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3 **Endocrine regulation of female germline stem cells in the fruit fly *Drosophila***
4 ***melanogaster***

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6 Short title: Endocrine regulation of female germline stem cells

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Abstract (100-120 words)

Germline stem cells (GSCs) are critical for the generation of sperms and eggs in most animals including the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster*. It is well known that self-renewal and differentiation of female *D. melanogaster* GSCs are regulated by local niche signals. However, little is known about whether and how the GSC number is regulated by paracrine signals. In the last decade, however, multiple humoral factors, including insulin and ecdysteroids, have been recognized as key regulators of female *D. melanogaster* GSCs. This review paper summarizes the role of humoral factors in female *D. melanogaster* GSC proliferation and maintenance in response to internal and external conditions, such as nutrients, mating stimuli, and aging.

Highlights (≤85 characters including space for each)

- *Drosophila* female germline stem cells (GSCs) are regulated by humoral factors
- Insulin and steroid hormones regulate proliferation and maintenance of female GSCs
- Nutrients, mating and aging affect female GSCs through multiple hormones

Introduction

Regulation of stem cell proliferation and maintenance is a key factor accompanying a number of developmental and physiological events in multicellular organisms [1,2]. Female germline stem cells (GSCs) in the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* are one of the best understood stem cell types and provide an excellent model for study of the regulation of stem cell proliferation and maintenance *in vivo*. It is well known that *D. melanogaster* GSCs reside in their special microenvironment, called the stem cell niche. The niche produces some factors that regulate the balance between GSC self-renewal and differentiation. For example, the bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) ligands Decapentaplegic (Dpp) and Glass bottom boat (Gbb) produced from the niche cell directory activate BMP receptors in GSCs, leading to the repression of the differentiation inducer, *bag-of-marbles (bam)* [3••,4,5,6••]. GSCs that leave the niche cells can escape from BMP signaling, upregulate *bam* expression, and undergo the differentiation process. Many studies have reported that the niche and the paracrine signals from the niche described above have an important role in balancing the self-renewal and differentiation of GSCs. In contrast, how tissue-extrinsic hormonal signals systemically act on stem cells, particularly in response to environmental cues and changes in physiological status is not yet clearly understood in detail.

In the last decade, however, many studies have revealed that several insect hormones play indispensable roles in regulating GSC behavior. In this short review, we summarize the current knowledge of the roles of hormonal and systemic signals, such as steroid hormones and insulins, in GSC proliferation and maintenance in response to external and internal conditions, such as nutritional availability, mating stimuli, and aging.

Roles of insulin and other humoral signaling in diet-dependent GSC maintenance

Drosophila insulin-like peptides (DILPs) are the first example of the hormonal regulation involved in nutrient-dependent GSC maintenance [7]. On a nutrition-rich diet, each female lays an average of over 80 eggs per day. In contrast, egg production, as well as the division rate of GSCs are significantly suppressed when the female is fed a nutrition-deficient diet [8••]. Dr. Daniela Drummond-Barbosa's group clearly demonstrated that brain DILP-producing cells are required for the ovarian response to nutrition. Moreover, DILPs are received in the ovary via a single DILP receptor called the Insulin receptor (InR). InR-dependent signaling not only directly acts on GSCs to stimulate their proliferation and self-renewal, but also indirectly regulates GSCs by increasing the niche cell number and adhesion of GSC to the niche cells [7,8••,9•,10]. Since DILP secretion from brain insulin-producing cells is tightly regulated in response to sufficient nutrients [11], it is quite likely that nutritional input can modify female GSC activity via the insulin signaling pathway. More recently, it is reported that diet reversibly controls escort cell-germ cell interaction via DILP-InR signaling [12].

While DILPs play an indispensable role in diet-mediated GSC proliferation in female *D. melanogaster*, there are other humoral signals regulating GSC number in response to nutrition [13•]. For example, DILPs specifically control the G₂ phase of the GSC cell cycle, while the G₁ phase appears to be regulated by a separate diet mediator [10]. Since a recent GFP-trap screen has found many uncharacterized candidate genes encoding diet-regulating proteins [14], future studies will reveal new candidates involved in diet-dependent GSC maintenance. Furthermore, a recent study shows that diet-regulated signaling and metabolic pathways in adipocytes have a significant role in GSC maintenance in a DILP-independent manner [15••,16,17]. Interestingly, enzymes catalyzing fatty acid oxidation and phosphatidylethanolamine synthesis in

adipocytes regulate GSC maintenance, whereas lipid and iron transport from adipocytes controls the GSC number [15••]. These findings suggest that not only peptides (such as DILPs), but also metabolic products, originating from the diet and produced by internal organs, affect GSC regulation in a product-specific manner. Since all metabolites circulating in the fly body are not produced in adipocytes, metabolites from other tissues may have other roles in GSC regulation.

Ecdysteroid signaling and its role in GSC maintenance

About 5 years after the discovery of DILP-mediated GSC maintenance [7], it was reported that a signaling pathway of the principal insect steroid hormones, ecdysteroids, are indispensable for GSC maintenance in female *D. melanogaster* [18••,19,20•]. While ecdysteroids are best known to control molting and metamorphosis during development [21], this steroid hormone also has a significant impact on adult physiology [22–24]. These studies [18••,19] have demonstrated that the active form of ecdysteroids, 20-hydroxyecdysone (20E), its two nuclear hormone receptors coded by *Ecdysone Receptor (EcR)* and *ultraspiracle (usp)*, and downstream epigenetic machinery have a significant impact on GSCs, controlling GSC maintenance during aging by affecting BMP signaling in GSCs. The downstream targets of EcR/USP, including E74 and E78, are also involved in regulating GSC maintenance [18••,25]. In addition, a genetic mosaic screen has further identified a bunch of ecdysteroid-responsive genes regulating GSC maintenance and other oogenesis processes [26]. Moreover, our group demonstrates that the biosynthesis of ecdysteroids in the ovary is essential for GSC proliferation and maintenance. For example, knockdown of the ecdysteroidogenic enzyme gene *neverland (nvd)* impairs GSC proliferation and maintenance [27•,28].

Ecdysteroid signaling is also involved in the control of early germline differentiation. Ecdysteroids are necessary for the establishment of the identity of escort cells, which coordinate GSC differentiation via somatic-germ cell communication [19]. The EcR/USP complex and its soma-specific co-activator and co-repressor, Taiman and Abrupt, respectively, regulate the niche establishment [19]. These ecdysteroid-signaling components and *let-7* microRNA form a positive feedback loop to modify the Wnt/ β -catenin signaling strength in the germline cells, leading to their normal development [29].

While the adult ovary in female *D. melanogaster* is well known to biosynthesize ecdysteroids [23], it is still unclear which tissue is responsible for ecdysteroid biosynthesis in adult male flies [22,30]. Nevertheless, a recent interesting study reveals that EcR/USP and its downstream genes *ftz-f1* and *E75* are required for stem cell maintenance in the testes [31]. Therefore, it is likely that both male and female GSCs share the similar ecdysteroid-dependent mechanisms to regulate their self-renewal and differentiation.

It is also noteworthy that neuronal ecdysteroid signaling controls female feeding rates and nutritional state of the whole body [32]. Thus, ecdysteroids not only directly act on the ovary to control GSC maintenance, but might also indirectly influence GSCs in a diet-dependent manner.

Ecdysteroids and mating-induced GSC proliferation

While ecdysteroids are important for GSC regulation, it was still unclear what kind of external conditions were required for ecdysteroid signaling to regulate GSCs. In 2016, our group succeeded in partly answering this question, demonstrating that mating stimuli induce GSC proliferation in an ecdysteroid-dependent manner in female *D.*

melanogaster [27•]. We showed that the mated female retains more GSCs compared to the virgin female, and that mating enhances the division of GSCs. Mating increases the ovarian 20E titer due to upregulation of the transcription of some ecdysteroidgenic genes [27•, 28]. The post-mating GSC proliferation is disrupted by *EcR* or *nvd* knockdown in ovarian somatic cells, especially escort cells, but *EcR* knockdown in germ cells had no effect.

The mating-induced GSC proliferation is under the control of Sex peptide (SP), a male seminal fluid protein which is produced from the male accessory gland [33]. Sex peptide is received by its specific receptor, the Sex peptide receptor (SPR), in a small number of SPR-positive sensory neurons (SPSNs), which innervate the uterine lumen and send afferent processes into the tip of the abdominal ganglion [34•, 35•, 36, 37]. The SP-SPR signaling in the SPSNs is required for post-mating responses such as increasing rejection behaviors to further copulation, feeding, ovulation, and egg-laying.

Since SPSNs do not directly innervate into the ovary, a question to be addressed is how the SP-SPR signal eventually transmits the mating information to GSCs. Unknown neuronal and/or endocrine systems downstream of SPSNs would contribute to the upregulation of ovarian ecdysteroid biosynthesis to regulate GSC proliferation. Interestingly, some octopaminergic neurons, whose cell bodies are located at the tip of the abdominal ganglion, directly project to the ovary and regulate the oviposition [38]. It is intriguing to examine whether the mating signal from SPSNs is transmitted to the octopaminergic neurons and is required for mating-induced GSC proliferation.

Besides ecdysteroids, it is noteworthy that the hemolymph level of Juvenile hormone (JH), another important insect hormone, is triggered by mating [39].

Intriguingly, the mating-induced increase of JH titer is also under the control of SP signaling, similar to mating-induced ecdysteroid elevation [39,40]. Moreover, JH signaling promotes gut remodeling to sustain egg production and also suppresses the immune system after mating [39,41,42]. However, disruption of the JH biosynthesis enzyme (JH acid *O*-methyltransferase) in the corpus allatum or JH receptors (Methoprene-tolerant and Germ cell-expressed) in ovarian somatic cells have no effect on mating-induced GSC proliferation, suggesting that JH signaling is not required for mating-induced GSC proliferation [27[•]]. Thus, while the increase in JH titer is essential for the mating-induced morphological and physiological changes after mating, it seems unlikely that JH has a major role in mating-induced GSC proliferation in *D. melanogaster*.

Aging and GSC maintenance

In general, the proliferation and maintenance of stem cells are strongly influenced by animal aging [43]. In female *D. melanogaster*, aging leads to a gradual loss of GSCs and niche cells, and governs the decrease of the BMP level and E-cadherin-mediated GSC-niche adhesion [44[•]]. As a consequence, GSCs in aged females exhibit a prolonged G₂ phase and a delay at the S phase of the cell cycle [10,45[•]]. At the organismal level, aged female flies exhibit decreases in feeding amounts [46] and insulin production [9[•]], which also potentially affect GSC maintenance. In addition, aging may also attenuate ecdysteroid synthesis, as *InR* mutants are defective in terms of ecdysteroid synthesis [47]; conversely, ecdysteroid signaling affects the aging process [48]. Therefore, nutrition, DILPs, and ecdysteroids mutually interact with each other to influence age-associated changes of GSC maintenance.

DNA damage and Reactive oxygen species (ROS), the by-products of

oxidative energy metabolism that have long been suggested as the main causes of aging, accumulate within aging GSCs. Aging GSCs show a decreased regenerative potential, which results in a defective ability to recover from DNA damage [45•]. The regenerative potential is regulated by two key components of the insulin signaling pathway: *foxo* and *Tor* (*Target of rapamycin*). In young flies, Foxo represses Tor activity, pushing the GSCs into quiescent states in response to radiation stress. After the stress, Foxo is deactivated and then Tor overcomes the action of Foxo, followed by the resumption of GSC division and regeneration. On the other hand, in old flies, quiescent GSCs cannot reenter the cell cycle due to over activation of Foxo, leading to the loss of GSCs and differentiating cystoblasts [49••]. Aging-related GSC cell cycle collapse is regulated by the reduction of insulin signaling and ecdysteroid signaling, i.e. indeed due to DNA damage (ROS production). Furthermore, most surprisingly, the lack of cell cycle progression capacity in aging GSCs after ionizing radiation can indeed be rescued by loss of *foxo* [49••], indicating an unexpected “positive” role of insulin signaling in the youth of GSC maintenance.

Aging gradually reduces the number and division ability of GSCs. However, it is still unclear whether aged females can undergo post-mating GSC proliferation. Post-mating increase in GSC number is observed in a 3-week-old female that experienced at least-2 time-mating-induced GSC proliferation [27•]. The rate of increase in GSC number gradually reduced along with aging, suggesting that the female lost post-mating GSC proliferation ability with aging. Aging, diet, and hormones are highly interactive and closely related; next-generation studies will shed light on how these components change adult physiology and fertility.

Conclusion

As described above, the accumulated evidence has shown that DILPs and ecdysteroids coordinately regulate GSC proliferation and maintenance by acting on both ovarian somatic cells and germ cells dependently, in the context of nutrition, mating, and aging (Fig. 1). However, many interesting questions still remain to be answered. Firstly, we need to investigate whether and how humoral factors other than DILPs and ecdysteroids influence GSC proliferation and maintenance. We recently found that a gut-derived peptide hormone directly acts on the ovary to positively regulate mating-induced GSC proliferation in female *D. melanogaster* (T.A., Y.Y., R.N., unpublished). Our transgenic RNAi screen also revealed the existence of additional secreted factors and their receptors, which seem to be involved in mating-induced GSC proliferation (Y.Y., Y.K., T.A., R.N., unpublished). We expect that a complex of humoral factor networks must exist and possibly reflect some external environmental conditions to properly regulate GSC activity. Secondly, which cell types of the niche cells, such as cap cells and escort cells, receive each of the many types of humoral factors, and how multiple signals are integrated to regulate GSC maintenance have not yet been fully understood. Elucidation of the cross-talk among multiple signaling pathways in GSCs and niche cells would be very important for future studies. Finally, whether a part of the identified humoral mechanisms in female *D. melanogaster* is functionally conserved and plays essential roles in regulating GSC maintenance and fertility in other animals including mammals must be examined.

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441 GSC phenotype is not due to DNA damage, but caused by the overactivation of Foxo.
442 The authors have proposed that the balance between Foxo and Tor is crucial for the
443 regeneration of the damaged GSCs.
444

Figure Legend

Figure 1. A cartoon illustrating the mechanisms that regulate the proliferation and maintenance of germline stem cells (GSCs) in female *D. melanogaster*. GSCs are affected by insulin, ecdysteroids, and several metabolites from the fat body and the gut. These hormones and metabolites respond to internal and external conditions, such as nutrition, mating stimuli, and aging. While mating activates juvenile hormone (JH) biosynthesis and there are interactions between ecdysteroids and JHs, it is unclear whether JHs play a direct role in regulating GSC proliferation and/or maintenance.

Fig. 1

