (Fig 7A-F), which may reflect a compensatory effect during long-term

hypoxia.

The bunch bouton phenotype has also been described in *spastin* mutants [34, 62]. As

an AAA ATPase, Spastin severs microtubules to facilitate transport to distal axon

segments [63, 64]. Accordingly, the *spastin* mutant also exhibits a lack of

microtubules at terminal boutons [62]. In contrast, the *trh* mutant presented an

increase of microtubule loops (Fig S4A, S4B). Microtubule loops have been linked to

synaptic bouton stabilization, and an excess of microtubule loops has been associated

with increased synaptic bouton formation [65, 66]. The altered morphology of bunch

boutons may be part of the structural changes necessary to maintain normal synaptic

transmission under hypoxia. The *trh* and *spastin* mutants also exhibit differences in

synaptic function, with loss of *spastin* function slightly enhancing spontaneous

synaptic transmission release but reducing evoked synaptic transmission [62]. Thus,

although the morphology of synaptic boutons at *trh* NMJs resembles that of *spastin*

mutants, bunch boutons at *trh* NMJs retain synaptic functions, unlike the impaired

synaptic transmission of *spastin* mutant boutons.

Difference of *trh* NMJs in anterior and posterior segments

The size of NMJs in muscles 6/7 decreases from the anterior to posterior

segments, which could represent a coupling with muscle growth [67, 68], thereby

maintaining similar electrophysiological efficacy at anterior and posterior NMJs (Fig

7A-F). Interestingly, our findings show that synaptic responses in the *trh* mutant

differ, with bunch boutons only appearing in anterior segments (Fig 6A and 6B).

Furthermore, synaptic transmission at *trh* NMJs remained normal in anterior A3

segments but was impaired in posterior A6 segments (Fig 7A-F). These observations

are consistent with bunch bouton formation being part of a homeostatic response to

restore synaptic activity. Why synapses were not remodeled in posterior segments

remains unclear. Motor neurons in the ventral nerve cord project much longer axons

to muscles in posterior segments compared to anterior ones. It has been shown that

axonal transport to posterior segments is more vulnerable to inefficient transport

conditions. For example, mutation of long-chain Acyl-CoA synthetase impairs the

balance between anterograde and retrograde transport, causing distally-biased axonal

aggregations and affecting the growth and functioning of synapses [69]. In addition,

larval forward locomotion, propelled by peristatic contraction, is controlled by

different circuits targeting anterior and posterior segments. The GABAergic SEZ-

LN1 neurons specifically control posterior A6 and A7 segmental muscle contraction

by inhibiting A27h premotor neurons, which promotes longitudinal muscle

contraction during larval forward crawling [70]. It is possible that glia-derived Wg

signals from cell bodies located in the ventral nerve cord of the *trh* mutant may not be

efficiently transported to posterior segments during hypoxia. This polar difference in

synaptic activity and bouton morphology may contribute to the uncoordinated

peristatic movements of *trh* larvae.

Methods

Fly stocks

All flies were reared at 25 °C. w^{1118} was used as wild-type control and to backcross with trh^1 or trh^2. Fly strains are as follows: trh^2, *elav-GAL4*, *MHC-GAL4*, *repo-GAL4*, *ok371-GAL4*, *UAS-trh*, *UAS-sima*, and *UAS-sima-RNAi* from Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center (BDSC); trh^1 and *UAS-wg-RNAi* from Kyoto Stock Center, and *UAS-trh-RNAi* from Vienna Drosophila Resource Center (VDRC). Also used were *btl-GAL4* [71], *GFP-ODD* [36], and *the repo-cyto-GFP* line was generated to drive cytoplasmic GFP expression under the control of the 4.3kb *repo* promoter, which recapitulates the full *repo* expression pattern. [72, 73]

Hypoxia or hyperoxia rearing conditions

Larvae in a food vial were transferred at 1 day after egg laying (AEL) to a ProOx (model 110, BioSpherix, Lacona, NY) oxygen-controlled chamber. Oxygen or nitrogen was infused into the chamber to a desired concentration (here, 5% or 50%), which was maintained until assay.

Immunostaining

The NMJ phenotypes were analyzed as previously described [74]. For live tissue preparation, non-fixed larvae were dissected as previously described, before directly incubating larval fillets with anti-horseradish peroxidase (HRP, 1:10) in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) for 10 minutes. Primary antibodies used were against Synapsin (3C11, mouse, 1:100; Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, DSHB), HRP-Cy5 (rabbit, 1:100; Jackson ImmunoResearch), Dlg (mouse, 1:100, DSHB), GluRIIA (mouse, 1:100, DSHB), dPAK (rabbit, 1:1000)[75], GluRIII (rabbit, 1:1000)[76], Brp (nc82, mouse, 1:100, DHSB), Sima (guinea pig, 1:1000)[77], Repo (mouse, 1:1000,

479 DSHB), Wg (4D4, mouse, 1:10, DSHB), and Futsch (22C10, mouse, 1:100, DSHB).

480 Secondary antibodies used were anti-rabbit or -mouse 488, Cy3, or Cy5 (1:1000,

481 Jackson ImmunoResearch).

Image acquisition and processing

Unless specified otherwise, NMJs in muscle 6/7 of A3 segments of wandering third-

instar larvae were analyzed. Confocal images were acquired via LSM510 confocal

microscopy (Carl Zeiss) using 40x water, 40x water immersion, or 100x oil objectives.

All presented images are projections of confocal z-stacks. Numbers of bunch boutons,

total boutons, and microtubule loops were counted manually. The

immunofluorescence intensities of Wg and HRP, as well as the areas of GFP and HRP

signal, were analyzed in ImageJ. Each dot in the bar graph represents the data from a

single NMJ of a larva, and 8-10 NMJs from 2-5 independent experiments were pooled

for quantification. Embryos were acquired by means of LSM510 confocal microscopy

(Carl Zeiss) using a 20x objective, and were analyzed as previously described [36].

Each dot in the bar graph represents data from a single embryo in which fluorescence

was measured in at least 35 cells.

Electrophysiological recordings

496 Basal transmission properties were analyzed at NMJs of muscle 6/7 in specified

497 segments of wandering third-instar larvae as previously described [78], with some

498 modifications. The larval body wall was dissected in cold calcium-free HL3 solution

499 and recorded in HL3 solution containing 0.4 mM $CaCl_2$ at room temperature.

Crawling behavior

Mid third instar larvae (feeding stage) were placed on black agar plates (2% agar with

black food coloring in 25×20 cm^2 dishes) at room temperature for filming. Video

recording by a Sony Xperia Z1 camera started after 1 min habituation and lasted for 5

min, and it was analyzed using Ctrax software [79]. The (x, y) positions were used to

calculate the crawling distance between two successive frames, and crawling speed

was derived by dividing total distance travelled by time. The change in angle of larvae

between two frames was divided by time to represent rotational speed. Our forward

crawling assay was a modification of a previous study [48]. Larvae were transferred

into a tunnel (~1 mm width) made in 2% black agar. Specimens were video-recorded

for 3-10 mins using a Leica S8 APO microscope. Kymographs were constructed using

the MultipleKymograph plug-in for ImageJ (NIH). Only forward crawling was

counted, and 7-10 steps for each of ten larvae were analyzed for each genotype.

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 Figure legends

Fig 1. Bunch bouton formation at *trh* NMJs

(A, C, E) Immunostaining images show NMJs of muscle 6/7 for Syn (green) and HRP

(red) in w^{1118}, $trh^1/+$, and trh^1/trh^2 (A), *btl-GAL4* and *btl-GAL4/trh-RNAi* (C), and

UAS-trh trh^1/trh^2, *btl-GAL4 trh^1/trh^2*, *btl-GAL4/UAS-trh trh^1/trh^2* (E). Dashed squares

in (A) are enlarged in right panels. White arrows indicate clusters of bunch boutons.

Scale bars are 10 μm. (B, D, F) Bar graphs with data dots within each bar show

percentages (mean ± standard error of mean, SEM) of bunch boutons to total boutons.

(B) w^{1118}, 0 ± 0%, n = 10; $trh^1/+$, 3.64 ± 1.74%, n = 10; trh^1/trh^2, 18.04 ± 3.65%, n =

10. (D) *trh-RNAi* , 0 ± 0%, n = 10*; btl-GAL4*, 0 ± 0%, n = 10; *btl>trh-RNAi*, 8.64 ±

2.81%, n = 9; *elav-GAL4*, 0 ± 0%, n = 10; *elav>trh-RNAi*, 0 ± 0%, n = 10; *repo-GAL4*,

2.14 ± 1.56%, n = 10; *repo>trh-RNAi*, 0 ± 0%, n = 10; *MHC-GAL4*, 0 ± 0%, n = 10;

MHC>trh-RNAi, 0.77 ± 0.77%, n = 10. (F) *UAS-trh trh^1/trh^2*, 13.80 ± 3.00%, n = 10;

btl-GAL4 trh^1/trh^2, 13.56 ± 2.95%, n = 10; *btl-GAL4/UAS-trh trh^1/trh^2*, 0.88 ± 0.64%,

n = 8. (B, bottom panel) Total bouton numbers in w^{1118} (74.10 ± 4.72, n = 10), $trh^1/+$

(89.60 ± 5.16, n = 10), and trh^1/trh^2 (95.00 ± 11.21, n = 9). Statistical significance by

Mann-Whitney test is shown as n.s., no significance; *, $p < 0.5$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p <$

0.001.

Fig 2. Induction of bunch boutons in *trh* mutants by hypoxia

(A) Images of late-stage embryos of w^{1118}, $trh^1/+$, and trh^1/trh^2 carrying the *GFP-*

ODD reporter (top row) and *mRFP-nls* control (bottom row) under normoxia (21% O_2)

or hypoxia (5% O_2). Scale bar represents 40 μm. (B) Bar graphs show mean ± SEM of

the GFP/RFP immunofluorescence intensity ratio (w^{1118} at 21% O_2, 0.18 ± 0.05, n = 6;

w^{1118} at 5% O_2, 0.84 ± 0.15, n = 6; $trh^1/+$ at 21% O_2, 0.09 ± 0.02, n = 6; trh^1/trh^2 at

21% O_2, 0.82 ± 0.15, n = 6). Statistical significance by Mann-Whitney test is shown

as n.s., no significance; **, p < 0.01; ***, p < 0.001. (C) Images of NMJs from

muscle 6/7 immunostained for Syn (green) and HRP (red) from w^{1118} at 21% or 5%

O_2 (left panels) and trh^1/trh^2 (right panels) at 21% or 50% O_2. White arrows indicate

clusters of bunch boutons. Scale bar represents 10 μm. (D) Bar graph shows

percentages (mean ± SEM) of bunch boutons to total boutons (w^{1118} at 21% O_2, 0 ±

0%, n = 10; w^{1118} at 5% O_2, 8.47 ± 1.78%, n = 10; trh^1/trh^2 at 21% O_2, 12.91 ± 2.30%,

n = 10; trh^1/trh^2 at 50% O_2, 0 ± 0%, n = 10). Statistical significance by Mann-

Whitney test is shown as ***, p < 0.001.

Fig 3. Bunch bouton induction by glial Sima at *trh* NMJs

(A, C, E) Images showing NMJs from muscle 6/7 immunostained for Syn (green) and

HRP (red) in *repo-GAL4,* and *repo-GAL4/UAS-sima* (A), *sima-RNAi trh^1/trh^2, repo-*

GAL4 trh^1/trh^2, and *repo-GAL4/sima-RNAi trh^1/trh^2* (C), *sima-RNAi, repo-GAL4,* and

repo-GAL4/sima-RNAi under hypoxia at 5% O_2 (E). White arrows indicate bunch

boutons. Scale bars represent 10 μm. (B, D, F) Bar graphs show percentages (mean ±

SEM) of bunch boutons (B) *ok371-GAL4/UAS-sima*, 0.31 ± 0.31%, n = 10; *repo-*

GAL4/UAS-sima, 8.81 ± 2.22%, n = 10; *MHC-GAL4/UAS-sima*, 1.19 ± 0.64%, n = 10.

(D) *sima-RNAi trh^1/trh^2*, 7.48 ± 1.35%, n = 10; *repo-GAL4 trh^1/trh^2*, 11.56 ± 2.17%, n

= 10; *repo-GAL4/sima-RNAi trh^1/trh^2*, 1.58 ± 0.81%, n = 10. (F) *sima-RNAi* at 5% O_2,

11.14 ± 2.8%, n = 11; *repo-GAL4* at 5% O_2, 12.65 ± 2.66%, n = 10; *repo-GAL4/sima-*

RNAi at 5% O_2, 0.45 ± 0.45%, n = 11. Statistical significance by one-way ANOVA

with Tukey's Multiple Comparison post test is shown as ***, p < 0.001 (B) or Mann-

Whitney test as n.s., no significance; **, p < 0.01; ***, p < 0.001 (D, F).

Fig 4. Wg induction from glia modulates synaptogenesis at *trh* NMJs

(A, C, E) Images showing NMJs of muscle 6/7 immunostained for Wg (green) and HRP (red) in w^{1118}, $trh^1/+$, and trh^1/trh^2 (A); *repo-GAL4*, *repo-GAL4/sima-RNAi*, *repo-GAL4 trh^1/trh^2*, and *repo-GAL4/sima-RNAi trh^1/trh^2* (C); and for Syn (green) and HRP (red) in *wg-RNAi trh^1/trh^2* and *repo-GAL4/wg-RNAi trh^1/trh^2* (E). White arrows indicate clusters of bunch boutons. Scale bars represent 10 μm. (B, D, F) Bar graphs show averages (mean ± SEM) of normalized Wg to HRP intensities. w^{1118}, 0.18 ± 0.03, n = 8; $trh^1/+$, 0.15 ± 0.02, n = 9; trh^1/trh^2, 0.49 ± 0.07, n = 9 (B), *repo-GAL4*, 0.23 ± 0.04, n = 11; *repo-GAL4/sima-RNAi*, 0.25 ± 0.02, n = 10; *repo-GAL4 trh^1/trh^2*, 0.68 ± 0.16, n = 8; *repo-GAL4/sima-RNAi trh^1/trh^2*, 0.25 ± 0.05, n = 9 (D), and percentages (mean ± SEM) of bunch boutons in *wg-RNAi trh^1/trh^2*, 17.19 ± 3.52%, n = 8; *repo-GAL4/wg-RNAi trh^1/trh^2*, 0.68 ± 0.68%, n = 11 (F). Statistical significance by Mann-Whitney test is shown as n.s., no significance; *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Fig 5. Impaired crawling behavior of the *trh* mutant

(A) Representative 5-minute crawling traces for w^{1118}, $trh^1/+$, and trh^1/trh^2. (B) Bar graphs show average speeds (mean ± SEM in mm/s) for w^{1118}, 0.64 ± 0.09, n = 13; $trh^1/+$, 0.45 ± 0.08, n = 12; trh^1/ trh^2, 0.14 ± 0.02, n = 14, and average rotational speeds (mean ± SEM in degree/s) for w^{1118}, 7.80 ± 0.62, n = 13; $trh^1/+$, 9.73 ± 1.19, n = 12; trh^1/trh^2, 11.26 ± 1.86, n = 14. Statistical significance by Mann-Whitney test is shown as n.s., no significance; ***, $p < 0.001$. (D) Kymographs show four larval forward crawling strides for w^{1118} and trh^1/trh^2. The green lines show smooth transitions between successive strides, whereas orange lines show abrupt transitions.

(E) Bar graph shows uncoordinated stride percentages (mean ± SEM) in w^{1118} (0 ±

0%, n = 10) and trh^1/trh^2 (69.22 ± 9.57%, n = 10). Statistical significance by Mann-

Whitney test is shown as ***, p < 0.001.

Fig 6. Selective bunch bouton formation at *trh* NMJs of anterior segments

(A) Images show NMJs of muscle 6/7 from abdominal segments A2-A6

immunostained for Syn (green) and HRP (red) in w^{1118} and trh^1/trh^2. White arrows

indicate clusters of bunch boutons. Scale bar represents 10 μm. (B, C) Line graphs

show average percentages (mean ± SEM) of (B) bunch bouton (w^{1118}: A2, 0 ± 0%, n =

10; A3, 0 ± 0%, n = 9; A4, 0 ± 0%, n = 10; A5, 0 ± 0%, n = 10; A6, 0 ± 0%, n = 9;

trh^1/trh^2: A2, 15.40 ± 3.59%, n = 10; A3, 19.80 ± 3.09%, n = 10; A4, 5.11 ± 1.86%, n

= 9; A5, 0.80 ± 0.80%, n = 10; A6, 1.33 ± 1.33%, n = 9) and total bouton numbers

(w^{1118}: A2, 176.60 ± 15.00, n = 10; A3, 76.11 ± 4.77, n = 9; A4, 85.80 ± 4.13, n = 10;

A5, 66.10 ± 5.39, n = 10; A6, 40.00 ± 3.72, n = 9; trh^1/trh^2: A2, 173.20 ± 8.76, n = 10;

A3, 106.60 ± 15.33, n = 10; A4, 74.11 ± 9.90, n = 9; A5, 60.70 ± 9.10, n = 10; A6,

33.11 ± 3.56, n = 9) for w^{1118} (magenta lines) and trh^1/trh^2 (blue lines). Statistical

significance by Mann-Whitney test is shown as n.s., no significance; *, p < 0.05; ***,

p < 0.001. (D) Images showing NMJs of muscle 6/7 immunostained for Syn (green)

and HRP (red) in *wg-RNAi trh¹/trh²* (top panel) and *repo-GAL4/wg-RNAi trh¹/trh²*

(bottom panel) in A6. (D) Bar graph shows percentages (mean ± SEM) of bunch

boutons (*wg-RNAi trh¹/trh²*, 1.60 ± 1.60%, n = 10; *repo-GAL4/wg-RNAi trh¹/trh²*, 0 ±

0%, n = 10). Statistical significance by Mann-Whitney test is shown as n.s., no

significance.

Fig 7. Synaptic transmission at *trh* NMJs.

(A, B) Representative traces of mEJPs (A) and EJPs (B) recorded from NMJs of

muscle 6 of segment A3 (left panels) and A6 (right panels) for w^{1118} and trh^1/trh^2. The

scales for both mEJP and EJP traces are depicted at right. (C-F) Bar graphs show

averages (mean ± SEM) for (C) mEJP amplitudes (w^{1118}/A3, 1.43 ± 0.11, n = 10;

trh^1/trh^2/A3, 1.19 ± 0.12, n = 13; w^{1118}/A6, 1.25 ± 0.11, n = 9; trh^1/trh^2/A6, 1.51 ±

0.20, n = 8); (D) mEJP frequencies (w^{1118}/A3, 1.92 ± 0.13, n = 10; trh^1/trh^2/A3, 2.38 ±

0.27, n = 13; w^{1118}/A6, 2.02 ± 0.34, n = 9; trh^1/trh^2/A6, 1.41 ± 0.21, n = 8); (E) EJP

amplitudes (w^{1118}/A3, 54.61 ± 2.06, n = 10; trh^1/trh^2/A3, 50.89 ± 4.18, n = 13;

w^{1118}/A6, 46.24 ± 3.71, n = 9; trh^1/trh^2/A6, 41.64 ± 5.71, n = 8); and (F) quantal

contents (QC) calculated as EJP/mEJP (w^{1118}/A3, 40.23 ± 3.33, n = 10; trh^1/trh^2/A3,

49.63 ± 3.91, n = 13; w^{1118}/A6, 38.90 ± 3.75, n = 9; trh^1/trh^2/A6, 27.88 ± 1.53, n = 8).

Statistical significance by Mann-Whitney test is shown as n.s., no significance; *, p <

0.05; **, p < 0.01.

Supporting information

S1 Fig. Presynaptic and postsynaptic structures in *trh* mutants

(A) Bar graphs show percentages (mean ± SEM) of satellite boutons to total boutons (w^{1118}, 5.13 ± 1.66%, n = 10; $trh^1/+$, 0.66 ± 0.66%, n = 10; trh^1/trh^2, 2.63 ± 0.97%, n = 10). Statistical significance by Mann-Whitney test is shown as n.s., no significance; *, p < 0.5. (B, C, D) Images showing NMJs of muscle 6/7 immunostained for Brp, GluRIII, and HRP (B), GluRIIA, dPAK, and HRP (C), and Dlg and HRP (D) in w^{1118}, $trh^1/+$, and trh^1/trh^2. Scale bars are 10 μm.

S2 Fig. Tracheal defects in *trh* mutants

(A) A bright-field view of tracheal dorsal branches of $trh^1/+$ (left top panel) and trh^1/trh^2 (right top panel), and tracheal dorsal trunks of trh^1/trh^2 (bottom panels). Numbers denote terminal branches, and arrows indicate a tracheal break (bottom left) and a tracheal tangle (bottom right). Scale bar represents 50 μm. (B) Bar graph shows mean ± SEM of dorsal terminal branches ($trh^1/+$, 5.70 ± 0.15, n = 10; trh^1/trh^2, 7.55 ± 0.28, n = 11). (C) Bar graphs show mean ± SEM of the GFP immunofluorescence intensity (w^{1118} at 21% O_2, 20.33 ± 7.54, n = 6; w^{1118} at 5% O_2, 79.31 ± 17.98, n = 6; $trh^1/+$ at 21% O_2, 13.29 ± 3.64, n = 6; trh^1/trh^2 at 21% O_2, 108.2 ± 14.70, n = 6). (D) Bar graphs show mean ± SEM of RFP immunofluorescence intensity (w^{1118} at 21% O_2, 102.00 ± 15.55, n = 6; w^{1118} at 5% O_2, 109.60 ± 13.12, n = 6; $trh^1/+$ at 21% O_2, 143.00 ± 15.67, n = 6; trh^1/trh^2 at 21% O_2, 151.50 ± 16.77, n = 6). Statistical significance by Mann-Whitney test is shown as n.s., no significance; **, p < 0.01; ***, p < 0.001.

S3 Fig. Efficiency of *sima-RNAi* knockdown and Sima upregulation

(A) Assay for *sima* mRNA levels in *da-GAL4* (control) or *da-GAL4/sima-RNAi* shows

a reduction upon *sima-RNAi* knockdown. The *Rpl19* mRNA levels are comparable in

both genotypes. (B) Images showing central nerve cord immunostained for Sima

(green) and Repo (red) in w^{1118} at 21% O_2, w^{1118} at 5% O_2, and trh^1/trh^2 at 21% O_2.

Arrows indicate glia with high Sima protein levels. Scale bar represents 20 μm.

S4 Fig. Microtubule loops and glial invasion of *trh* NMJs

(A) Images showing NMJs of muscle 6/7 immunostained for HRP (red) and Futsch

(green) in $trh^1/+$ and trh^1/ trh^2. White arrows indicate microtubule loops. Dashed

squares are enlarged in right panels. Scale bar represents 10 μm. (B) Bar graphs show

averages (mean ± SEM) of Futsch loops ($trh^1/+$, 2.92 ± 0.29, n = 12; trh^1/ trh^2, 9.56 ±

1.11, n = 9). (C) 3D images of live tissues showing NMJs of muscle 6/7 carrying

repo-cyto-GFP (green) labeled for HRP (red) in $trh^1/+$ and trh^1/trh^2 by using Imaris.

Synaptic overlap by glia is represented in yellow. Scale bar represents 10 μm. (D) Bar

graph shows percentages (mean ± SEM) of synaptic areas overlapping with glia in

$trh^1/+$, 6.2 ± 0.99%, n = 10; trh^1/trh^2, 16.7 ± 3.66, n = 10. Statistical significance by

Mann-Whitney test is shown as *, $p < 0.05$ or ***, $p < 0.001$.

1003

1004 **S1 Movie. Forward crawling of w^{1118}**

1005

1006 **S2 Movie. Forward crawling of trh^1/trh^2**

Fig. 1

Figure