The Rab GTPase activating protein TBC-2 extends longevity by facilitating release of FOXO/DAF-16 from endosomes

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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 also increased by

disrupting the Rab GTPase activating protein TBC-2, or decreased by inhibiting the RAB-5 or

RAB-7 GTPases, key regulators of early to late endosome maturation. Importantly, the amount

of DAF-16 that is localized to endosomes has functional consequences as increasing endosomal

localization through mutations in *tbc-2* decreased the lifespan of long-lived *daf-2 IGFR* mutants,

depleted their fat stores, and DAF-16 target gene expression. Finally, we show that the ability of

TBC-2 proteins, TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B, to regulate FOXO protein localization is conserved in

human cells. Overall, this work identifies endosomal localization as a mechanism regulating

FOXO/DAF-16, 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,

were 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 PI3P 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). TBC-2 has two human homologs TBC1D2/Armus and TBC1D2B (Chotard *et al.*,

2010a). TBC1D2 has *in vitro* GAP activity toward Rab7 and regulates endosome trafficking and

autophagy (Frasa *et al.*, 2010; Serva *et al.*, 2012; Carroll *et al.*, 2013; Toyofuku *et al.*, 2015;

Jaber *et al.*, 2016). TBC1D2B interacts with Rab22 and Rab31, Rab5 related GTPases, and

colocalizes with Rab5 and Rab7, but a specific Rab GTPase target of GAP activity has not been

demonstrated (Kanno *et al.*, 2010; Manshouri *et al.*, 2019; Harms *et al.*, 2020; Wei *et al.*, 2021).

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

to endosomes in *C. elegans* intestinal cells. We found that endosome localization is regulated by

nutrient availability and IIS. We show that endosome localization is increased through mutations

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

decreases lifespan, fat storage and DAF-16 target gene expression in *daf-2 IGFR* mutant animals.

In human cell lines we demonstrated that phosphorylated FOXO1/3a localizes to endosomes and

that this localization is regulated by TBC1D2/Armus and TBC1D2B. Combined these results

demonstrate a role of endosomal localization in the regulation and function of FOXO, which is

conserved between *C. elegans* and humans.

100   5

101 **RESULTS**
102

TBC-2 regulates 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 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 S1A). *tbc-2(tm2241)*

animals were about twice as likely to have DAF-16 vesicles than wild-type (Figure 1J; Figure

S1A). We quantified the number of vesicles per animal. Wild-type animals can range from zero

vesicles to having hundreds of vesicles (Figure 1I). Vesicles can be distributed throughout the

20 cells of the intestine, or can be present in high numbers in just one or a few intestinal cells. In

contrast, *tbc-2(tm2241)* animals typically have many more vesicles than wild-type (Figure 1J;

Figure S1A). 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 endogenous DAF-16 localizes to vesicles we analyzed *daf-16(hq23)*, a

DAF-16::GFP line generated by CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing and generously provided by M.-

Q. Dong, and found that endogenously tagged DAF-16 localized to vesicles in both wild-type

and *tbc-2(tm2241)* mutants (Figure S2A-F). We also analyzed three other transgenic strains with

lower expression levels than DAF-16a::GFP (*zIs356*): GFP::DAF-16a (*muIs71*), DAF-16a::RFP

(*lpIs12*) and DAF-16f::GFP (*lpIs14,* with an alternate N-terminus)(Henderson and Johnson,

2001; Lin *et al.*, 2001; Kwon *et al.*, 2010). While we were unable to detect DAF-16 positive

vesicles in wild-type backgrounds, in *tbc-2(tm2241)* mutant animals there were DAF-16 vesicles

in all three transgenic animals (Figure S2G-X). To determine if vesicular localization is specific

to DAF-16::GFP, we overexpressed GFP by itself in the intestine. Overexpression of GFP from

vha-6 intestinal specific promoter, *vhEx1[Pvha-6::GFP]*, did not show significant vesicular

localization in wild-type animals (Figure S1B). 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 fluorescent tag. Of note,

we found that GFP expression in the *tbc-2* background was visibly stronger than in wild-type

(Figure S1C-F), 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.

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

147 vesicles contain autofluorescent lipofuscin (Figure 1E-H), a hallmark of intestinal

148 endolysosomes (Clokey and Jacobson, 1986), suggested that DAF-16 vesicles are endosomal.

149 To determine if the DAF-16 vesicles are endosomes, we co-expressed DAF-16a::GFP with

150 RFP::RAB-5, an early endosomal marker, or with mCherry::RAB-7, a late endosomal marker

151 (Chavrier *et al.*, 1990; Sato *et al.*, 2005; Chen *et al.*, 2006). We found that in wild-type animals,

152 DAF-16a::GFP localizes to a subset of RAB-5 and RAB-7-positive endosomes (Figure 2A-F).

153 Furthermore, we tested the genetic requirements for *rab-5* and *rab-7* for DAF-16 localization by

154 RNAi. We found that *rab-5(RNAi)* and *rab-7(RNAi)* knockdown significantly decreased the

155 number of wild-type and *tbc-2(tm2241)* animals with DAF-16a::GFP vesicles (Figure 2G and

156 H). Together, these data are consistent with DAF-16 localizing to a sub-population of endosomes

157 or endosome-like vesicles in the intestinal cells.

159 **Acute starvation suppresses DAF-16 localization to endosomes**

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

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

162 we tested the effect of acute starvation on DAF-16a::GFP localization to endosomes. We found

163 that starvation strongly suppressed the localization of DAF-16 to endosomes in both wild-type

164 and *tbc-2(tm2241)* mutants (Figure 3A; Figure S3). Upon re-feeding, DAF-16 relocalized to

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

166 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 3B 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. 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

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, but cumulatively the three strains had a statistically significant increase

in the number of animals with DAF-16 endosomes (Figure 3D). 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 cumulatively

was statistically significant (Figure 3D). Since DAF-16 endosome localization is 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). 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 3E). 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 3F). 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 3G), 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. 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 3H). 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 4A and B). 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 4A and B). 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 4C-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 4D 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 4C-

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 5) (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 5). 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.

TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B regulate phospho-FOXO1/3a localization to endosomes

Towards understanding if endosomal regulation of FOXO proteins occurs in human cells,

we tested if FOXO proteins localize to endosomes and if this localization is regulated by the

human homologs of TBC-2, TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B. We confirmed that TBC1D2 and

TBC1D2B were expressed in Henrietta Lacks (HeLa) and Human Embryonic Kidney 293

(HEK293) cells. TBC1D2 mRNA and protein were more highly expressed in HeLa cells while

TBC1D2B mRNA and protein are more highly expressed in HEK293 cells (Figure S4). siRNAs

targeting TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B specifically and strongly reduced the expression in both cell

lines (Figure S5). We assessed the levels of total FOXO1 and FOXO3a as well as the relative

levels of phosphorylated FOXO1 (pFOXO1) and pFOXO3a in HeLa and HEK293 cells treated

with siRNA targeting TBC1D2, TBC1D2B or both (Figure S6). We did not detect a significant

difference in the levels of total FOXO1 or FOXO3a relative to Actin, indicating that TBC1D2

and TBC1D2B do not regulate FOXO1/3a protein levels. Furthermore, the ratio of pFOXO1 and

pFOXO3a relative to total FOXO1 and FOXO3a respectively is not significantly different

suggesting that the phosphorylation status of FOXO1 and FOXO3a is not regulated by TBC1D2

and TBC1D2B. We assayed the colocalization of FOXO3a, the predominant FOXO in HEK293

and HeLa cells and closest DAF-16 homolog, with endogenous Rab5 and Rab7 early and late

endosomal GTPases. FOXO3a is primarily found in the nucleus of HeLa cells and is both

cytoplasmic and nuclear in HEK293 cells, as such there is a higher correlation coefficient of

FOXO3a with Rab5 and Rab7 in untreated HEK293 cells than in HeLa cells (Figure S7). Thus,

FOXO3a localizes to endosomes in human cells. Knockdown of TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B by

siRNA had no effect on FOXO3a colocalization with Rab5 and Rab7 in HEK293 cells (Figure

S7 A-D). In HeLa cells there was a modest, but significant increase in colocalization of

FOXO3a with Rab5 and Rab7, but with only one set of siRNAs targeting both TBC1D2 and

TBC1D2B (Figure S7 E-H).

Since our data with DAF-16 suggests that endosome localization correlates with

phosphorylated DAF-16, we analyzed the localization of pFOXO1/3a using an antibody that

recognizes both phosphorylated FOXO1 and FOXO3a. In HEK293 cells there was a clear

increase in colocalization of phosphorylated FOXO1/3a with Rab5 and a moderate increase with

Rab7 when both TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B were knocked down with two distinct siRNAs (Figure

6 A-D). This was even more evident in HeLa cells where individual knockdown of TBC1D2 or

TBC1D2B was sufficient to significantly increase colocalization of pFOXO1/3a with Rab5 and

knockdown of both TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B strongly increased colocalization with both Rab5

and Rab7 (Figure 6 E-H). These results show that FOXO proteins localize to endosomes in

human cells and that similar to the *C. elegans* intestinal cells, this localization is regulated by the

TBC1D2 family of RabGAPs.

The modest colocalization seen in HeLa cells appeared to coincide with increased

cytoplasmic FOXO3a in TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B knockdown cells (Figure S7). Therefore, we

measured the nuclear fluorescence intensity of pFOXO1/3a and total FOXO3a relative to DAPI

and found that siRNA knockdown of TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B together or individually both

reduced the nuclear localization of FOXO3a in HeLa cells (Figure 7F, H). As expected the

correlation of coefficient of pFOXO1/3a with DAPI was low in comparison to FOXO3a and not

altered by knockdown of TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B (Figure 7E, G). In HEK293 cells, knockdown

of TBC1D2B but not TBC1D2 was sufficient to reduce nuclear localization of both total

FOXO3a and pFOXO1/3a (Figure 7A-D), consistent with TBC1D2B being more highly

expressed in HEK293 cells than TBC1D2. These data indicate that the increased endosomal

localization of FOXO protein correlates with decreased nuclear localization mirroring our data

with DAF-16 in *C. elegans* intestinal cells and that there is a conserved role for TBC-2/TBC1D2

family of RabGAPs in regulation of FOXO proteins.

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 FOXO transcription factors on endosomes in *C. elegans* and in human cell lines. Endosome

localization is limited by the TBC1D2 family of Rab GAPs. Loss of *C. elegans* TBC-2 or

knockdown of human TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B results in increased endosomal localization of

FOXO proteins 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 that the TBC1D2

family of Rab GAPs have an evolutionarily conserved role in regulating the balance of nuclear

versus endosomal localization of FOXO transcription factors.

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, and DAF-16 positive endosomes are not present in every cell or every animal.

319   Furthermore, we first took notice of DAF-16 positive endosomes in the *tbc-2* mutant background

320   where they are more prominent. These are likely not an artefactual consequence of

321   overexpression, as we see these vesicles in the endogenously tagged *daf-16::GFP* and we do not

322   see similar vesicles in a GFP overexpression strain. Additionally, DAF-16-vesicles are regulated

323   by IIS and we detect endogenous FOXO on endosomes in human cells (discussed further below).

324   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. Future studies should test for additional IIS components on DAF-16 positive

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.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

371 *2(e1370)* mutants suggests that TBC-2 might have a more specific role related to IIS. However,

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

382 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.

FOXO localization to endosomes in human cells

We demonstrated that FOXO proteins can localize to Rab5 and Rab7 endosomes in two

commonly used human cell lines, HeLa and HEK293. This localization was most prominent

with pFOXO1/3a, the inactive pool that is mostly excluded from the nucleus. Consistent with

our finding in *C. elegans* we found that siRNA knockdown of TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B increased

the endosomal localization of pFOXO1/3a and this effect was strongest with double knockdown,

indicating that TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B have overlapping functions. The increased endosomal

localization was accompanied by a decrease in nuclear FOXO3a and pFOXO1/3a. These data

suggest that the mechanisms in *C. elegans* are conserved in human cells. We did not detect

significant changes in protein expression levels or of the phosphorylation status of FOXO1 or

FOXO3a in TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B knockdown. This suggests that the TBC1D2 proteins do

not regulate FOXO expression or phosphorylation state. Given that Rab5 regulates IIS on

endosomes, further studies will be needed to determine if TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B functionally

impact IIS signaling outcomes in mammalian cells. Interestingly, TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B were

shown to interact with PI3,4,5P and that TBC1D2 was recruited to the plasma membrane upon

PDGFR/PI3K signal activation (Jungmichel *et al.*, 2014), suggesting the possibility of TBC1D2

and TBC1D2B regulation by IIS.

Endosomal localization of FOXO proteins is reminiscent of lysosomal regulation of the

TFEB family of transcription factors. Similar to FOXO, nuclear translocation of TFEB is

inhibited by phosphorylation and interactions with 14-3-3 proteins (Settembre *et al.*, 2013). In

this case, TFEB is phosphorylated by the nutrient sensing mTOR kinase on lysosomes.

Interestingly, the nuclear localization of *C. elegans* TFEB homolog, HLH-30, is inhibited by

DAF-2 IGFR and HLH-30 is required for the full lifespan extension of *daf-2(e1370)* mutants, as

well as lifespan extension by other perturbations and regulates fat storage (Lapierre *et al.*, 2013;

O'Rourke and Ruvkun, 2013). In fact HLH-30 and DAF-16 can interact in the nucleus to

combinatorially regulate expression of genes involved in longevity and oxidative stress

resistance (Lin *et al.*, 2018). We predict that regulators of endolysosomal trafficking, such as

TBC1D2 family of Rab GAPs, would perturb TFEB/HLH-30 regulation on lysosomes.

In conclusion, we demonstrate that DAF-16/FOXO transcription factors localize to

endosomes in *C. elegans* and in human cell lines. This endosomal localization of FOXO is

regulated by both IIS and the TBC-2 family of Rab5 and Rab7 GAPs. TBC-2/TBC1D2 promotes

the nuclear localization of DAF-16/FOXO, and in *C. elegans* 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 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 (Table S1). New strains were constructed using standard

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

Cell culture and transfection

HEK293 (CRL-1573) or HeLa (CCL-2) cells were obtained from the American Type Culture

Collection (ATCC; Manassas, VA). Cells were cultured in DMEM (Gibco, Grand Island, NY)

supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin (growth

medium) at 37°C with 5% CO_2. Typically, cells were plated at a density (~150,000 cells/well in

a six-well plate) that would result in 70-75% confluence the following day, unless otherwise

noted.

RNAi experiments

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

2001). The following RNAi feeding clones were obtained from the Ahringer RNAi library: *rab-*

5 (I-4J01), *rab-7* (II-8G13), *akt-1* (V-7I17), *ftt-2* (X-5F07) and *par-5* (IV-6E06) and confirmed

by sequencing. The L4440 empty vector was used as a negative control (AddGene).

For siRNA transfection, HEK293 or HeLa cells at ∼70% confluence were transfected

with 25 nM oligonucleotides (IDT; Table S2) using JetPrime Reagent (Polyplus Transfection)

and following the manufacturer's protocol. The transfection mixture was replaced with fresh

growth medium the day following transfection and the cells were incubated for an additional 18-

24 hours before being harvested.

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 and LSM510 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.

HEK293 or HeLa cells (~60,000) were seeded on glass coverslips in 24-well plates and

incubated overnight in growth medium. The next day, cells were transfected with siRNA as

described under Cell culture and transfection. For immunofluorescence analysis, cells were

rinsed once in DMEM containing 10 mM HEPES and then fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 20

min. The cells were then rinsed twice in DMEM containing 10 mM HEPES, followed by a 1-h

incubation in DMEM containing 10 mM HEPES, 2% FBS, 0.1% Triton X-100, and primary

antibody (Table S3). Following three washes in DMEM containing 10 mM HEPES, the cells

were incubated for 1 h in DMEM containing 10 mM HEPES, 2% FBS, and fluorescently labeled

secondary antibody. The cells were washed three times, incubated for 10 min with 4′,6-

diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) in PBS, rinsed two times with distilled water, and mounted on

glass slides using ProLong Gold anti-fade reagent (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA). Slides

were visualized as described using an Axio fluorescence microscope (40X or 63X magnification;

Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany) and Zen imaging software.

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). RNA from HEK293 and HeLa cells was isolated by solubilizing cells in 4 M

guanidinium isothiocyanate and phenol-chloroform extraction. RNA concentration was

determined using a NanoDrop LITE spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). 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* (Table S4). TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B were compared to glyceraldehyde 3-

phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) expression (Table S4).

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.

For mammalian work: Student's t-test was used to compare the difference between two groups,

one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the difference between three or

more groups, and two-way ANOVA was used to compare the difference between multiple

groups under different treatment conditions. A probability $P< 0.05$ was considered significant,

with specific values of significance provided the figure legends.

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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. 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 3. 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 (black) and *daf-18(e1375)* (gray, 3 independent strains) and *daf-18(ok480)* (gray, 5

independent strains) with DAF-16a::GFP (*zIs356*) vesicles. (E) Bar graphs of percent wild-type

(black) and *akt-2(ok393)* (gray, 2 independent strains). (F) Bar graphs of percent wild-type

animals treated with control empty vector RNAi (black) and *akt-1(RNAi)* (gray). (G) 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. (H) 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 4. 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

(*P<0.001*) with the exception of *tbc-2(sv41); daf-2(e1370)* (*P=0.0314*) as determined by a

Mantel-Cox log-rank test. 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 5. 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.

 Figure 6. Depletion of the human TBC-2 homologs enhances localization of phosphorylated

FOXO/DAF-16 to endosomes. HEK293 (A-D) and HeLa (E-H) cells were transfected with

nonspecific control (CTL) siRNA oligonucleotides or independent oligonucleotides towards

TBC1D2, TBC1D2B, or both. Cells were fixed and probed for endogenous phospho-FOXO1/3a

(recognizes both FOXO1 and FOXO3a), Rab5 or Rab7 endosomal markers using indirect

immunofluorescence and visualized using a confocal microscope (63X-oil magnification with

4X digital zoom) 48 hours following transfection. (A,B,E,F): Representative images of indirect

immunofluorescence for visualization of phospho-FOXO1/3a (green), and Rab5 (A,E) or Rab7

(B,F) (magenta). (C,D,G,H): Coefficient of correlation between phospho-FOXO1/3a and Rab5

or Rab7 fluorescence intensity; a minimum of 6 images per group (n=3) with mean ± SE. * $P <$

0.05, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, **** $P < 0.0001$ (one-way ANOVA).

Figure 7. Depletion of TBC1D2 and TBC1D2B modulates nuclear-cytosolic shuttling of

FOXO. HEK293 (A-D) and HeLa (E-H) cells were transfected with nonspecific control (CTL)

siRNA oligonucleotides or independent oligonucleotides towards TBC1D2A, TBC1D2B, or

both. Cells were fixed and probed for pFOXO1/3a or FOXO3a using indirect

immunofluorescence and visualized using a confocal microscope (63X-oil magnification) 48

hours following transfection. (A,B,E,F): Representative images of indirect immunofluorescence

for visualization of endogenous pFOXO1/3a (A,E) or FOXO3a (B,F) (green) or DAPI

(magenta). (C,D,G,H): Coefficient of correlation between pFOXO1/3a (C,F) or FOXO3a (D,H)

and DAPI florescence intensity; a minimum of 6 images per group (n≥3) with mean ± SE. * $P <$

0.05, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$ (one-way ANOVA).