

A role for glia in cellular and systemic metabolism: insights from the fly

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Excitability and synaptic transmission make neurons high-energy consumers. However, neurons do not store carbohydrates or lipids. Instead, they need support cells to fuel their metabolic demands. This role is assumed by glia, both in vertebrates and invertebrates. Many questions remain regarding the coupling between neuronal activity and energy demand on the one hand, and nutrient supply by glia on the other hand. Here, we review recent advances showing that fly glia, similar to their role in vertebrates, fuel neurons in times of high energetic demand, such as during memory formation and long-term storage. Vertebrate glia also play a role in the modulation of neurons, their communication, and behavior, including food search and feeding. We discuss recent literature pointing to similar roles of fly glia in behavior and metabolism.

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Introduction

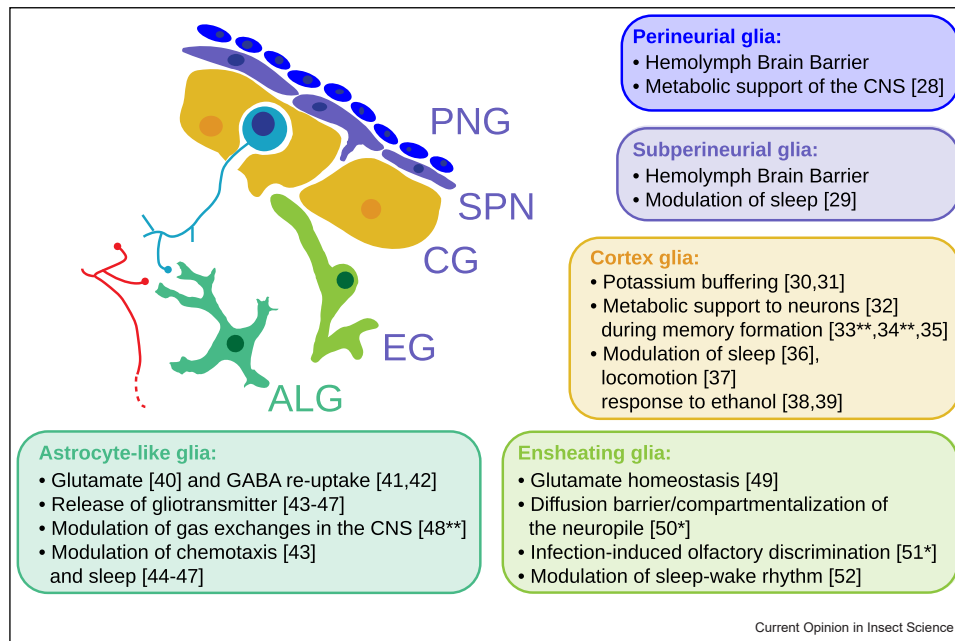
The neuronal computation performed by the brain makes it an energy-expensive organ. In mammals, it consumes about 20% of the oxygen budget [1–3]. In insects, the main energy consumers are the flight muscles [4]. However, the insect nervous system ranks the second highest as, for instance, in flies, the retinal photoreceptors alone account for 10% of the adenosine triphosphate (ATP) consumed [5]. Among the main reasons for this high-energy demand, in mammals and insects, is the maintenance of

transmembrane ion gradients and the process of synaptic transmission, as well as the maintenance of a pool of releasable synaptic vesicles [2,6].

Research using the genetic model insect, *Drosophila melanogaster*, has a long history in the study of metabolism [4] as well as in neurosciences [7]. The relatively small size and numerical simplicity of the anatomically well-mapped fly brain, combined with an extensive genetic toolkit and advances in light-microscopy technologies, have helped to discover fundamental principles of the interaction between an organism's nervous system and its metabolism [8–15]. Moreover, the emergence of in vivo neuronal population and whole-brain imaging in behaving flies further accelerates the study of the role of physiological state on nervous-system processes [16]. In a remarkable study, Mann et al. [17••] monitored in vivo how neuronal activity provokes changes in cell metabolism. Interestingly, neuronal activity drives an increase in cellular ATP concentration that significantly outlasts the recorded neuronal calcium signal, suggesting that the active brain might anticipate future energy consumption. Moreover, not only neuronal activity but also the metabolic flux represented by pyruvate and ATP concentrations, albeit not as precisely, predicted leg movements [17••]. These data suggest that, in the higher-activity state during behavior, neurons not only consume but also drive the production of ATP. This, in turn, triggers an increase in energy metabolism and subsequently in the consumption of nutrients.

Despite this high-energy demand, neurons produce ATP mainly through cellular respiration but do not store nutrients such as carbohydrates or lipids [3]. Therefore, in the insect and mammalian nervous systems, glial cells play the role of nutrient suppliers that support the high energetic demand of neurons. Albeit still largely underrepresented in neuroscience research, the study of glia in *Drosophila* has been growing in the last 10 years, largely thanks to an increased number of genetic tools and, specifically, to the availability of specific Gal4 driver lines that enable precise targeting of the different glia subpopulations in the fly central nervous system (CNS) [18,19]. The structure and function of fly glia, and particularly their relationship to neurons, have been extensively reviewed elsewhere [20–25] (Figure 1). In this review, we will first give an update of the current understanding of the role of glia as metabolic support in the fly brain. In addition to this classical role, it is now

Figure 1



Schematic representation of the different glia subtypes in the fly CNS and summary of their main functions. The perineurial (PNG, blue) and subperineurial glia (SPN, purple) form the hemolymph-brain barrier around the entire nervous system. The cortex glia (CG, orange) encapsulate the neuronal cell bodies. Astrocyte-like glia (ALG, turquoise green) interact with the synapse, while the ensheathing glia (ENG, green) form anatomical borders within the neuropile [30,31,37–42,46,50,51].

accepted that glia participate in the modulation of neurotransmission and therefore of behavior in a large variety of model organisms, including *Drosophila* [25]. As nutrient sensors, glial cells are in a good position to instruct neuronal circuits regulating systemic metabolism, as it has been shown in rodent models [26,27]. While such a role for fly glia remains to be demonstrated, recent advances in the study of the fly glia strongly point to a similar function in metabolism and behavior. We will discuss this possibility in the second part of this review.

Nutrient supply of brain metabolism

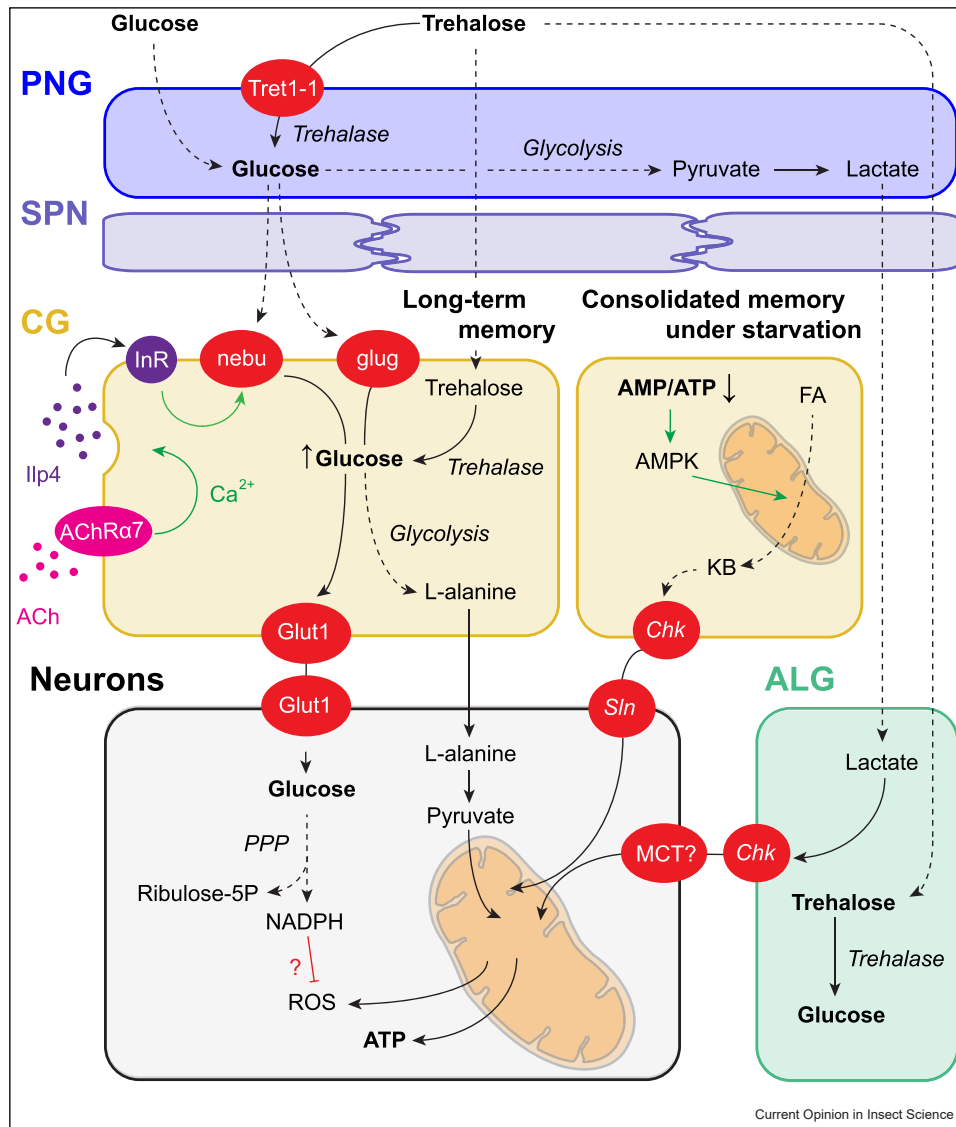
A barrier preventing the uncontrolled exchange of the body's circulating fluids such as blood or hemolymph and the interstitial medium of the brain appeared early in the evolution of animals [53]. In flies, this separation is ensured by the surface glia — perineurial and subperineurial glia — that surround the entire peripheral and central nervous system and form the hemolymph-brain barrier (HBB) [54,55] (Figure 1). Septate junctions between the surface glia cells form the diffusion barrier. The integrity of the HBB is necessary to maintain proper neuronal function. A leak in the HBB would provoke an increase in potassium concentration in the interstitial fluid of the brain, and therefore, trigger neuronal hyperexcitability [56]. However, due to this diffusion barrier, the nutrients present in the hemolymph must pass

through the HBB to reach the brain and satisfy its demand in energy. Interestingly, it has been recently shown that sugar transport at the HBB is upregulated in starved flies [57].

The main circulating sugar in insects is trehalose, a non-reducing disaccharide formed by two molecules of glucose in the fat body. [56] Trehalose can be taken up by the glia [28] (Figure 2). There, it is degraded and enters the glycolysis pathway to produce alanine and lactate. The latter are released by glia and used to fuel neuronal activity. Importantly, glycolysis in glia seems to be essential for brain homeostasis as knockdown of glycolytic enzymes specifically in glia impairs neuronal survival [28]. By contrast, neurons are insensitive to such a manipulation and rather rely on oxidative metabolism [28]. This study further suggested a metabolic compartmentalization of the fly brain similar to the astrocyte–neuron lactate-shuttle model (ANLS) proposed for mammals [58]. This is further supported by the presence of the lactate/pyruvate transporter *Chaski*, which has been found enriched in fly glia, and which is necessary for proper synaptic transmission and the increase in lactate in highly active neurons [32,59•].

In mammals, the ANLS model proposes a system that couples the energy supply by astrocytes to the energy demand of active neurons [58]. Here, a high rate of glutamatergic transmission triggers a

Figure 2



Simplified model of glia-to-neuron nutrient transfers. *Upper half:* Trehalose enters the brain through the perineurial glia (PNG) via the trehalose transporter *Tret1-1*. In PNG cells, trehalose is degraded into glucose that enters the glycolysis pathway to produce lactate, later excreted into the CNS [28]. Lactate can be transferred to neurons through monocarboxylate transporters (MCT) such as *Chaski* (*Chk*), predominantly expressed in glial cells such as astrocyte-like glia (ALG) [32,59•]. The enzyme responsible for the degradation of trehalose (*trehalase*) is also highly expressed in cortex glia (CG) and ALG [60]. *Lower half:* Glucose can be taken up by CG in response to high energetic demand, such as the formation of long-term memory [33••]. CG can sense neuronal activity through the activation of acetylcholine receptors (AChRα7) that trigger the release of the insulin-like peptide 4 (Ilp4) and the autocrine stimulation of the insulin receptor (InR). Activation of this pathway promotes glucose intake by the glucose transporter *Glut1* and transfer to neurons through the *Glut1*. Here, glucose is used by neurons to fuel the pentosephosphate pathway (PPP) that produces NADPH. NADPH provides reducing power that is potentially used by neurons to protect against the ROS resulting from mitochondrial respiration. In parallel, glucose can also enter CG cells via another transporter, 'glucose uptake by glia' (*glug*) [35]. Glucose imported by *glug* enters the glycolysis to produce L-alanine that is then transported to neurons to fuel oxidative metabolism in mitochondria. This mechanism does not seem to be specific to LTM as it also supports the formation of middle-term memory [35]. Starved flies do not form LTM [61,62]. However, during starvation, CG can switch from glucose to ketone bodies (KB) to support the consolidation of another form of memory [34••]. The KB production is triggered in CG by the intracellular energy sensor AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK). KB are transferred to neurons through the MCTs *Chk* and *Silnoo* (*Sln*).

high rate of glutamate reuptake in astrocytes. As glutamate is cotransported along with sodium ions, the Na^+ / K^+ -ATPase is needed to restore the dissipated Na^+ gradient. The demand in ATP further promotes glucose

uptake and upregulates glycolysis in astrocytes that in turn produce pyruvate subsequently transformed into lactate and eventually transferred to neurons. In neurons, lactate is transformed back into pyruvate to fuel the

tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA) cycle in mitochondria. Although not yet fully demonstrated in flies, the metabolic flow described by Volkenhof et al. [28] suggests the existence of a similar mechanism in insects [22]. And although glutamatergic neurons are present in relatively small numbers as compared with cholinergic neurons in insects, fly glial cells express an excitatory amino-acid transporter named *Genderblind* that regulates glutamatergic transmission, and thereby, chemosensory processing and male courtship behavior [63]. Glutamatergic recycling in glia also contributes to long-term memory (LTM) formation and sleep regulation [36,64]. Moreover, the mitochondrial activity of ensheathing glia affects glutamate homeostasis [49]. Glutamatergic neuron activity is upregulated during active behavior such as walking [65]. Given these data and the high degree of glia interconnectivity, that is, through gap junctions [66], it is tempting to hypothesize the existence of a fly equivalent to the ANLS model with glutamatergic neurons as sensors of overall brain activity. In a recent preprint, Rabah et al. (2022) [35] propose an alternative to lactate in energy-demanding cholinergic neurons during LTM formation. In addition to lactate, L-alanine is produced during glycolysis in glia [28,35]. L-alanine can be then transferred to neurons where it is converted back into pyruvate to fuel mitochondrial oxidative metabolism [35] (Figure 2).

In addition to the surface glia, the ensheathing glia were recently shown to form another diffusion barrier around the neuropil [49•]. These cells are polarized, with an apical-like domain facing the neuropil and basolateral-like domain facing the cortex. Interestingly, the basolateral domain is enriched in the Na^+/K^+ -ATPase *Nervana 2*, as discussed above, Na^+/K^+ -ATPase is a key component of the ANLS model. However, there is still no evidence for an involvement of ensheathing glia in nutrient transfer for metabolic support in the fly brain.

Many fundamental questions still remain regarding the role of glia as nutrient supplier of the brain, including the important relationship between a high metabolic flow and high neuronal demand, for example, during metabolic state-dependent behavior. Exciting insights on that topic have been recently brought by the laboratory of Pierre-Yves Plaçais and Thomas Preat [33–35] (Figure 2). In addition to integrating sensory inputs and generating executive motor commands, an important property of the brain is the generation of memory. Memory formation is costly as it requires energy for neuronal firing and synaptic transmission but also an additional flow of nutrients to support gene expression and protein synthesis. Indeed, the formation of LTM is disabled in starved flies that cannot afford these additional costs [61,62]. In a follow-up paper, de Tredern et al. [33••] pinpoint the central role played by cortex glia in the transfer of glucose to neurons to sustain

the formation of LTM. The authors showed that cortex glia respond to neuronal activity through the activation of acetylcholine receptors. This triggers an autocrine insulin-like signaling, which promotes glucose intake in cortex glia. Glucose is then transferred from cortex glia to neurons via the glucose transporter 1 (Glut1) transporter. Interestingly, this glucose transfer is necessary for the formation of LTM, but is not used to fuel glycolysis that could directly provide ATP. In this case, glucose is used in the pentosephosphate pathway that produces ribulose-5-phosphate and the reduced form of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADP^+), NADPH. Ribulose-5-phosphate can be used in nucleotide synthesis or oxidized into pyruvate. NADPH could provide reducing power to protect cells from reactive oxygen species (ROS) produced by the increased mitochondrial oxidative metabolism that takes place during LTM formation [62].

Despite not being able to form LTM, starved flies can nonetheless still form a consolidated memory that does not require protein synthesis [67]. In this situation, and similar to what occurs in mammals when carbohydrates are scarce, the fly's metabolism switches to the use of lipids as an alternative source of energy [34,68]. This lipid source is present as ketone bodies and is again provided to neurons by the cortex glia in the context of starvation (Figure 2). Interestingly, this metabolic switch is orchestrated by the AMP-activated protein kinase, known to be a master energy sensor of the cell [69].

Oxygen supply of cerebral metabolism

Neurons mainly produce their ATP through oxidative metabolism [3]. Therefore, neurons must be supplied not only with nutrients but also with oxygen. In mammals, oxygen is delivered to metabolically active organs through the vascular system, along with nutrients. In the brain, it is thus essential to couple the blood flow to neuronal activity in order to ensure sufficient oxygen perfusion and prevent ischemia and subsequent neuronal cell injuries or death. Owing to their tight association with blood vessels, much of this key function is ensured by astrocytes in the mammalian brain [70,71]. Contrary to the mammalian vascular system, insects use their tracheal system to provide oxygenation of target organs by diffusion. In mammals, oxygen supply is mediated by the modulation of the diameter of blood vessels by smooth muscle cells [70]. In flies, it seems to occur through extension/retraction of the tracheal filipodia. Indeed, the terminal branches of the tracheae are highly dynamic structures that are regulated by oxygen availability [72,73]. Interestingly, Ma and Freeman [48••] recently showed that astrocyte-like glia is closely associated with tracheae and can modulate the dynamics of the filipodia that form their terminations. The interaction between tracheal terminals and astrocyte-like glia

is modulated by astrocytic spontaneous calcium activity located in microdomains close to the tracheae. This is one of the several forms of calcium activity that can take place in glia [74]. In the ventral nerve cord of the fly larva, as in the mouse brain, this microdomain activity is independent of neuronal firing but can be modulated by neurotransmitters [48••,75]. In both cases, microdomain calcium transients are modulated by the production of ROS from mitochondria.

The metabolic roles of glia and their relationship to behavior

Despite having been ignored for a long time, a recent accumulation of evidence from rodents highlights the role of glia in the regulation of information flux in the brain and thereby in the modulation of behavior (see, e.g. [76–80], reviewed in [25]). This is also the case in flies [23–25].

Similar to mammals [81,82], fly glia participate in the homeostatic regulation of sleep [36,44,45,83–85]. In particular, astrocyte-like glia have been recently proposed to be a sensor of sleep need [47•]. Interestingly, sleep has been associated with changes in metabolic rates [86,87], and several populations of fly glia might participate in the metabolic regulation of sleep. First, it has been observed that the permeability of the HBB changes according to the circadian rhythm of the fly [88]. In addition, endocytic trafficking in the HBB has been found to modulate sleep [29]. Second, the taurine transporter (excitatory amino acid transporter, EAAT2) is expressed in ensheathing glia and modulates metabolic rates during sleep [52].

The systemic metabolic state of the animal is another important driver for behavior. Hunger enhances the fly's arousal and affects its locomotion, sensory perception, and motivational state [89]. Hungry flies will start to forage for a food source and, once one is found start to feed. These behaviors and their sequence are tightly controlled by the internal physiological state of the animal [10]. Inside the fly brain, neurons can sense the circulating concentration of sugar such as fructose or glucose and promote or suppress feeding according to this metabolic state [8,11–13]. In addition, the energetic status is also monitored in the periphery at the level of the fat body, the *corpus cardiacum* and the gut. These organs modulate the flies' feeding behavior through endocrine signaling [10,14,15]. Flies, as mentioned above, possess an equivalent of the mammalian insulin/glucagon system [90]. Important data from rodent models have shown that glia participate in the control of food search and feeding behavior through the hypothalamic circuit [26,27]. In flies, cortex glia release and respond to insulin-like peptide 4 in an autocrine manner [33••]. In addition, during development, the subperineurial glia sense amino-acid availability and release insulin-like

peptides to trigger neuroblast proliferation [91,92]. However, despite the recent evidence that points to a role for fly glia in metabolic support of neurons in high-energy demand [33–35], and in the control of behavior [25], there is still no report directly linking glial functions, and their modulation of the physiological state of the animal, to food seeking or consumption behaviors.

Concluding remarks

Despite noticeable structural differences between the vertebrate and invertebrate nervous system, insect glia seems to share most of the properties of their mammalian counterparts [25]. In particular, they provide metabolic support to the energy-demanding neurons that do not have direct access to the main form of circulating sugar, trehalose. This division of labor between glycolytic cellular metabolism in glia and oxidative metabolism in neurons may even be more important in flies than in mammals [22,28]. Contrary to the mammalian ANLS, there is still little evidence in flies that a metabolic shuttle between glia and neurons depends on neuronal activity. De Tredern et al. [33••] suggest that it might be the case by showing that acetylcholine-receptor activation promotes glucose intake in cortex glia. *Drosophila* astrocyte-like glia also respond to other neurotransmitters and signal back to neurons. This has been shown to modulate chemotaxis in larvae as well as sleep in adult flies [43,47•]. It is therefore tempting to speculate that similar mechanisms could participate in the regulation of systemic metabolism of insects.

Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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