Nuclear hormone receptor DHR96 mediates the resistance to xenobiotics but not the increased lifespan of insulin-mutant Drosophila

Sonita Afschar^{a, 1}, Janne M. Toivonen^{b, 1}, Julia Marianne Hoffmann^a, Luke Stephen Tain^a, Daniela Wieser^c, Andrew John Finlayson^a, Yasmine Driege^{d,e}, Nazif Alic^f, Sahar Emran^f, Julia Stinn^a, Jenny Froehlich^a, Matthew D. Piper^f, and Linda Partridge^{a, f,2}

^aMax Planck Institute for Biology of Ageing, 50931 Cologne, Germany; ^bLaboratorio de Genética Bioquímica, Departamento de Anatomía, Embriología y
Genética Animal, Facultad de Veterinaria, Instituto Agroalimentario de A 50013 Zaragoza, Spain; Wellcome Trust Genome Campus, European Bioinformatics Institute, Hinxton, Cambridge CB10 1SD, United Kingdom; ^dDepartment of Molecular Biomedical Research, Unit of Molecular Signal Transduction in Inflammation, Vlaams Instituut voor Biotechnologie, Zwijnaarde, B-9052, Ghent, Belgium; ^eDepartment of Biomedical Molecular Biology, Ghent University, Zwijnaarde, B-9052, Ghent, Belgium; and ^fUniversity College London Institute of Healthy Ageing, and Department of Genetics, Evolution and Environment, University College London, London WC1E 6BT, United Kingdom

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Lifespan of laboratory animals can be increased by genetic, pharmacological, and dietary interventions. Increased expression of genes involved in xenobiotic metabolism, together with resistance to xenobiotics, are frequent correlates of lifespan extension in the nematode worm Caenorhabditis elegans, the fruit fly Drosophila, and mice. The Green Theory of Aging suggests that this association is causal, with the ability of cells to rid themselves of lipophilic toxins limiting normal lifespan. To test this idea, we experimentally increased resistance of Drosophila to the xenobiotic dichlordiphenyltrichlorethan (DDT), by artificial selection or by transgenic expression of a gene encoding a cytochrome P450. Although both interventions increased DDT resistance, neither increased lifespan. Furthermore, dietary restriction increased lifespan without increasing xenobiotic resistance, confirming that the two traits can be uncoupled. Reduced activity of the insulin/Igf signaling (IIS) pathway increases resistance to xenobiotics and extends lifespan in Drosophila, and can also increase longevity in C. elegans, mice, and possibly humans. We identified a nuclear hormone receptor, DHR96, as an essential mediator of the increased xenobiotic resistance of IIS mutant flies. However, the IIS mutants remained long-lived in the absence of DHR96 and the xenobiotic resistance that it conferred. Thus, in Drosophila IIS mutants, increased xenobiotic resistance and enhanced longevity are not causally connected. The frequent co-occurrence of the two traits may instead have evolved because, in nature, lowered IIS can signal the presence of pathogens. It will be important to determine whether enhanced xenobiotic metabolism is also a correlated, rather than a causal, trait in long-lived mice.

lifespan | xenobiotic resistance | IIS | nuclear hormone receptor | DHR96

The aging process can be ameliorated by genetic and environ-
mental interventions, which can also delay or prevent agerelated loss of function and pathology (1–4). Notably, the lifespans of the nematode worm (Caenorhabditis elegans), the fruit fly (Drosophila melanogaster), and the mouse (Mus musculus) can be extended by reduced activity of the insulin/insulin-like growth factor signaling (IIS) network (1–4), which may also be important in human aging (5). This evolutionary conservation indicates that at least some aspects of mammalian aging can be understood by work with invertebrates, with their short lifespans and ease of genetic manipulation.

In C. elegans and Drosophila, the single forkhead box O (FOXO) transcription factor is essential for the increased lifespan upon reduced IIS (6–8), suggesting that altered transcription of the direct or indirect targets of FOXO mediates the changes in physiology required for longer life. In Drosophila, most of the pleiotropic traits induced by lowered IIS are merely correlated with, rather than causal for, extension of lifespan, because they are still present in the absence of Drosophila forkhead box O (dFOXO) (7). Only extended lifespan and increased resistance to xenobiotics of IIS mutants have been demonstrated to require the presence of dFOXO (6–8), suggesting that lowered IIS may extend lifespan through increased detoxification of endobiotic and xenobiotic compounds.

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The metabolism of xenobiotics is divided into three phases: (i) modification, (ii) conjugation, and (iii) excretion. Genome-wide transcript profiles from long-lived animals, including IIS mutant worms and flies (9, 10), long-lived mutant Ames and Little dwarf mice (11), and mice from crowded litters, subjected to dietary restriction or treated with rapamycin (12) all show increased expression of genes involved in phase 1 and 2 drug and xenobiotic metabolism (13). Little mice are also resistant to toxicity from xenobiotic compounds (14), indicating that the gene expression profiles are physiologically relevant. The link between increased lifespan and xenobiotic metabolism has led to the "Green Theory," which suggests that aging results from an accumulation of xenobiotic and endobiotic toxicity as a consequence of a declining detoxification response with age (15).

Significance

Lifespan of animals can be extended by genetic and environmental interventions, which often also induce resistance to toxins. This association has given rise to the Green Theory of Aging, which suggests that the ability to remove toxins is limiting for lifespan. To test this idea, we genetically increased resistance to toxins in Drosophila, but found no consequent increase in lifespan. Furthermore, we could block the xenobiotic resistance of genetically long-lived flies without reducing their lifespan. It will be important to understand whether the xenobiotic resistance of long-lived mice is also a correlated, rather than a causal, trait, and to understand the functional significance of the common increase in xenobiotic resistance in long-lived animals.

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¹S.A. and J.M.T. contributed equally to this work.

²To whom correspondence should be addressed. Email: [partridge@age.mpg.de.](mailto:partridge@age.mpg.de)

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Fig. 1. Enhancing DDT resistance by artificial selection or overexpression of Cyp6g1 in Malpighian tubules did not extend fly lifespan. (A) Both selection lines (selection A and selection B) showed significant DDT resistance compared with three control populations (control lines X, Y, and Z) that had been maintained in parallel under nonselection conditions. (B) Lifespans of the same lines as in A, in the absence of DDT. The DDT-selected lines were shorter-lived than controls ($P < 0.005$ in all comparisons of selection vs. control populations, log-rank test). (C and D) Uo-GAL4 drove expression of Cyp6g1 in Malpighian tubules. This intervention increased resistance to DDT $(P = 0.040$ for comparison with Uo-GAL4/+ and $P = 0.001$ for comparison with UAS-Cyp6g1-8a/+, log-rank test) (C) but did not affect longevity (D) (P > 0.3 for all experimental lines vs. controls, log-rank test).

We have found that, in *Drosophila*, aging and xenobiotic metabolism are independently controlled. We identified a nuclear hormone receptor, DHR96, as required for the increased xenobiotic resistance of long-lived IIS mutants. However, IIS mutants that lack DHR96 are equally long-lived without enhanced resistance to xenobiotics, demonstrating that the association between increased lifespan and xenobiotic metabolism is not causal.

Results

Increased Resistance to the Insecticide Dichlordiphenyltrichlorethan Does Not Increase Lifespan. In Drosophila, increased lifespan from reduced IIS is consistently associated with resistance to the insecticide dichlordiphenyltrichlorethan (DDT), and both traits require the presence of dFOXO (7). We first investigated whether enhanced resistance to DDT would extend lifespan, by using artificial selection or overexpression of a cytochrome P450-encoding gene that enhances resistance to DDT (16).

Two large populations of *Drosophila* (sel-A and sel-B) were artificially selected for resistance to DDT, and both showed a response to selection (Fig. 1A). However, in the absence of DDT, the DDT-resistant lines were short-lived compared with controls (Fig. 1B). Detoxification enzymes expressed in the insect excretory Malpighian tubules play an important role in xenobiotic metabolism (17). DDT resistance was induced by overexpression of the cytochrome P450-encoding Cyp6g1 in the Malpighian tubules (Fig. 1C and see repeated experiment shown in [Fig. S3](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF3)A). However, the lifespan of the flies in the absence of DDT was unaffected (Fig. 1D). Hence, resistance to DDT per se is not sufficient to extend lifespan.

Dietary restriction (DR) increases lifespan in diverse organisms, including Drosophila (4) where the increased longevity from DR is dFOXO-independent (18). Interestingly, we found that flies subjected to DR were not resistant to DDT ([Fig. S1](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF1)A). This result cannot be explained by increased consumption of the DDT-dosed food by the DR flies, because DR flies do not differ from fully fed flies in food intake (19, 20). This finding demonstrates that DDT resistance is not necessary for increased longevity and is associated only with particular interventions that extend lifespan.

Transcriptional Signatures of Long-Lived IIS Mutants Identify DHR96 as Mediating Xenobiotic Resistance. If IIS mutants are long-lived because of enhanced xenobiotic metabolism, a broader spectrum of detoxification activities than those induced by either artificial selection to one xenobiotic compound or Cyp6g1 overexpression may be necessary. To address this hypothesis, we identified candidate transcription factors that could mediate the increased resistance to xenobiotics of long-lived IIS mutant flies. We profiled transcripts from flies of two different IIS mutants: (i) ablation of median neurosecretory cells (mNSC) in the brain that produce insulin-like ligands (21) and (ii) heterozygous loss of the insulin receptor substrate chico (22). Both of these mutants exhibited increased resistance to DDT [\(Fig. S1](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF1)B). Genes that were down-regulated in the long-lived mutants were enriched for functions in growth (including nucleic acid biosynthesis and translation), development, and reproduction including gametogenesis [\(Fig. S2](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF2)). Genes with increased expression were enriched for functions in energy metabolism (including amino acid, carbohydrate, and lipid catabolism), protein turnover (numerous peptidases), transmembrane transport, and defense, including metabolism of toxic compounds (Fig. 2). These changes in gene expression correlate well with the phenotypes of IIS mutants (7). Within the enriched defense category, 72 up-regulated genes met our significance cutoff and were associated to metabolism of toxic compounds ([Dataset S1\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1515137113.sd01.xls). The majority of these genes were regulated in response to heterozygous loss of chico (55 in total) with the remainder regulated in mNSC-ablated flies. In concordance with previous comparative studies (13) we detected clear differences between the transcriptional profiles, although the overlap between them was significant.

Using the program Clover (23), we identified overrepresented transcription factor binding sites ([Table S1](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=ST1)) in the promoters of

Fig. 2. Functionally related changes in gene expression in IIS mutants. Microarray data from $chico¹$ and mNSC-ablated females were analyzed by using CATMAP, which retrieves significant changes in functionally related groups of genes (44). The P values for genes with increased expression in common between the two mutants are plotted ($P < 0.1$, chico¹ compared with wild-type Dahomey control, mNSC-ablated flies compared with UAS-rpr control), where one data point represents a single functionally related gene, and the genes are labeled with the higher-level categories shown in the legend. P values from the chico¹ comparison are plotted on the x axis, those from the mNSC-ablation comparison are on the y axis. The equivalent data for genes with lower expression in common in the two mutants are shown in [Fig. S2.](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF2)

genes with altered expression. Most of the putative, cognate transcription factors have documented roles in development, but only a few have known roles in adult flies. Despite this pattern, transcripts of all but two of the genes encoding these transcription factors (CG10348 and Grn) were expressed at reliably detectable levels during adulthood. Of these transcription factors, two groups are involved in immunity (the GATA-binding and AP-1 transcription factors), in accordance with the enriched GO category in the IIS mutants and the resistance to bacterial infections of *chico*¹ mutant flies (24). We also identified a binding site corresponding to the sequence bound by mammalian pregnane X receptor (PXR) (25, 26), a nuclear receptor that regulates multiple genes involved in the metabolism of endobiotic and xenobiotic toxins (27). This PXR binding site was enriched near genes with higher expression in both long-lived IIS mutants, including those genes with a proposed role in toxin metabolism ([Dataset S2\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1515137113.sd02.xls).

PXR is phylogenetically related to Drosophila DHR96, one of 18 nuclear receptors in flies (28). Interestingly, null mutation in DHR96 causes flies to become lean and sensitive to treatment with xenobiotic toxins (29, 30). DHR96 is also a direct target of dFOXO, which is required for basal transcript levels of DHR96 (10). We validated the previously published dFOXO chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) binding data by quantitative PCR (qPCR) and found, compared with U6 control (a nonpolIItranscribed gene), a significant enrichment of DNA neighboring DHR96 in samples immunoprecipitated with a dFOXO antibody (Fig. 3A). Thus, the loss of resistance to xenobiotics in IIS mutant flies lacking dFOXO could be attributable to loss of normal expression of DHR96. DHR96 was thus selected as a candidate for mediating the enhanced xenobiotic resistance of IIS mutants.

DHR96 Mediates Xenobiotic Resistance of IIS Mutants. We first investigated the role of DHR96 in xenobiotic resistance of adult flies. We subjected mutant *DHR96* null flies (29) to treatment with DDT and found them to be sensitive ([Fig. S3](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF3)). In contrast,

Fig. 3. DHR96 is a direct target of dFOXO and required for normal xenobiotic response and lifespan. (A) Relative enrichment of chromatin immunoprecipitated with a dFOXO-specific antibody. Higher levels in the precipitate of DNA neighboring DHR96 versus U6, a nonpolII-transcribed gene, indicate direct binding of dFOXO to DNA adjacent to the gene ($P < 0.001$, Welch t test). Relative enrichment was calculated as proportion of chromatin recovered in the IP for each region divided by the average of the two regions (HR96 and U6) for each chromatin (arbitrary scale). (B) Genetic deletion of DHR96 modestly decreased lifespan of female flies ($P < 0.0001$, log-rank test). (C and D) Tissue-specific overexpression of DHR96 in the Malpighian tubules (Uo-GAL4 driver) increased DDT resistance (C; $P < 0.005$, log-rank test), but did not affect lifespan (D).

removal of DHR96 caused only a mild reduction in lifespan under nonstressed conditions (Fig. 3B). Ubiquitous overexpression of DHR96 resulted in developmental lethality [\(Fig. S4](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF4)), but overexpression in the Malpighian tubules increased resistance to DDT (Fig. 3C), without affecting lifespan (Fig. 3D), again showing that an increase in DDT resistance does not necessarily increase longevity. DHR96 thus has an important role in xenobiotic metabolism of adult flies.

To test whether DHR96 mediates the xenobiotic resistance of IIS mutant flies, we introduced a DHR96 null mutant into two IIS mutants: overexpression of dFOXO in muscle (31) or targeted deletion of the mNSC cells (32). Overexpression of dFOXO (Fig. 4A, repeated experiment in [Fig. S5](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF5)) and targeted ablation of the insulin-like peptide-producing mNSC cells (Fig. 4B, repeated experiment in [Fig. S6\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF6) both significantly increased resistance to the xenobiotics DDT, phenobarbital (PB), and malathion. Strikingly, this resistance to all three xenobiotics was lost in a DHR96 null background (see [Table S2](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=ST2) for Cox Proportional Hazards statistics). DHR96 is thus a key mediator of the enhanced xenobiotic resistance of long-lived IIS mutants.

If DHR96 mediates xenobiotic resistance of IIS mutant flies, then it should regulate expression of genes directly involved in xenobiotic metabolism in the tissues responsible for detoxification. With the help of the software tool FIMO (33), we identified the putative binding motif of DHR96 six times in the flanking region of the gluthatione S transferase gene GstE1 (region 2 kb upstream and 2 kb downstream of the gene, $P \le 0.00096$) and 10 times in the flanking region of the cytochrome P450 gene Cyp6g1 $(P \le 0.00096)$. Furthermore, *GstE1* and *Cyp6g1* expression is induced by PB (29). We therefore investigated the role of IIS and DHR96 in regulating their expression in gut and Malpighian tubules. GstE1 and Cyp6g1 were both up-regulated in mNSCablated flies (Fig. $5A$ and B) but not in dFOXO overexpressors (Fig. $S7A$). The up-regulation of *GstE1* and *Cyp6g1* in mNSCablated flies was lost in a DHR96 null background, suggesting the response was DHR96-dependent ($P = 0.027$ for GstE1 and $P = 0.011$ for Cyp6g1, two-way ANOVA; Fig. 5 A and B). DHR96 thus mediated the increased expression of both detoxification genes.

To further investigate the differences in expression of genes involved in xenobiotic metabolism in different IIS mutants, we reinterrogated our chico/+ and mNSC-ablated array data. In total, 72 genes associated to xenobiotic response were regulated in at least one array dataset, with the majority of those genes being up-regulated [\(Fig. S7](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF7)B), indicating a common functional response across different models. However, the two models show overlapping, but distinct, transcriptional profiles, 55 genes were regulated in the heterozygous chico flies, and 17 in the mNSCablated flies, with only 8 being regulated in both ([Fig. S7](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF7)C). Twoway ANOVA of these common genes confirmed a significant $(P < 0.0001)$ interaction, showing a mutant-specific response to reduced IIS. Our qPCR data, together with the statistical analysis of the microarray data, thus demonstrate that reduced IIS can induce cellular detoxification by regulation of both common and distinct sets of genes, as is also the case for IIS mutants in different model organisms (13).

DHR96 Does Not Mediate the Increased Lifespan of IIS Mutant Flies. To determine whether the increased lifespan of IIS mutant flies was mediated by DHR96, we measured adult survival of flies with *dFOXO* overexpression in muscle or ablation of the mNSC, in the presence or the absence of DHR96. Consistent with published data (31), muscle-specific overexpression of dFOXO significantly extended lifespan compared with controls (Fig. 6A; see [Table S2](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=ST2) for Cox Proportional Hazards statistics). However, this lifespan extension was unaffected by null mutation of DHR96 (Fig. 6B). Lifespan was also significantly increased by the ablation of mNSC cells (Fig. 6C, repeated experiment in [Fig. S8](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF8)A)

Fig. 4. Analysis of the effects of DHR96 on the xenobiotic resistance of two IIS mutants. (A) Muscle-specific overexpression of dFOXO significantly enhanced resistance to DDT, phenobarbital, and malathion compared with control lines (Upper, log-rank test, P values for all comparisons with the matching driver and UAS lines <0.001, except for comparison of DDT resistance of $dFOXO$ overexpressors with the MHC-GAL4 line, $P = 0.61$). Enhanced resistance was lost, when dFOXO was overexpressed in a DHR96 null background (Lower; P values for all comparisons with the matching driver and UAS lines >0.05). Cox proportional hazards (CPH) was used to test for a statistical interaction between the effects of dFOXO overexpression and genomic deletion of DHR96, and revealed that each significantly affected stress resistance, with a significant interaction between them (P < 0.01; [Table S2](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=ST2)). (B) Deletion of the mNSC cells significantly enhanced resistance to the three xenobiotics (Upper, log-rank test, P values for all comparisons with the matching driver and UAS lines <0.001), and this resistance was lost in a DHR96 null background (P values for all comparisons with the matching driver and UAS lines >0.05). CPH analysis revealed a significant interaction between the effect of mNSC ablation and genomic DHR96 deletion, indicating that xenobiotic resistance was significantly blocked by the genomic deletion of DHR96 (CPH, $P < 0.001$; [Table S2](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=ST2)).

and, again, this extension was unaffected by the absence of DHR96 (Fig. 6D, repeated experiment in [Fig. S8](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF8)B). DHR96 thus played no role in the extension of lifespan by reduced IIS.

Discussion

The IIS mutants used in this study showed both enhanced expression of genes involved in xenobiotic metabolism and resistance to xenobiotics. Cognate observations have led to the proposal that enhanced detoxification processes could act as an evolutionarily conserved mechanism for lifespan extension (12, 13, 15, 34). Indeed, there is evidence from both worms and flies that enhanced expression of GST-encoding genes can increase longevity (35, 36). These findings led us to investigate whether experimentally

enhancing xenobiotic detoxification could also promote longevity. However, although artificial selection for DDT resistance and overexpression of the cytochrome P450 Cyp6g1 in a key detoxification tissue, the Malpighian tubule, both increased DDT resistance, neither intervention increased lifespan and, indeed, artificial selection even decreased lifespan. Such costs of selection-induced insecticide resistance have been reported (37). However, dietary restriction increased fly lifespan but not DDT resistance. Thus, xenobiotic resistance and lifespan could clearly be uncoupled from each other.

A search for binding motifs of transcription factors differentially regulated in IIS mutants revealed a significantly enriched sequence corresponding to the binding site of mammalian PXR

Fig. 5. DHR96 mediates the increased expression of detoxification genes in IIS mutants. mRNA expression of $GstE1$ (A) and $Cyp6g1$ (B) in the gut of mNSC-ablated flies was assessed by qRT-PCR to determine whether it was regulated by IIS or DHR96. Results represent fold changes in mRNA levels relative to the InsP3-GAL4 control (mean \pm SEM). GstE1 and Cyp6q1 were significantly up-regulated in mNSC-ablated flies in a wild-type but not a DHR96 null background. Two-way ANOVA revealed a significant interaction term ($P = 0.027$ for GstE1 and $P = 0.011$ for Cyp6g1) with the response of both genes in the mNSC-ablated flies being entirely dependent on DHR96 $(n \geq 4)$. Individual pair-wise comparisons used Tukey's multiple comparisons test (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$).

(Pregnane X receptor), the homolog of Drosophila DHR96. We also confirmed DHR96 as a direct target of dFOXO, which is required for basal transcript representation of DHR96. We confirmed the sensitivity to xenobiotics of DHR96 null mutant flies and showed that they are also also short-lived, both characteristics shared by dFOXO null mutants. Overexpression of DHR96 in the Malpighian tubules increased DDT resistance, demonstrating the role of DHR96 in mediating xenobiotic resistance in adult flies. Interestingly, however, DHR96 overexpression did not increase lifespan, again showing that the two traits can be uncoupled. We showed that DHR96 mediates the resistance of IIS mutants to the xenobiotics that we tested, because this resistance was completely lost when DHR96 was absent. Furthermore, we demonstrated, using microarray data, that detoxification genes are up-regulated in two different models of reduced IIS and that up-regulation of two of these genes in mNSC-ablated flies depends on DHR96. Interestingly, the upregulated genes were model-specific, but coalesced into a protective response evident in the resistance to the three xenobiotics that we tested. These model-specific differences agree with previously published studies that have led to the proposal that enhanced detoxification processes could act as an evolutionarily conserved mechanism for lifespan extension (12, 13, 15, 34). Interestingly, the mammalian DHR96 homologs CAR (constitutive androstane receptor) and PXR are also key regulators of phenobarbital-induced xenobiotic response (38, 39), but it is not yet known whether they function downstream of IIS. It will be important to investigate whether the increased expression of genes involved in xenobiotic metabolism and xenobiotic resistance of long-lived mammals is causal in their increased lifespan.

Importantly, we showed that, at least for the three xenobiotics that we tested, the increased xenobiotic resistance and lifespan of IIS mutants are independently mediated traits with no direct, causal connection between them. Increased expression of genes involved in xenobiotic metabolism together with xenobiotic resistance are, nonetheless, common correlates of lifespan extension (7, 10, 11, 13–15), raising the question of why this association is so frequent. Interestingly, genes involved in xenobiotic metabolism are indirectly activated by toxic by-products of microbes and pathogens, through the cellular surveillance-activated detoxification and defense (cSADD) system (40), which senses xenobiotics through the dysfunction in cellular processes that they cause, including decreased host translation and altered metabolism (41). Importantly, microbes and pathogens can alter metabolism in the gut, resulting in lower IIS (42). Organisms may hence have evolved systems to sense lowered IIS as an indirect signal of the presence of pathogens and mount cSADD as a defense response, thus inducing a form of hormesis. Many of the interventions that can increase lifespan involve altered signal transduction of pathways linked to metabolism, and activation of cSADD could provide a common mechanism.

Materials and Methods

Fly Strains and Maintenance. The control white Dahomey (wDah) was derived by backcrossing w1118 into the outbred, wild-type Dahomey background. All transgenic lines were maintained with periodic backcrossing into wDah and are summarized in [Table S3](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=ST3). The DHR96 null mutant was a generous donation by Carl Thummel, Department of Human Genetics, University of Utah, Salt Lake City. Generation of mNSC-ablated flies and construction of transgenic lines and of DDT selection lines is described in [SI Materials and](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT) [Methods](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT), sections 1–3.

Lifespan Measurement. Lifespans were performed as described in Bass et al. (43). Lifespan experiments included 100–200 female flies per genotype that were allowed to mate for 48 h before the start of the experiment and transferred to fresh food three times weekly. Experiments were performed at least twice with the exception of the dFOXO overexpression epistasis experiment (Fig. 6), which was performed only once. Lifespan measurements and statistical analyses are described in [SI Materials and Methods](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT), section 4.

Stress Assays. Flies for stress assays were prepared in the same way as for lifespan experiments. At least 100 females from each cross were sorted into wide plastic vials, 20 flies per vial containing 1x sugar/yeast/agar (SYA) food, and transferred to fresh food three times a week. Stress resistance was assayed at age 10 d. Stock solutions of DDT (Greyhound) and phenobarbital (Sigma Aldrich) were dissolved in ethanol, and stock solution of malathion (FLUKA) was dissolved in isopropanol. Final concentration was 175 mg/L or 275 mg/L for DDT (see [SI Materials and Methods](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT), section 5 for details), 5% (wt/vol) for phenobarbital, and 7.5 μM for malathion. Nearly all stress assays were performed twice; independent repeats of the experiments are in [SI Materials and Methods](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT).

Fig. 6. Lifespan extension by lowered IIS is independent of DHR96. Lifespan of females was significantly increased by muscle-specific overexpression of dFOXO or by targeted ablation of mNSC cells in both a wild-type (A and C, respectively) and a DHR96 null background (B and D, respectively) (P values for all comparisons with the matching driver and UAS lines <0.001, log-rank test). CPH analysis revealed that genomic DHR96 and overexpression of dFOXO or ablation of mNSC each significantly affected lifespan, but these effects did not show a significant interaction ([Table S2\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=ST2).

Microarrays. In total, cRNA derived from five biological replicates of each IIS mutant genotype and control (Dahomey; chico¹/+, UAS-rpr/+, and UAS-rpr/ dilp2-Gal4) were hybridized to Quintuplicate Affymetrix Dros2 microarrays. We chose a q value <0.15 as significance cutoff to consider a gene to be differentially regulated. A detailed description of the microarray experi-mental procedures and data analysis is summarized in [SI Materials and](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT) [Methods](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1515137113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201515137SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT), section 6.

Chromatin Immunoprecipitation. ChIP was performed on three biological repeats of chromatin as described in refs. 10, 13, and 22, and DNA was quantified by qPCR using the primers Hr96 56 (CAAAGAGAGCATATTTAGGATACCAAG) with Hr96 36 (CACAGAACCCAC GCTTCCAAG).

Quantitative Real-Time PCR. For the gene expression analysis of GSTE1 and Cyp6d5, guts including Malpighian tubules of 10–15 female flies per sample were

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dissected and expression was quantified by qPCR using Taqman probes (Applied Biosystems) for GstE1 (Dm01826984), Cyp6g1 (Dm01819889), Actin5C (Dm02361909), and Rpl32 (Dm02151827) using the $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method, $n \geq 3$ for all experiments.

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