The Rab GTPase activating protein TBC-2 regulates endosomal localization

of DAF-16 FOXO and lifespan

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ABSTRACT

FOXO transcription factors have been shown to regulate longevity in model organisms

and are associated with longevity in humans. To gain insight into how FOXO functions to

increase lifespan, we examined the subcellular localization of DAF-16 in *C. elegans.* We show

that DAF-16 is localized to endosomes and that this endosomal localization is increased by the

insulin-IGF signaling (IIS) pathway. Endosomal localization of DAF-16 is modulated by

endosomal trafficking proteins. Disruption of the Rab GTPase activating protein TBC-2

increases endosomal localization of DAF-16, while inhibition of TBC-2 targets, RAB-5 or RAB-

7 GTPases, decreases endosomal localization of DAF-16. Importantly, the amount of DAF-16

that is localized to endosomes has functional consequences as increasing endosomal localization

through mutations in *tbc-2* reduced the lifespan of long-lived *daf-2 IGFR* mutants, depleted their

fat stores, and DAF-16 target gene expression. Overall, this work identifies endosomal

localization as a mechanism regulating DAF-16 FOXO, which is important for its functions in

metabolism and aging.

INTRODUCTION

Insulin/insulin-like growth factor signaling (IIS) is an evolutionarily conserved pathway

that plays an important role in lifespan, development, metabolism, immunity and stress responses

from *Caenorhabditis elegans* to humans (Accili and Arden, 2004; Barthel *et al.*, 2005; Greer and

Brunet, 2005; Murphy and Hu, 2013). IIS-mediated regulation of *C. elegans* FOXO, DAF-16,

was first identified via genetic characterization of mutants affecting dauer (an alternative stress

resistant larval stage) and life span (Riddle *et al.*, 1981; Kenyon *et al.*, 1993; Lin *et al.*, 1997;

Ogg *et al.*, 1997). For example, animals that have a mutation in their insulin-like growth factor

receptor (IGFR), DAF-2, live almost two times longer than wild type animals in a DAF-16-

dependent manner (Kenyon *et al.*, 1993). Under favorable conditions, the *C. elegans* DAF-2

IGFR signals through a conserved PI3K/Akt pathway to phosphorylate and inhibit nuclear

accumulation of DAF-16 FOXO (Murphy and Hu, 2013). In short, DAF-2 IGFR activation

leads to the activation of AGE-1 PI3K which phosphorylates $PI(4,5)P_2$ to generate $PI(3,4,5)P_3$,

which can bind and recruit PDK-1 and AKT-1/2 kinases. DAF-18 PTEN, a lipid and protein

phosphatase, countacts AGE-1 PI3K and thus negatively regulates signaling. PDK-1 activates

AKT-1/2 which in turn phosphorylates DAF-16 creating binding sites for PAR-5 and FTT-2 14-

3-3 scaffold proteins that sequester DAF-16 FOXO in the cytoplasm. During adverse conditions

such as starvation, IIS is suppressed and DAF-16 FOXO enters the nucleus to induce the

expression of stress response genes. As such, DAF-16 FOXO mediates most *daf-2 IGFR* mutant

phenotypes.

Upon activation, the Insulin/IGF receptor is internalized into endosomes, where it can

disassociate from its ligand and recycle back to the plasma membrane, or it can be targeted for

lysosomal degradation (Bergeron *et al.*, 2016). The identification of activated IGFR on

endosomes suggested that endosomes can serve as a platform for signaling (Baass *et al.*, 1995).

Subsequently, several components of the IIS pathway have been shown to localize on

endosomes. PTEN localizes on PI(3)P positive endosomes through its C2 domain and has been

demonstrated to regulate endosome trafficking via dephosphorylation of Rab7 (Naguib *et al.*,

2015; Shinde and Maddika, 2016). Akt2 localizes to Appl-1 and WDFY-2 positive endosomes to

get fully activated and regulate Akt2 specific downstream substrates (Schenck *et al.*, 2008; Walz

et al., 2010). 14-3-3 proteins can interact with several Akt phosphorylation targets to regulate

their subcellular localization and have been found on endosomes (Jungmichel *et al.*, 2014; Marat

et al., 2017). However, a role for endosome trafficking in regulation of FOXO transcription

factors has not been demonstrated to the best of our knowledge.

Rab5 and Rab7 GTPases localize to early and late endosomes respectively and are critical

regulators of trafficking to the lysosome, an organelle important for cargo degradation and

metabolic signaling (Huotari and Helenius, 2011; Settembre *et al.*, 2013). Like many small

GTPases, Rabs cycle between a GTP-bound active state and GDP-bound inactive state. This

cycling requires guanine nucleotide exchange factors for activation and GTPase Activating

Proteins (GAPs) to catalyze GTP hydrolysis and hence Rab inactivation. We previously

characterized *C. elegans* TBC-2 as having *in vitro* GAP activity towards RAB-5, and some

activity towards RAB-7 (Chotard *et al.*, 2010a). Mutations in *tbc-2* result in enlarged late

endosomes in several tissues including the intestine, an important site of IIS and metabolic

regulation (Libina *et al.*, 2003). In addition to early to late endosome maturation, TBC-2

regulates phagosome maturation (Li *et al.*, 2009), dense core vesicle maturation (Sasidharan *et

al.*, 2012) endosome recycling as an effector of RAB-10 and CED-10/Rac (Sun *et al.*, 2012; Liu

and Grant, 2015) and yolk protein trafficking in oocytes and embryos (Chotard *et al.*, 2010b).

Yolk protein is prematurely degraded in *tbc-2* mutants. As such, *tbc-2* mutant larvae hatched in

the absence of food had reduced survival during L1 (first larval stage) diapause (Chotard *et al.*,

2010b).

Here we explore the subcellular localization of DAF-16 and show that DAF-16 localizes

on early and late endosomes in *C. elegans* intestinal cells. We found that endosome localization

of DAF-16 is regulated by nutrient availability and IIS. We show that endosome localization of

DAF-16 is increased through mutations in *tbc-2*, at the expense of nuclear localization. The

increased endosomal localization of DAF-16 in *tbc-2* mutants decreases lifespan, fat storage and

DAF-16 target gene expression in *daf-2 IGFR* mutant animals. These results demonstrate a role

of endosomal localization in the regulation and function of DAF-16 FOXO.

RESULTS
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TBC-2 and the RAB-5 and RAB-7 GTPases regulate DAF-16 localization to endosomes in

the intestine

We previously reported that *tbc-2* is required for survival during L1 diapause (Chotard *et*

al., 2010b). Since *daf-16* is also required for survival during L1 diapause (Munoz and Riddle,

2003; Baugh and Sternberg, 2006) we sought to test whether TBC-2 might regulate the nuclear

versus cytoplasmic localization of DAF-16. Although we determined that loss of *tbc-2* did not

result in precocious development during L1 diapause as seen *daf-16* mutants (Baugh and

Sternberg, 2006; Chotard *et al.*, 2010b), we found that TBC-2 does in fact regulate DAF-16

localization. Unexpectedly, we found that DAF-16a::GFP (*zIs356*) localized to numerous

amorphous vesicles in the intestinal cells of *tbc-2(tm2241)* deletion mutant animals (Figure 1B).

Furthermore, we found that DAF-16a::GFP localized to cytoplasmic vesicles in the intestine of

wild-type animals (Figure 1A). The percentage of hermaphrodites with DAF-16 vesicles

increased during larval development, peaking at L4 and young adults (Figure 1I, Figure 1 -

figure supplement 1A).   *tbc-2(tm2241)* animals were about twice as likely to have DAF-16

vesicles than wild-type (Figure 1J, Figure 1 - figure supplement 1A). The number of DAF-16

positive vesicles in wild-type can range from zero to hundreds (Figure 1I). Vesicles can be

distributed throughout all 20 intestinal cells or be present in high numbers in just a few cells.

DAF-16a::GFP localization is not sex specific as we found similar numbers of DAF-16 positive

vesicles in males as in hermaphrodites (Figure 1 - figure supplement 1B). Although DAF-

16a::GFP nuclear localization is low in normal growth conditions, we find that *tbc-2(tm2241)*

intestinal nuclei appear to have less nuclear DAF-16a::GFP than wild-type (Figure 1A and B).

We quantified the fluorescence intensity of DAF-16a::GFP in nuclei of *tbc-2(tm2241)* intestinal

cells comparing nuclei of cells with vesicles versus nuclei of cells without vesicles (Figure 1K).

We found that nuclei of cells with vesicles have significantly less nuclear DAF-16a::GFP than

cells without vesicles. Thus, DAF-16 localizes to vesicles in wild-type and *tbc-2(tm2241)*

animals, and *tbc-2(tm2241)* animals have less nuclear DAF-16a::GFP, likely due to sequestration

to cytoplasmic vesicles.

To determine if the localization of the GFP tag or the splice variant or expression levels

affected DAF-16 vesicular localization we analyzed three other transgenic strains with lower

expression levels; GFP::DAF-16a (*muIs71*), DAF-16a::RFP (*lpIs12*) and DAF-16f::GFP (*lpIs14,*

with an alternative N-terminus)(Henderson and Johnson, 2001; Lin *et al.*, 2001; Kwon *et al.*,

2010). Using the three fluorescent reporters, we detected DAF-16 vesicles in the *tbc-2(tm2241)*

mutant, albeit not in the wild-type background (Figure 1 – figure supplement 2G-X).

Overexpression of GFP from *vha-6* intestinal specific promoter, *vhEx1[Pvha-6::GFP]*, did not

show significant vesicular localization in wild-type animals (Figure 1 – figure supplement 3A).

In *tbc-2(tm2241)* animals GFP showed some vesicular localization and potential aggregates, but

much less than seen with DAF-16a::GFP, indicating that the vesicular localization is due to

DAF-16 and not the GFP tag. Of note, we found that GFP expression in the *tbc-2* background

was visibly stronger than in wild-type (Figure 1 – figure supplement 3B-E), consistent with *vha-*

6 ranking amongst the top downregulated DAF-16-responsive genes (Tepper *et al.*, 2013) and

consistent with TBC-2 facilitating DAF-16 nuclear localization.

To determine if endogenous DAF-16 localizes to vesicles we analyzed *daf-16(hq23)*, a

DAF-16::GFP line generated by CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing (Zhang *et al.*, 2021), and found

that endogeneously tagged DAF-16 localized to vesicles in both wild-type and *tbc-2(tm2241)*

mutants (Figure 1 – figure supplement 2A-F). To determine if the GFP/RFP tag is driving

vesicular localization of DAF-16 we analyzed two *daf-16* alleles endogenously tagged with

evolutionarily distant mNeongreen and mKate2 fluorescent proteins (Bhattacharya *et al.*, 2019;

Aghayeva *et al.*, 2020). We found that DAF-16::mNG and DAF-16::mK2 both localized to

intestinal vesicles in wild-type animals (Figure 2). Furthermore, the percent wild-type and *tbc-*

2(tm2241) animals with endogenous DAF-16::mNG vesicles were comparable to that of the

overexpressed DAF-16a::GFP (Figure 2I). Therefore, DAF-16 localization to vesicles is not due

to overexpression and unlikely to be an artifact of the fluorescent tag.

The finding that DAF-16 localizes to enlarged vesicles in *tbc-2* mutants and that DAF-16

vesicles contain autofluorescent material (Figure 1E-H, Figure 2E,F), a hallmark of intestinal

endolysosomes (Clokey and Jacobson, 1986; Hermann *et al.*, 2005; Coburn *et al.*, 2013),

suggested that DAF-16 vesicles are endosomal. To determine if the DAF-16 vesicles are

endosomes, we co-expressed DAF-16a::GFP with RFP::RAB-5, an early endosomal marker, or

with mCherry::RAB-7, a late endosomal marker (Chavrier *et al.*, 1990; Sato *et al.*, 2005; Chen *et*

al., 2006). We found that in wild-type animals, DAF-16a::GFP localizes to a subset of RAB-5

and RAB-7-positive endosomes (Figure 3A-F). Thirty percent of DAF-16a::GFP vesicles were

RAB-5 positive (n=959) while 5% were RAB-7 positive (n=365). Furthermore, we tested the

genetic requirements for *rab-5* and *rab-7* for DAF-16 localization by RNAi. We found that *rab-*

5(RNAi) and *rab-7(RNAi)* knockdown significantly decreased the number of wild-type and *tbc-*

2(tm2241) animals with DAF-16a::GFP vesicles (Figure 3G and H). Together, these data are

consistent with DAF-16 localizing to a sub-population of endosomes or endosome-like vesicles

in the intestinal cells. It further implicates endosomal regulators TBC-2, RAB-5 and RAB-7 as

regulators of DAF-16.

Acute starvation suppresses DAF-16 localization to endosomes

Nuclear localization of DAF-16 is modulated by nutrient availability. As such, starvation

promotes DAF-16 cytoplasmic-to-nuclear shuttling (Henderson and Johnson, 2001). To

determine if endosomal DAF-16 can translocate to the nucleus, we tested the effect of acute

starvation on DAF-16a::GFP localization to endosomes. We found that starvation strongly

suppressed the localization of DAF-16 to endosomes in both wild-type and *tbc-2(tm2241)*

mutants (Figure 4A; Figure 4 – figure supplement 1). Upon re-feeding, DAF-16 relocalized to

endosomes after 1-2 hours, in both wild-type and *tbc-2(tm2241)* mutants. Thus, DAF-16

localization on endosomal membranes is regulated by nutrient availability.

Insulin/IGF signaling regulates DAF-16 localization to endosomes

To determine if IIS regulates DAF-16 localization to endosomes we analyzed the effect

of disrupting IIS on DAF-16a::GFP localization (see Figure 4B for reference). Firstly, we

analyzed a hypomorphic mutant of the insulin/IGF receptor, *daf-2(e1370)*, in which IIS is

reduced, particularly at higher temperatures (Swanson and Riddle, 1981). We compared DAF-

16a::GFP localization in three independent *daf-2(e1370)* strains at 15°C and shifted overnight to

25°C to enhance disruption of DAF-2. All three showed a significant reduction in the number of

DAF-16 positive vesicles at 25°C, while the wild-type strain did not (Figure 3C), indicating that

DAF-2 promotes DAF-16 localization to endosomes.

DAF-18, the homolog of human tumor suppressor protein PTEN, acts as a negative

regulator of the IIS pathway counteracting AGE-1 PI3K signaling by dephosphorylating the

3'phosphate on the $PI(3,4,5)P_3$ converting it to $PI(4,5)P_2$ (Ogg and Ruvkun, 1998). We analyzed

DAF-16a::GFP localization in the *daf-18* reference allele, *e1375*. We generated three

independent *daf-18(e1375); zIs356* strains, but only two strains had increased endosome

localization of DAF-16. However, combined data from the three strains had a statistically

significant increase in the number of animals with DAF-16 endosomes (Figure 4D). Since *daf-*

18(e1375) is possibly a non-null allele, we analyzed a deletion allele, *daf-18(ok480).* We found

that five independent *daf-18(ok480); zIs356* strains had more DAF-16 endosomes than wild-type

that when combined was statistically significant (Figure 4D). Since DAF-16 endosome

localization is mildly increased in the background of two distinct *daf-18* alleles, it is consistent

with increased IIS causing an increase in DAF-16 localization to endosomes.

C. elegans AKT-1 and AKT-2 function upstream of, and can phosphorylate, DAF-16

(Paradis and Ruvkun, 1998; Hertweck *et al.*, 2004). The SGK-1 Serum Glucorticoid Kinase

homolog interacts with AKT kinases and has been shown to regulate DAF-16 nuclear

localization (Hertweck *et al.*, 2004). We tested which of these kinases might regulate DAF-16

localization to endosomes. We found that animals with an *akt-2(ok393)* deletion mutation, there

was an insignificant decrease in DAF-16 endosomal localization in two independent strains

(Figure 4E). However, in *akt-1(RNAi)* animals, we observed a significant decrease in DAF-16

endosomal localization where DAF-16 localized mainly to the nucleus, compared to the control

animals in three independent experiments (Figure 4F). Neither an *sgk-1(ok538)* deletion nor an

sgk-1(ft15) gain-of-function allele affected DAF-16 localization to endosomes (Hertweck *et al.*,

2004; Jones *et al.*, 2009)(Figure 4G). Therefore, AKT-1 is the main kinase regulating DAF-16

localization to endosomes.

Phosphorylation of FOXO proteins by Akt creates binding sites for 14-3-3 proteins,

which promote cytoplasmic retention of FOXO (Brunet *et al.*, 1999). *C. elegans* has two genes

that encode for 14-3-3 proteins that interact with DAF-16, *par-5* and *ftt-2* (Wang and Shakes,

1997; Morton *et al.*, 2002; Wang *et al.*, 2006). We found that *ftt-2(RNAi)*, but not *par-5(RNAi)*,

suppressed the localization of DAF-16 to endosomes (Figure 4H), suggesting that FTT-2

regulates DAF-16 endosomal localization.

To determine if AKT phosphorylation regulates DAF-16 localization to endosomes we

tested if DAF-16a^{AM}::GFP *muIs113*, in which the four consensus AKT phosphorylation sites

(T54A, S240A, T242 and S314A) are mutated to alanine (Lin *et al.*, 2001), could still localize to

vesicles in *tbc-2(tm2241)* mutants. Since the expression levels are lower than DAF-16a::GFP

zIs356, we used GFP::DAF-16a *muIs71* with comparable expression levels as control (Figure 4 –

figure supplement 2). We found that the number of *tbc-2(tm2241)* animals with DAF-

16a^{AM}::GFP positive vesicles was significantly less than the GFP::DAF-16a control (Figure 4I).

Together, these data demonstrate that IIS regulates endosomal DAF-16 through AKT-1 specific

phosphorylation and FTT-2 14-3-3.

TBC-2 is required for lifespan extension and increased fat storage of *daf-2(e1370)* mutants

To determine if the increased endosomal localization of DAF-16 seen in *tbc-2* mutants

affects DAF-16 activity, we tested if TBC-2 regulates adult lifespan. We found that the *tbc-*

2(sv41) and *tbc-2(tm2241)* deletion alleles had similar lifespans as compared to wild-type

(Figure 5A and B; Figure 5 – figure supplement 1). As expected, *daf-2(e1370)* animals lived

significantly longer than wild-type. We found that both *tbc-2* alleles significantly shortened the

lifespan of *daf-2(e1370)* animals (Figure 5A and B; Figure 5 – figure supplement 1). Thus,

TBC-2 is not required for normal lifespan, but is partly required for the extended lifespan of *daf-*

2(e1370) mutants.

To assess TBC-2's contribution to other *daf-2* mutant phenotypes, we tested whether

TBC-2 is required for the increased fat storage of *daf-2(e1370)* mutants. Consistent with

previous findings we found that *daf-2(e1370)* had significantly more fat than wild-type animals

as determined by Nile Red and Oil Red O staining of fixed L4 larvae (Kimura *et al.*, 1997;

O'Rourke *et al.*, 2009) (Figure 5C-F). We found that *tbc-2(tm2241)* larvae had less fat than wild-

type with Nile Red staining, but not with Oil Red O staining (Figure 5D and F). This difference

might reflect the lower sensitivity of Oil Red O for quantifying lipid abundance as compared to

Nile Red (Escorcia *et al.*, 2018). Interestingly, we found that *tbc-2(tm2241)* significantly

suppressed the *daf-2(e1370)* increased lipid staining by both Nile Red and Oil Red O (Figure 5C-

F). Thus, TBC-2 is required for the increased fat storage of *daf-2(e1370)* mutants.

The fact that TBC-2 is required for the increased longevity and increased fat storage of

daf-2(e1370) mutants suggests that TBC-2 could be a negative regulator of IIS. Therefore, we

tested if *tbc-2* mutants regulate DAF-16 target gene expression in *daf-2(e1370)* animals. We

used qRT-PCR to measure the expression of DAF-16 target genes in wild-type, *daf-2(e1370),*

tbc-2 mutants and *tbc-2; daf-2* double mutants. Consistent with previous reports, the expression

of six of the DAF-16 target genes were upregulated in *daf-2(e1370)* animals (Figure 6) (Honda

and Honda, 1999; Murphy *et al.*, 2003; Ackerman and Gems, 2012; Tepper *et al.*, 2013). While

tbc-2(tm2241) and *tbc-2(sv41)* did not appreciably alter DAF-16 target gene expression relative

to wild-type, both reduced the expression of *sod-3, dod-3, gpd-2* and *icl-1* in *daf-2(e1370)*

mutants, while *mtl-1* and *ftn-1* were not significantly decreased (Figure 6)*.* The fact that TBC-2

was required for the increased expression of four of six DAF-16 target genes with elevated

expression in *daf-2(e1370)* mutants suggests a more specific role for TBC-2 in regulating DAF-2

to DAF-16 signaling.

DISCUSSION

Endosome trafficking and signal transduction are intimately linked processes regulating signal

propagation, specificity and attenuation (Miaczynska, 2013; Bergeron *et al.*, 2016). However,

there remains a large knowledge gap in the spatial regulation of cell signaling and where

downstream transcription factors are regulated. We identified a previously unknown localization

for the DAF-16 FOXO transcription factor on endosomes in *C. elegans*. Endosome localization

is limited by the TBC-2 Rab GAP. Loss of *C. elegans* TBC-2 results in increased endosomal

localization of DAF-16 at the expense of nuclear localization. As such, *C. elegans* TBC-2 is

partly required for several *daf-2 IGFR* mutant phenotypes including lifespan extension, increased

fat storage, and increased DAF-16 target gene expression that result from DAF-16 nuclear

translocation. DAF-16 endosome localization is largely dependent on IIS consistent with this

being a phosphorylated, inactive pool of DAF-16. Together our data show a role for the TBC-2

Rab GAP in regulating the balance of nuclear versus endosomal localization of the DAF-16

transcription factor.

DAF-16 localizes to endosomes

We were surprised to find that DAF-16 FOXO localizes to a subset of RAB-5 and RAB-7

endosomes in wild-type animals. Many studies have used DAF-16 cytoplasmic versus nuclear

localization to assess IIS activity under various conditions. We assume that DAF-16 positive

endosomes were not discovered earlier as nuclear translocation can be assessed at low

magnification where DAF-16 positive endosomes are not apparent, and DAF-16 positive

endosomes are not present in every cell or every animal. Furthermore, we first took notice of

DAF-16 positive endosomes in the *tbc-2* mutant background where they are more prominent.

These are likely not an artefactual consequence of overexpression, as we see these vesicles in the

endogenously tagged *daf-16::GFP* and we do not see similar vesicles in a GFP overexpression

strain. DAF-16::mNG and DAF-16::mK2 also localize to vesicles indicating that membrane

localization is unlikely to be an artifact of the GFP tag. Additionally, DAF-16-vesicles are

regulated by IIS.

Many components of the IIS pathway localize to endosomes in mammalian cells

including active insulin receptor and downstream signaling components such as PI3K, Akt,

PTEN and 14-3-3 proteins (Khan *et al.*, 1986; Christoforidis *et al.*, 1999; Balbis *et al.*, 2000;

Braccini *et al.*, 2015; Naguib *et al.*, 2015; Bergeron *et al.*, 2016; Marat *et al.*, 2017; Kim *et al.*,

2018).   In the case of Akt and PTEN, both have demonstrated roles in regulation of endosome

trafficking independent of IIS (Shinde and Maddika, 2016, 2017; Mondin *et al.*, 2019; Hsu *et al.*,

2020). On the other hand, the PI3Ks are Rab5 effectors and Rab5 has been shown to promote

Akt activity on endosomes (Christoforidis *et al.*, 1999; Shin *et al.*, 2005; Su *et al.*, 2006; Cheng

et al., 2009; Braccini *et al.*, 2015). While endosomal localization of FOXO proteins has not been

reported to the best of our knowledge, knockdown of Rab5 in mouse liver results in a strong

increase in phosphorylated FOXO1 (Zeigerer *et al.*, 2015). This is contrary to the finding that

Rab5 promotes Akt phosphorylation (Su *et al.*, 2006; Braccini *et al.*, 2015), which could be a

consequence of indirect regulation or suggest tissue-specific regulation. The fact that TBC-2 is a

RAB-5 GAP is consistent with increased RAB-5 activity promoting DAF-16 localization on

endosomes. This is further supported by the fact that *rab-5* and *rab-7* RNAi knockdown reduces

the number of animals with DAF-16 vesicles in both wild-type and *tbc*-2 mutants. Given the

importance of RAB-5 for endosome trafficking, it is difficult to parse whether RAB-5 is

promoting a platform for DAF-16 localization or if it also has a role in IIS.

We demonstrated that DAF-16 localized to a subset of RAB-5 and RAB-7 positive

endosomes. Since RAB-5 and RAB-7 promote trafficking to the lysosome and promote receptor

tyrosine kinase degradation, it is possible that DAF-16-positive endosomes are signaling

endosomes, in which case we would expect other upstream signaling components might be

present. Consistent with that hypothesis, knockdown of IIS reduces the number of animals with

DAF-16 vesicles. However, when analyzing DAF-16 localization in *daf-2(e1370)* mutants at

15°C vs. 25°C, we find that while there is a reduction in the number of DAF-16 endosomes,

these endosomes are noticeably fainter at 25°C. This suggests that there are not necessarily less

endosomes being generated, but rather less DAF-16 on the vesicles which may be inconsistent

with these being signaling endosomes derived from DAF-2 internalization at the plasma

membrane. On the other hand, the fact that Akt and 14-3-3 can localize to endosomes in

mammalian cells (Balbis *et al.*, 2000; Braccini *et al.*, 2015; Marat *et al.*, 2017) and that AKT-1

and FTT-2 promote DAF-16 localization to endosomes, suggests that these proteins might recruit

DAF-16 onto endosomes rather than DAF-16 interacting directly with membranes. Future

studies should test whether DAF-2 IGFR and downstream IIS components actively recruit DAF-

16 to endosomes or whether IIS has a passive role. IIS inhibition of nuclear DAF-16 could result

in increased DAF-16 in the cytoplasm where it can bind endosomes.

If these are not signaling endosomes, then what are the DAF-16 endosomes? Since

RAB-5 and RAB-7 are also regulators of autophagy, so it is possible that these endosomes

contribute to degradation of inactive excess DAF-16. There is precedent for selective autophagy

in the degradation of the GATA4 transcription factor (Kang *et al.*, 2015). Alternatively, these

endosomes could serve as a reservoir of inactive DAF-16 that can be quickly mobilized if

environmental stress is encountered. For example, we found that acute starvation is a potent

regulator of DAF-16 endosome localization, even in the *tbc-2* mutant background.

We find it interesting that there is such variability within the population, and amongst the

intestinal cells in a given animal, as to whether there will be DAF-16 positive endosomes or not.

It suggests that each intestinal cell autonomously senses changes in IIS, or possibly other nutrient

and stress sensing pathways, to regulate DAF-16 localization. Then, why is endosomal DAF-16

more prominent in *tbc-2* mutants? One explaination would be that the expansion of endosomal

membranes in a *tbc-2* mutant create more storage space for inactive DAF-16. Another would be

that IIS or other pathways are more active in *tbc-2* mutants, or some combination of the two.

GLP-1/Notch signaling in the germline, AMPK, JNK and LET-363/mTor signaling additionally

regulate DAF-16 and could be subject to regulation by TBC-2, particularly mTor which localizes

to lysosomes (Oh *et al.*, 2005; Berman and Kenyon, 2006; Greer *et al.*, 2007; Sancak *et al.*,

2008; Robida-Stubbs *et al.*, 2012; Sun *et al.*, 2017).

A direct role for TBC-2 in regulating *daf-2(e1370) IGFR* mutant phenotypes

Our finding that *tbc-2* was required for the extended lifespan and increased fat storage of *daf-*

2(e1370) mutants suggests that TBC-2 might have a more specific role related to IIS. However,

TBC-2 is not the first endosomal regulator required for lifespan extension of *daf-2(e1370)*

mutants. *C. elegans* BEC-1, a homolog of human Beclin1, is a regulator of autophagy and

endosome trafficking, and *bec-1* mutants accumulate large late endosomes in the intestinal cells

(Melendez *et al.*, 2003; Ruck *et al.*, 2011; Law *et al.*, 2017). Mutations in *bec-1* suppress the

increased lifespan of *daf-2(e1370)*, and were reported to be required for the increased fat storage

(Melendez *et al.*, 2003). Similarly, other autophagy regulators, *atg-7* and *atg-12*, have been

shown to be required for *daf-2* longevity (Hars *et al.*, 2007). An RNAi screen identified

regulators of endosome to lysosome trafficking, including RAB-7, and components of the

ESCRT and HOPS complexes as being required for the lifespan extension phenotypes of *daf-2*

IGFR mutants (Samuelson *et al.*, 2007). However, the mechanisms by which they regulate

lifespan are not known. In *daf-2(e1370)* mutants, there is an increase in autophagy and lysosome

function, both of which are required for the extended lifespan (Melendez *et al.*, 2003; Lapierre *et*

al., 2013; Guo *et al.*, 2014; Sun *et al.*, 2020), consistent with increased stress resistance

contributing to increased longevity. Since the human homologs of TBC-2 are implicated in

autophagy (Behrends *et al.*, 2010; Popovic *et al.*, 2012; Carroll *et al.*, 2013; Toyofuku *et al.*,

2015), and *tbc-2* mutants accumulate autophagy protein LGG-1 (LC3/Atg8) in enlarged

endosomes (Chotard *et al.*, 2010a), it is possible that TBC-2 also regulates autophagy and thus

daf-2(-) longevity. However, our findings that TBC-2 regulates DAF-16 nuclear vs. endosome

localization and that TBC-2 is required for the DAF-16 target gene expression in *daf-2* mutants

demonstrate that TBC-2 has a more direct role in IIS, as opposed to being required for

downstream cellular responses. It will be interesting to test if TBC-2 regulates DAF-16-

independent mechanisms of longevity as well as to determine if other endosome and autophagy-

regulating genes can regulate DAF-16 localization to endosomes.

In conclusion, we demonstrate that the DAF-16 FOXO transcription factor localizes to

endosomes. This endosomal localization of DAF-16 FOXO is regulated by both IIS and the

TBC-2 family of Rab5 and Rab7 GAPs. TBC-2 promotes the nuclear localization of DAF-16

FOXO, and this localization has functional effects on both longevity and metabolism through

modulation of DAF-16 target gene expression. Our data suggest that endosomes serve as an

important location for DAF-16 FOXO transcription factor regulation, and suggest that

endomembranes may function as a site of transcription factor regulation.

METHODS

C. elegans **genetics and strain construction**

C. elegans strains were cultured as described in Wormbook (www.wormbook.org). The *C.*

elegans N2 Bristol strain was the wild-type parent strain and HB101 *E. coli* strain was used as a

food source. Both were obtained from the Caenorhabditis Genetic Center (CGC) as were many

of the strains used in this study (Key Resource Table). New strains were constructed using

standard methods and the presence of mutations were confirmed by PCR and DNA sequencing.

RNAi experiments

C. elegans RNAi feeding experiments were conducted essentially as described in (Kamath *et al.*,

2001). RNAi feeding clones were obtained from the Ahringer RNAi library and confirmed by

sequencing (Key resources table)(Fraser *et al.*, 2000; Kamath *et al.*, 2003). The L4440 empty

RNAi feeding vector transformed into HT115(DE3) was used as a negative control (Timmons

and Fire, 1998).

Microscopy

DAF-16 vesicular localization was analyzed in the intestinal cells of hermaphrodites.

Hermaphrodite worms at the L4 stage were imaged alive at room temperature unless it is stated

otherwise. Animals were picked and mounted onto 4% agarose pads, animals were anesthetized

with levamisole.

Differential interference contrast (DIC) and fluorescent imaging were performed with an

Axio Imager A1 compound microscope with a 100×1.3 NA Plan-Neofluar oil-immersion

objective lens (Zeiss) and images were captured by using an Axio Cam MRm camera and

AxioVision software (Zeiss). Confocal microscopy was performed on an Axio Observer Z1

LSM780 laser scanning confocal microscopes with a 63×1.4 NA Plan-Apochromat oil-

immersion objective lens (Zeiss) in a multi-track mode using an argon multiline laser (405 nm

excitation for autofluoresence, 488 nm excitation for GFP and a 561/ 594 nm excitation for

mCherry/RFP). Images were captured with a 32 channel GaAsP detector and ZEN2010 image

software. Raw data was analyzed using Fiji (ImageJ) or Zen 2010 Lit programs, and images were

modified by using Fiji (ImageJ).

To compare DAF-16 (*zIs356*) nuclear intensity in cells with or without DAF-16 vesicles,

animals at L4 stage were imaged using an LSM780 scanning laser microscope. To ensure

consistency, only the anterior most intestine cells were imaged. First, the nucleus of intestinal

cells were focused under bright field and without changing the position, GFP, autofluoresence

and bright field signals were imaged. Each animal was imaged using the same confocal settings.

After data collection, each nucleus was categorized as a nucleus with adjacent DAF-16-positive

vesicles or a nucleus without any DAF-16 positive vesicles. Total GFP intensity inside the

nucleus was measured using Fiji (Image J) software. The nucleus is circled using DIC/Bright

Field and autofluorescence channels as reference. Since intestinal cells have two nuclei per cells,

if there are two nuclei within the focus, their GFP intensity is averaged for statistical analysis.

Prism 8 (GraphPad) were used to graph the data and determine statistical analysis using an

unpaired t-test.

Starvation-Refeeding and Temperature Shift Experiments

For starvation and refeeding experiments animals were synchronized at the L1 stage and grown

NGM plates with HB101 *E. coli* till the L4 stage. Then animals were collected washed 3 times

for 5 mins with M9 buffer to remove bacteria in their gut. After the third wash animals were

plated to regular NGM plates with or without HB101 *E. coli*, and incubated for 4-5 hours before

scoring. Animals are scored for the presence of DAF-16::GFP-positive vesicles the intestine

using an A1 Zeiss microscope. After 4h-5h of starvation, animals were harvested with M9 buffer

from the starved plates and washed once with M9 buffer and plated to NGM plates with HB101

E. coli and incubated for 1-2 hours at 20°C before scoring.

Life span analysis

Replicate strains were maintained for several generations prior to beginning the lifespan assays

which were conducted at 20°C. For each strain 25 young adult hermaphrodites were picked to

two NGM plates without FUDR seeded with HB101 *E. coli* for three independent replicates

totaling 150 animals. Strains were coded and scored blindly to reduce bias. Animals were

transferred to fresh NGM plates to avoid contamination and getting crowded out by their

progeny. Animals were scored every 2-3 days and were considered dead when they stop

exhibiting spontaneous movement and fail to move in response to 1) a gentle touch of the tail, 2)

a gentle touch of the head, and 3) gently lifting the head. Animals that die of unnatural causes

(internal hatching of embryos, bursting, or crawling off the plate) are omitted. Graphs and

statistics were done using Graphpad Prism. None of the strains used in the lifespan assays carry

the *fln-2(ot611)* mutation found in a N2 male stock strain and found to extend median lifespan

(Gems and Riddle, 2000; Zhao *et al.*, 2019).

Fat staining

L4 animals were fixed for staining with Nile Red (Invitrogen) or Oil Red O (Sigma-Aldrich) as

previously described (Escorcia *et al.*, 2018). Imaging and analysis was done as previously

described (Ratemi *et al.*, 2019). Graphs and statistics were done using Graphpad Prism.

Quantitative real-time RT-PCR

C. elegans RNA was isolated from young adults maintained at 15°C using TRIZOL reagent

(Invitrogen). 1 ug of RNA was reverse transcribed into cDNA using the High-Capacity cDNA

Reverse Transcriptase Kit (Applied Biosystems). Quantitative real-time PCR was performed

using 1 µl of the cDNA preparation with SYBR-Green Reagents and a Vii7 qPCR analyzer

(Applied Biosystems). Each DAF-16 target gene was amplified using PCR primers as described

in (Senchuk *et al.*, 2018) and compared to *act-3* (Key Resource Table).

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was carried out using GraphPad Prism software. For the analysis of two

groups, a student t test was performed using two-tailed distribution for analysis involving two

groups of samples. Fishers' exact test was used for comparing groups of four. For each analysis,

$P<0.05$ was considered as significant.

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Figure 1. DAF-16 FOXO localizes to vesicles in intestinal cells

(A-H) Representative confocal and differential interference contrast (DIC) images of an

intestinal cell of wild-type (A, C, E, G) and *tbc-2(tm2241)* (B, D, F, H) animals expressing

DAF-16a::GFP *(zIs356)*. DAF-16a::GFP (green) is present on vesicles in both wild-type and

tbc-2(tm2241) intestinal cells (A and B) that are positive for autofluorescence (blue) present in

the the endolysosomal system (E and F). Corresponding DIC (C and D) and merged (G and F)

images are shown. A representative vesicle is shown (arrow head) and the two nuclei of the

binucleate cell are marked (n). Note that DAF-16a::GFP is excluded from the large nucleoli (A).

(I-J) Grouped bar graphs quantifying the percentage of wild-type (I) and *tbc-2(tm2241)* (J)

animals with 0, 1-10, 11-50 or >50 DAF-16a::GFP *(zIs356)* positive vesicles at the different

larval stages (L1-4) or 1 and 3 day old adults (A1 and A3). (K) A Tukey boxplot of the nuclear

intensity in artificial units (a.u.) of DAF-16a::GFP in *tbc-2(tm2241)* intestinal cells with and

without DAF-16a::GFP positive vesicles. *n,* total number of animals *** *P<0.001* in an unpaired

t test (Prism 8). Scale bar (A), 10μm.

Figure 2. Endogenously tagged DAF-16::mNeongreen and DAF-16 ::mKate2 localize to

vesicles. Representative confocal and differential interference contrast (DIC) images of intestinal

cells of *daf-16(ot853[daf-16::linker::mNeongreen::3xFlag::AID])* (A,C,E,G) and *daf-*

16(ot821[daf-16::mKate2::3xFlag]) (B,D,F,H). Arrows mark DAF-16::mNeongreen positive

vesicles in the green channel (A) that are distinct from autofluorescence in the red (C) and blue

channels shown as a merge (E). Arrows mark DAF-16::mKate2 positive vesicles in the red

channel (B) that are distinct from autofluorescence in the green (D) and blue channels shown as a

merge (F). For additional context the fluorescent channels were merged with their corresponding

DIC image (G and H). Bar graphs displaying the percent wild-type and *tbc-2(tm2241)* animals

with DAF-16::mNG positive vesicles (I). Fisher's exact test (graphpad.com) was used to

determine the statistical difference between conditions. *n*, total number of animals. ********

P<0.0001. Scale bar (A), 5μm.

Figure 3. RAB-5 and RAB-7 GTPases promote DAF-16 FOXO localization to endosomes

(A-F) Representative confocal images of the intestinal cells of animals expressing DAF-

16a::GFP (*zIs356)* (green) and either RFP::RAB-5 (*pwIs480*) (A-C) or mCherry::RAB-7

(*pwIs429*) (magenta) (D- F). Arrowheads mark examples of vesicles positive for both DAF-

16a::GFP and either RFP::RAB-5 or mCherry::RAB-7. Arrows mark examples of DAF-

16a::GFP vesicles that are not positive for either RFP::RAB-5 or mCherry::RAB-7. (G and H)

Bar graphs displaying the mean (and SEM) of the percent wild-type and *tbc-2(tm2241)* animals

with DAF-16a::GFP (*zIs356*) vesicles fed bacteria expressing control empty vector (ev) RNAi

(black bars) compared to animals fed *rab-5(RNAi)* or *rab-7(RNAi)* (white bars) from three

independent experiments. Fisher's exact test (graphpad.com) was used to determine the

statistical difference between conditions. *n*, total number of animals. * *P<0.05, *** P<0.001,*

**** P<0.0001.

Figure 4. DAF-16 FOXO endosome localization is regulated by IIS and nutrient availability

(A) Bar graphs of the percent wild-type (black) and *tbc-2(tm2241)* (red) animals with DAF-

16a::GFP (*zIs356*) vesicles in fed animals, animals starved between 4 and 5 hours and starved

animals that have been refed for 1 to 2 hours. (B) Diagram of IIS-mediate regulation of DAF-

16/FOXO. (C) Grouped bar graphs quantifying the percentage of wild-type and *daf-2(e1370)* L4

larvae (cumulative data from 3 independent strains) with 0, 1-10, 11-50 or >50 DAF-16a::GFP

(zIs356) positive vesicles at 15°C or shifted overnight to 25°C. (D) Bar graphs of percent wild-

type and *daf-18(e1375)* (cumulative data from 3 independent strains) and *daf-18(ok480)*

(cumulative data from 5 independent strains) with DAF-16a::GFP (*zIs356*) vesicles. (E) Bar

graphs of percent wild-type and *akt-2(ok393)* (cumulative data from 2 independent strains) with

DAF-16a::GFP (*zIs356*) vesicles. (F) Bar graphs of percent wild-type animals treated with

control empty vector RNAi and *akt-1(RNAi)* with DAF-16a::GFP (*zIs356*) vesicles. (G) Bar

graphs of percent wild-type, *sgk-1(ok538)* and *sgk-1(ft15)* with DAF-16a::GFP (*zIs356*) vesicles.

(H) Bar graphs of the percent wild-type (black) and *tbc-2(tm2241)* (red) animals fed control

empty vector RNAi, *par-5(RNAi)* and *ftt-2(RNAi)* with DAF-16a::GFP (*zIs356*) vesicles. (I) Bar

graph of the precent *tbc-2(tm2241)* animals with GFP::DAF-16a (*muIs71*) or DAF-16a^{AM}::GFP

(muIs113)-positive vesicles. Representative images of GFP::DAF-16a (*muIs71*) (top) and DAF-

16a^{AM}::GFP *(muIs113)* (bottom) are shown. GFP::DAF-16a vesicles (arrows) and the nuclei (n).

Fisher's exact test (graphpad.com) was used to determine the statistical difference between

conditions. *n*, total number of animals. ns, not significant, * *P<0.05,* ** *P<0.01,* **** *P<0.0001.*

Figure 5. TBC-2 is required for full lifespan extension and increased fat storage resulting

from decreased insulin/IGF signaling

(A,B) Percent survival curve of adult animals of wild-type and *daf-2(e1370)* with either *tbc-2(tm2241)* and *tbc-2(tm2241); daf-2(e1370)* (A) or *tbc-2(sv41)* and *tbc-2(sv41); daf-2(e1370)* (B) genotypes. The survival of all strains are statistically different from *daf-2(e1370)* animals as determined by a Mantel-Cox log-rank test: *tbc-2(tm2241); daf-2(e1370)* (*P<0.001*) and *tbc-2(sv41); daf-2(e1370)* (*P=0.0314*). Cumulative data from three independent replicates of 50

young adults for a total of 150. (C,D) Log2 fold change in Nile Red (NR) fluorescence intensity

(C) or Oil Red O staining intensity (D) comparing wild-type, *daf-2(e1370)*, *tbc-2(tm2241)* and

tbc-2(tm2241); daf-2(e1370) fixed L4 hermaphrodites. Statistical analysis was done using a

student's t-test with a one way analysis of variance (ANOVA). ns, not significant. ** *P* <0.01,

**** *P* <0.0001.

Figure 6. TBC-2 is required for the increased DAF-16 target gene expression resulting

from decreased insulin/IGF signaling

Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of DAF-16 target gene expression in wild-type, *daf-2(e1370)*, *tbc-*

2(tm2241), tbc-2(tm2241); daf-2(e1370), tbc-2(sv41), and *tbc-2(sv41); daf-2(e1370).* Statistical

analysis was performed using an Ordinary one-way ANOVA – Tukey's multiple comparisons

test. Shown are comparisons of *tbc-2(tm2241); daf-2(e1370)* and *tbc-2(sv41); daf-2(e1370)*

versus *daf-2(e1370)* single mutants. ns, not significant. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

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