Encoding of hunger by the neuronal epigenome slows aging in *Drosophila*

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Abstract: Hunger is, by necessity, an ancient motivational drive, yet the molecular nature of homeostatic pressures of this sort and how they modulate health and physiology are largely unknown. Here we show that the molecular encoding of hunger slows aging in *Drosophila*. We identify the branched-chain amino acids (BCAAs) as dietary hunger signals that extend lifespan despite increasing food intake when reduced, and in parallel show that optogenetic activation of a subset of hunger-promoting neurons is sufficient to recapitulate these effects. We find that remodeling of the neuronal histone acetylome is associated with dietary BCAA reduction, and that this requires BCAA metabolism in specific subsets of neurons. Preventing the histone acetylome from being molded by dietary BCAAs abrogates both increased feeding and extended lifespan. However, the mechanisms that promote feeding and modulate aging downstream of alterations in histone acetylation occur through spatially and temporally distinct responses; differential usage of the histone variant H3.3A in the brain is an acute response to hunger that promotes increased feeding without modulating lifespan, while a prolonged experience of hunger may slow aging by promoting a beneficial decrease of a set-point around which hunger levels are regulated. Identification of a molecular basis for the encoding of hunger and demonstration of its sufficiency in extending lifespan reveals that motivational states alone are deterministic drivers of aging and behavior.

Introduction

The relationship between an animal and its diet influences behavior and aging in remarkable ways. The physiological need for nutrients motivates animals to forage and feed, and forced limitation in food availability slows aging across taxa[1]. Both effects derive not only from the energetic content of the diet but also its composition[2-4]. Many animals eat until they have consumed a specific amount of protein, for example, and the protein:carbohydrate ratio that results in part from seeking this target is a major factor in modulating lifespan[5]. Remarkably, an animal need not consume its diet to be affected by it. In mice, appetite is promoted by environmental cues that predict future food consumption, presumably by influencing broader neural states that specify nutrient-specific drive, or hunger[6, 7]. Similarly, the taste and smell of specific nutrients modulate lifespan in, among other species, the fruit fly, *Drosophila melanogaster*, and the nematode, *Caenorhabditis elegans*[8-11].

It seems likely that the effects of diet on aging and behavior share mechanistic foundations in the motivational states they promote, yet little is known about the molecular nature of these states. Many animals, including humans, develop a motivational drive for protein, which has also been described in *Drosophila* in response to starvation and mating[12-14]. The existence of this drive and its ability to influence physiology is demonstrated by the observation that perception of protein-containing food without its consumption reverses the beneficial effects of protein-restricted diets in *Drosophila* and *C. elegans.* [11, 15, 16]. Serotonin, together with neurons that express a specific serotonin receptor (5-HT2A), modulate this hunger state, and loss of 5-HT2A increases lifespan up to 50% in nutrient-rich conditions[17]. Observations like these led us to consider the hypothesis that the neural states that encode the motivation to seek food and that

define hunger *per se* may be sufficient to slow aging, independent of any changes in nutrient

intake that may result.

Here we establish that hunger modulates aging in *Drosophila* and demonstrate that epigenomic

encoding of this motivational state promotes feeding and modulates lifespan through partially

distinct downstream mechanisms. We show that two models of hungry flies – by reducing

dietary branched-chain amino acids or by activation of neurons that evoke hunger - are long-

lived, despite consuming more calories and total protein. We establish that specific subsets of

Drosophila neurons use BCAA metabolism to promote the decoration of histone tails with

acetylation marks in the brain; a plasticity that is required to encode hunger in these models.

Finally, we present evidence to suggest that prolonged hunger alters a set-point around which

appetite is regulated and that this adaptation is an important component of a slowed aging

process.

Results

To investigate how neural states motivate feeding and modulate aging, we focused our

investigations on the branched-chain amino acids (BCAAs) primarily because reducing them in

the diets of mammals and flies increases protein appetite and extends lifespan[18, 19]. We used a

chemically defined diet to titrate and manipulate the BCAAs without altering other dietary

components[20]. We first designed a reference holidic diet (RD), around which we were able to

manipulate BCAAs within a range of concentrations consistent with standard diets used for

Drosophila aging studies that ensure against mal- and over-nutrition. We enforced equal

concentrations of all other non-essential amino acids and non-BCAA essential amino acids

across diets, which allowed us to study the effects of BCAAs without the confounding effects of

general amino acid deficiency that are mediated by well-described mechanisms (Fig. 1A)(*13, 21-*

23). This led to diets of modestly different caloricity. However, caloric content has been shown

to be less impactful than dietary composition in modulating lifespan and subsequent experiments

ruled out differences in calories as a cause of the dietary effects we observed(*2*).

Consistent with previous reports, dietary BCAA concentration modulated fly lifespan(*19, 24*)

(Fig. 1B). Lifespan extension was larger in female flies and was maximized on a diet containing

roughly 1/3rd of the BCAA content of the reference diet, which is consistent with lifespan

extension observed with dilution of the standard laboratory diet (Fig. 1B, Fig. 1C, Fig. S1A)(*2,*

3). We subsequently focused our investigation using female flies because of their known,

heightened lifespan and neuronal responses to protein availability, which we also observed(*25,*

26). We chose two diets from the range of those initially tested, hereafter termed "low -BCAA"

(8mM BCAAs/5.6% w/v total amino acid) and "high-BCAA" (44mM BCAAs/7.2% w/v total

amino acid), to investigate in detail.

Dietary BCAAs also modulated food intake. Using a method that determines how much volume

a group of flies consume in 24 hours by feeding them on blue-dyed food and then collecting their

excretions (termed "Con-Ex" for Consumption-Excretion)(*27, 28*), we found that flies on low-

BCAA diets consumed more food volume compared to those on high-BCAA diets (Fig. 1D, left

panel). This was due to an increase in food intake by flies on low-BCAA diets rather than a

decrease by flies on high-BCAA diets because food intake was also increased compared to flies

on our RD (Fig. S1B). Differences were unlikely a result of food taste; *Pox-Neuro* flies who have

extreme deficits in chemosensation also consumed more food on low-BCAA diets (Fig. 1D, right

panel). Increased volume intake by flies on low-BCAA diets resulted in significantly higher

caloric intake (Fig. 1E) but in similar amounts of total amino acids (ug/fly) eaten between flies

fed low- or high-BCAA diets (Fig. 1F, left panel), while BCAA intake was significantly reduced

(ug/fly) for flies fed the low-BCAA diet (Fig. 1F, right panel). Thus, flies fed our low-BCAA

diet consumed more calories and similar amounts of total amino acids yet lived significantly

longer.

Dietary BCAAs influence hunger states

The relative increase in food intake we observed when flies live on low-BCAA diets led us to

speculate that reducing dietary BCAAs created a food environment that promoted a heightened

and persistent state of hunger. Measuring hunger can be challenging in a simple model system;

animals eat for many reasons, and total food intake on homogenous mixtures of nutrients may

not be as indicative of hunger levels as feeding paradigms that quantify precisely when and how

often individual animals interact with specific food sources(*6, 13, 17, 29, 30*). We therefore

devised a refeeding assay to determine how BCAAs influence hunger. In this paradigm, starved

flies are refed a measured 3-hour bolus of test food, such as low- or high-BCAA, and are then

placed into a common food environment (termed "common garden") where we measure food

interactions using the Fly Liquid Food Interaction Counter (FLIC)(*31*) (Fig. 1G, Experiment 1,

top panel). We reasoned that if BCAAs did influence a state of hunger, then manipulating their

concentration in the test food during refeeding would alter future food interactions during

assessment in the common garden.

We observed that flies refed a low-BCAA diet subsequently interacted more often with the

sucrose/yeast food in the common garden than did flies refed a high-BCAA diet and, in fact,

interacted as frequently as did flies that were not refed at all (Fig. 1H). This was not due to a

reduction in total calories or amino acids consumed during the refeeding period: flies ingested

significantly more food volume and also more calories, as measured by Con-Ex, when refeeding

on a diet of low-BCAAs than they did when refeeding on a high-BCAA diet (Fig. 1I), although

total amino acid intake (ug/fly) was indistinguishable from flies refed high-BCAAs and BCAA

consumption (ug/fly) was significantly less (Fig. S1C).

While the three BCAAs are commonly investigated together because they share similarities in

their biochemical structures and functions, we next tested them individually for their role in

promoting feeding. We measured food intake after reduction of each BCAA from the high-

BCAA diet and found that decreasing isoleucine, but not valine or leucine or other pairwise

combinations of amino acids, was required to increase feeding in the 24hr ConEx assay (Fig. 1J,

Fig. S1D, S1E). Reducing dietary isoleucine increased the total calories consumed (Fig. S1E)

and was the only dietary manipulation that we observed as sufficient to promote increased total

amino acid intake (Fig. S1D). Furthermore, increasing isoleucine alone from our low-BCAA diet

to match the concentration in our high-BCAA diet was sufficient to decrease food intake (Fig.

1J), demonstrating that isoleucine acts as a dietary signal to modulate feeding.

Having established that isoleucine was sufficient to modulate volumetric food intake, we next

returned to our refeeding paradigm to determine how nutrient-specific drives may be affected by

this amino acid using the FLIC to measure behavior in a food-choice environment. Choices

between carbohydrate- or protein-rich food are thought to be tuned by increased protein demand

in starved animals, who exhibit a robust increase in interactions with protein-rich food compared

to carbohydrate-rich food, and to serve as a useful proxy for measuring protein-specific

hunger(*31-33*). We reasoned that if isoleucine has a specific influence on protein hunger, then

manipulating its concentration in the test food during refeeding would be expected to alter future

choices between protein or carbohydrate food during the subsequent assessment period. For

these experiments, we allowed flies a bolus of refeeding for three hours on either conventional

10% sugar-yeast food or the same food to which we added 1% isoleucine. We then measured

over the next 24hrs the frequency of individual fly interactions with either carbohydrate- or

protein-rich food in the choice environment (Fig. 1G, Experiment 2, bottom panel). Control flies

that were refed conventional sugar-yeast food exhibited more interactions with protein-rich food

compared to the carbohydrate-rich food, establishing that the three hours of refeeding before the

test period were insufficient to fully satiate the animals and that they maintained a heightened

level of protein drive (Fig. 1K, top). On the other hand, flies that were refed food with added

isoleucine had statistically indistinguishable interactions with carbohydrate- compared to

protein-rich food (Fig. 1K, bottom). Thus, levels of dietary isoleucine modulate protein-specific

appetite, suggesting that our low-BCAA diet could promote a heightened state of hunger,

perhaps by influencing protein drive.

Hunger states influence lifespan

We next asked whether restriction of isoleucine alone was capable of increasing lifespan. We

reduced all BCAAs or just isoleucine from our reference diet and found that isoleucine reduction

(but not valine or threonine) was sufficient to extend lifespan to a similar degree as reducing all

BCAAs, despite increased intake of calories, total amino acids, and carbohydrates (Fig. 1L, Fig.

S1F). This observation is consistent with our conjecture that the motivational state of hunger

itself, rather than the availability or energetic characteristics of the diet, might slow aging.

Further support for this idea was provided by the observations that our diets did not have

significant effects on egg laying, activity levels, triglyceride and protein levels, and activation of

mTOR/AKT pathways (Figs. S2, A-E), which are commonly associated with manipulations that

modulate lifespan through changes in nutrient availability or toxicity.

To determine whether hunger itself might slow aging, we sought a way to induce it independent

of dietary manipulations and examine its effect on lifespan. Neurons whose activity evokes

hunger in the fly have been described, but their role in modulating lifespan has not been

examined(*34*). These neurons can be manipulated by using flies that express the GAL4

transgenic activator under the R50H05 driver (R50H05-GAL4). By targeting expression of the

light-sensitive cation channel CsChrimson to these neurons, we created flies in which R50

hunger neurons were optogenetically activated at will to artificially generate hunger and to

increase feeding when adult flies were exposed to red light. We observed that these flies

consumed twice as much food as did flies of the same genotype that were kept in the dark or that

expressed a green-light sensitive opsin channel (GTACR), consistent with prior reports (Fig.

1M). Remarkably, we also found that inducing a heightened state of hunger by activating these

neurons for 12 hours each day during the light period significantly extended lifespan relative to a

genetic control strain, which was not observed in the dark where flies are modestly long-lived in

general – a known phenomenon that has been reported by our lab and others (Fig. 1N, Fig. S3).

We interpreted this as a stark confirmation of our conjecture that hunger itself slows aging.

Molecular encoding of hunger by the neuronal epigenome

We next turned to defining the molecular interactions among BCAAs, hunger neurons, and the

brain to determine how hunger might be molecularly encoded. Our attention was drawn to the

epigenome because alterations in histone proteins are involved in the generation of motivated

behaviors, are a hallmark of aging, and are regulated by nutrients(*35-38*). Furthermore, histone

acetylation is especially sensitive to the availability of dietary nutrients that generate acetyl-CoA,

and BCAAs and isoleucine specifically are metabolically fated to produce this substrate(*39, 40*).

We first examined whether dietary BCAAs influenced relevant histone post-translational

modifications. We found that histone H3K9 acetylation was significantly decreased in fly heads

within one week of feeding a low-BCAA diet (Fig. 2A). Subsequent experiments revealed that

H3K27 acetylation, but not H3K9 methylation, was also reduced when flies were fed low-BCAA

diets. All significant effects of dietary BCAAs on histone PTMs were abrogated by feeding flies

the histone deacetylase inhibitor, sodium butyrate (Fig. 2C). We also observed an unexpected

decrease in total histone H3 abundance in heads and brains, although H3 mRNA was increased

(Fig. 2A-C, Fig. S4). The significant decrease in total histone H3 was independent of changes in

histone H4, which were statistically non-significant between diets (Fig. 2D). Inducing hunger

independent of diet by activation of R50 hunger neurons also reduced histone H3 abundance in

fly heads (Fig. 2E), and reducing isoleucine alone, which was important for modulating feeding

and lifespan (e.g., Fig. 1), partially recapitulated the effects of BCAAs on histone H3 abundance,

suggesting that epigenetic changes may be causally linked to one or both hunger phenotypes

(Fig. 2D).

We next focused on the unexpected finding that histone H3 abundance was reduced by low-

BCAA diets. Increased H3 mRNA levels coupled with decreased protein abundance led us to

hypothesize that BCAAs may influence turnover of histone H3, such that it may happen more

quickly on low-BCAA diets. In the brain, histone H3 is marked for eviction from chromatin by

acetylation marks and can be replaced by the histone variant H3.3(*41, 42*). This variant

accumulates with age and is thought to decorate regions of actively transcribed chromatin(*43*).

We found that it is also transcriptionally increased in the heads of our flies fed low-BCAA diets

(Fig. 3A). To visualize the incorporation and removal of histone H3.3 into neuronal chromatin,

we used an inducible pan-neuronal driver (Nsyb-GeneSwitch-GAL4) to pulse and then chase

fluorescently tagged H3.3 into the brain(*41*). We observed higher H3.3-GFP signal in fly brains

after one week of feeding on low- vs. high-BCAA diets, indicating an increase in its stability or

persistence in chromatin (Fig. 3B, lower panel; quantified in Fig. 3D), which was not due to

changes in initial H3.3-GFP incorporation (Fig. 3B, top panel; quantified in Fig. 3C) or to

differences in protein degradation more generally (Fig. 3D). These data indicate differential

usage of histone H3 and the variant H3.3A in the fly brain following feeding on a low-BCAA

diet.

To determine whether the observed differences in histone acetylation or variant usage were

required for feeding or lifespan differences between the diets, we began with a pharmacological

approach to broadly inhibit histone deacetylases (HDACs), which prevented diet-dependent

differences in histone acetylation (Fig. 2C). Feeding flies the HDAC inhibitor sodium butyrate

for one week abrogated increased feeding on low-BCAA diets, indicating that the histone

acetylome could either encode hunger itself or be a permissive response to hunger that modulates

feeding (Fig. 3E). To distinguish between these possibilities, we fed flies HDAC inhibitors for

life and found that this extended the lifespan of flies on high-BCAA food. Dietary modulation of

histone acetylation therefore regulates both feeding and lifespan, supporting the idea that the

histone acetylome encodes hunger rather than feeding *per se* (Fig. 3H). We also tested whether

incorporation of histone variant H3.3 was required for the effects of hunger on feeding and

lifespan by using pan-neuronally expressed RNAi to knock-down the protein chaperone HIRA,

which is required for the exchange of H3 for H3.3(*44*). We observed that this also abolished

increased feeding on a low-BCAA diet (Fig. 3F), but surprisingly, it had no effect on lifespan

(Fig. 3G). Histone H3/H3.3 swapping is therefore required for modulating feeding in response to

hunger but is dispensable for hunger's effects on lifespan.

Metabolic intermediates link BCAAs to feeding and lifespan

How might BCAAs from the diet promote modifications to the neuronal epigenome? The

BCAAs are unusual amino acids because, in mammalian systems, they bypass metabolism in the

liver and are instead metabolized in target tissues by the enzymes branched-chain

aminotransferase (BCAT) and branched-chain alpha-ketoacid dehydrogenase (BCKDH)(*40, 45,*

46). We found that *BCAT* mRNA abundance was reduced in the heads of flies fed low-BCAA

diets (Fig. 4A). Knocking-down *BCAT*, a homolog of mammalian *BCAT2*, with the pan-neuronal

Nsyb-GAL4 driver reduced histone H3 abundance to statistically indistinguishable levels on

low- compared to high-BCAA diets (Fig. 4B). We consulted the Fly Cell Atlas and found that

BCAT is expressed in approximately 80 neurons that co-express the promoter used to label R50

hunger neurons, *SerT* (*47*) (Fig. S5). Strikingly, BCAT knock-down only in the R50 hunger

neurons also resulted in statistically indistinguishable levels of histone H3 abundance and

reduced H3K9ac on low- compared to high-BCAA diets (Fig. 4C). It also strongly reduced diet-

dependent differences in lifespan by significantly extending the lifespan of flies on high-BCAA

diet (Fig. 4D). This is unlikely to be a result of deficiencies in neuronal activity upon knockdown

of *BCAT* because optogenetic inhibition of the R50 hunger neurons had statistically non-

significant effects on the lifespan of flies fed high-BCAA diets (Fig. S6). These findings indicate

that R50 hunger neurons use BCAA metabolites to modulate aging via a mechanism that does

not require neuronal depolarization. We were surprised, however, to observe that *BCAT*

knockdown in hunger neurons did not abrogate feeding differences and may have in fact

exacerbated them (Fig. 4E). These results suggest complexity in the effector pathways that

increase feeding and modulate aging in response to hunger and reinforce the notion that they are,

at least in part, anatomically distinct.

Considerations on the divergence of mechanisms linking hunger with feeding and aging

A subset of the R50 hunger neurons produce the neuromodulator serotonin, and we observed that

expression of the genes *Trh*, which encodes tryptophan hydroxylase that functions as the first

and rate-limiting step in serotonin synthesis, and *Tph/Henna*, which encodes tryptophan

phenylalanine hydroxylase, were significantly increased in the heads of flies that were BCAA-

restricted (Fig. 5A). We also observed increased antibody staining of serotonin itself in the cell

bodies of the serotonergic PLP cluster, a subset of the R50 hunger neurons chosen for

quantification due to their easily accessible and recognizable anatomical location in the fly brain

(Fig. 5B-C, quantified in 5D). Given that inhibition of BCAT in the R50 neurons seemed to

exacerbate the feeding differences on our BCAA diets and that serotonin is known to both

promote and suppress feeding depending on which serotonergic neurons are manipulated(*34*), we

asked whether *BCAT* knockdown in the serotonergic network more broadly may produce

opposite effects on feeding. We used the Trh-GAL4 driver, which is putatively expressed in all

serotonergic neurons of the CNS, to target knock-down of *BCAT* and therefore BCAA

metabolism in these cells. This manipulation prevented increased feeding on low-BCAA diets,

suggesting that BCAA metabolites are used within distinct populations of serotonergic neurons

to regulate feeding and aging (Fig. 5E).

Intrigued by the possibility that hunger effects on feeding and aging may be regulated by

partially distinct pathways, we questioned if some of this complexity might also result from the

time scale on which they occur. While we consider lifespan to be an outcome of chronic dietary

effects, measurements of feeding quantify more acute responses that may or may not be stable

over longer time periods. We observed that the increased feeding on low-BCAA food that was

present after five days on the diet had receded after two weeks (Fig. 5F), resulting in reduced

amino acid intake overall (Fig. 5G). This result was mirrored by temporal changes in the

epigenome: patterns of changes in brain histone acetylation between diets after two weeks were

reversed or eliminated when compared with similar measures after only five days (Fig. 5H).

Thus, flies on low-BCAA diets presumably adapt to their food environment in a way that

decreases the amount of protein they require, which may have beneficial consequences for aging

(see model, Fig. S7).

Discussion

Here we present behavioral and molecular evidence in favor of the idea that the neural state of

hunger modulates aging. We show that this motivational state is molecularly encoded by the

neuronal epigenome, and that increased feeding and extended lifespan are consequences that

seem to be orchestrated by unique downstream responses to hunger. We found that the

mechanisms that increase feeding and extend lifespan in response to low-BCAAs share the use

of a BCAA-metabolism to histone acetylation pathway but diverge downstream of this

programming. Our findings that dietary BCAAs modulated use of the histone variant H3.3; that

this was required for increasing feeding, but dispensable for increasing lifespan; and that unique

populations of serotonergic neurons require BCAA metabolism to modulate either feeding or

aging, suggest that different neurons use different strategies to generate responses to hunger.

Such complexity is consistent with emerging reports of interactions between metabolism and the

epigenome that are driven in part by specialized enzymes that reside in distinct cellular

compartments and in some cases distinct nuclear sub-compartments(*48-50*). In *C. elegans,* H3.3

is important for engaging transcriptional networks that underlie neuronal plasticity in response to

environmental manipulations(*51, 52*). Perhaps neuronal plasticity is one strategy used by circuits

that promote feeding to generate behavioral responses to hunger. Notably, protein appetite was

previously shown to require plastic changes in a dopaminergic circuit, although a role for histone

variant swapping in this process has not been determined(*33*). Thus, the cell-type specificity of

the usage of histone variant H3.3 and the genomic loci to which it is targeted in response to

dietary BCAAs remain unknown.

The observation that BCAA reduction acutely increased appetite but that this eventually subsided

indicates that hunger may act as an allostatic stressor that, like other model homeostatic systems,

acutely increases feeding while chronic hunger may promote physiological changes that lower a

set-point around which appetite is regulated(*53, 54*). Perhaps it is this adaptative response,

mediated by modifications to the epigenome in discrete neural circuits, that slows aging? This

idea is consistent with several dietary manipulations that are known to extend lifespan: low

protein diets (and methionine restriction in particular) generate protein-specific appetites and

intermittent fasting paradigms putatively increase the frequency with which an animal

experiences hunger without affecting total caloric intake(*5, 55-59*).

Others have reported that the effects of BCAAs on feeding and lifespan are non-specific in

Drosophila and that such effects can be observed by restriction of other amino acids, which we

did not observe(*19*). These differences are likely due to experimental design; Juricic et al. used

holidic diets that were comparatively low in their overall amino acid content, which resulted in

reduced activation of TOR signaling. We chose diets that were amino acid replete and had no

effect on TOR activity, which revealed BCAA-specific effects, suggesting that interactions

between total amino acid abundance and reductions of individual amino acids warrant further

investigation.

Finally, our data support a role for chromatin reorganization as a link among hunger, feeding,

and aging, but its influence on transcriptional states in individual neurons remains an exciting

area to be explored. In the brain, transcriptional changes occur in response to dietary

manipulations, and yet, analysis of single "longevity genes", of which the list is continually

growing, is typically insufficient to generalize about how diet modulates aging. This prompts us

to speculate that the effects could require an overhaul of transcriptional programming more

broadly(*60-62*). Chromatin accessibility patterns, gene expression profiles, and intracellular

signaling pathways converge to determine transcriptional states which, although they are most

often studied in the context of neuronal-*fate* determination, may also tune neuronal *states* in

response to dietary or other environmental manipulations(*63, 64*). Future work that explores how

specific nutrients, and their interactions, interact with each of these processes to shape the

transcriptional environment of distinct neurons presents an important next step towards uniting

seemingly disparate effects of diet on physiology and will likely provide new insight into how

motivational states influence aging.

Materials and Methods

Fly stocks and husbandry

Fly stocks were maintained on a standard cornmeal-based larval growth medium and in a

controlled environment (21C, 60% humidity) with a 12:12hr light:dark cycle. We controlled the

developmental larval density by manually aliquoting 32 ul of collected eggs into individual

bottles containing 25-50mL of food at 25C. Following eclosion, mixed sex flies were kept on

SY10% medium (10% w/v sucrose and 10% w/v yeast) for 2-4 days until they were sorted by

sex and transferred onto holidic food or kept on SY10% food, as needed, for experiments.

Experimental flies were flipped to fresh food e/o day until completion of the experiment. Unless

otherwise noted, we used mated female flies that were between 7-12 days old for all

experiments. The following stocks were used for experiments: *Canton-S and w^{1118}* were obtained

from the Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center. *UAS-CsChrimson* (BDSC #55135 and #55136),

UAS-H3.3A-GFP (BDSC #68241), *UAS-HIRA RNAi* (BDSC #35346), *GMR50H05-GAL4*

(BDSC #38764), *Trh-GAL4* (BDSC #38388), *UAS-BCAT RNAi* (VDRC KK110229) were

purchased from BDSC or the Vienna *Drosophila* Resource Center, as indicated. *PoxN* mutants

were provided by J. Alcedo (Wayne State University). *Nsyb-GAL4* was provided by L. Buttitta

(University of Michigan, MI) and Nsyb-GeneSwitch-GAL4 was obtained from A. Sehgal

(Perelman School of Medicine, PA). *UAS-GTACR* was provided by M. Dus (University of

Michigan, MI). All transgenic lines used in this study, with the exception of *UAS-H3.3A-GFP,*

UAS-HIRA RNAi, Nsyb-GAL4, and Nsyb-GeneSwitch-GAL4 were back-crossed 10 generations to

w-;Canton-S prior to experiments.

Holidic food

Holidic media were prepared according to previous protocols with some modifications[20]. For all

experiments, we used the Yaa ratio of amino acids, but increased each amino acid, sucrose, and

agar (see Extended Data Table 1). Briefly, agar, sucrose, branched-chain amino acids and amino

acids with low solubility (L-Leucine, L-Isolecuine, L-Valine, L-Tyrosine) were added to

solutions containing metal ions and cholesterol. The mixtures were autoclaved for 20 minutes.

Filter-sterilized acetate buffer and solutions of the remaining amino acids, vitamins, nucelotides,

inositol, choline, and preservatives were added while mixtures were stirred on a hot plate not to

exceed 65C. After mixing, 2mL of food was dispensed into vials and stored at 4C until use, but

no longer than 3 weeks.

Drug administration

Sodium Butyrate was purchased from abcam (ab120948) and Trichostatin A was purchased from

Cayman (Item No. 89730). Prior to the lifespan experiment, TSA was dissolved in 100% ethanol

to a concentration of 1 mM, aliquoted, and frozen at -20°C. Food was prepared fresh e/o day as

follows: a TSA aliquot was thawed and sodium butyrate was added as powder to the TSA stock.

Appropriate holidic diet food was melted and allowed to cool slightly, then the inhibitor cocktail

was added (final concentration of TSA was 10 μm and sodium butyrate was 10 mm), gently

mixed, and dispensed to new vials. For Con-Ex or western blot experiments using only sodium

butyrate, holidic food was melted and sodium butyrate was added as powder to a final

concentration of 100 mm. Roughly 250 ul of sodium butyrate-containing food was layered on

top of appropriate holidic food vials and cooled before use.

For the pulse-chase GeneSwitch experiment, RU486 (mifepristone) was dissolved in 80% (v/v)

ethanol at 10 mM concentration and marked by blue dye (5% [w/v] FD&C Blue No. 1; Spectrum

Chemical) and stored at -20°C. Holidic food + RU486 was prepared by melting appropriate

holidic foods and adding RU486 to a final concentration of 200 μM.

Lifespan measurements

Lifespans were measured using established protocols[65]. We established 6-10 replicate vials for

each treatment, with 20 flies per vial. Flies were transferred to fresh media every 2-3 days, at

which time dead flies were removed and recorded using the DLife system [65]. Flies were kept in

constant temperature (25C) and humidity (60%) conditions with a 12:12hr light:dark cycle.

Normally, we conducted at least two experimental replicates of each lifespan experiment.

Optogenetic Assays

Flies expressing UAS-CsChrimson in desired neuronal populations were reared as described

above. Upon eclosion, females were sorted to SY10% medium containing 800 μm all-*trans*-

retinal (from a stock solution of 100mM ATR in 100% ethanol) and kept in the dark for 2 days.

Flies were then flipped to appropriate holidic diet food containing 400 μm ATR (and flipped to

fresh ATR-containing food e/o day for the duration of the experiment) and moved to a custom

rig containing 627nm (red) LEDs or 530nm (green) LEDs (Luxeon) or kept in the dark in the

same incubator (Fig. S3). The custom rig is fully enclosed to prevent leakage of light and houses

48 individual vials surrounded by mirrors. Custom hardware and firmware were designed to

allow the experimenter to control the LED intensity and a range of other light stimulus

parameters. Lifespan and Con-Ex experiments used a stimulus frequency of 40 Hz and a pulse

width of 800 ms. Flies were exposed to this protocol every day for 12 hours per day during the

light period, followed by 12 hours of darkness.

Consumption-excretion feeding assays

Con-Ex experiments were carried out as previously described[27,28]. Experimental female flies

were sorted to appropriate BCAA diets (10 flies per vial, 8-10 replicates for each treatment)

when they were >4 days old. Food was changed every 2-3 days until the appropriate

experimental time-point was reached (5 days for standard experiments, unless otherwise

indicated). After the dietary pre-treatment period, blue test food was prepared in removable caps

by adding 1% (w/v) FD&C Blue No. 1 to the appropriate diets. Flies were moved to fresh vials

with the removable blue-food caps on the top of the vials and were allowed to feed and excrete

for 24 hours. Caps and flies were removed after the 24-hour test period and flies were counted.

Excreted dye was collected by vortexing each vial with 3mL of water. Concentration of the dye

was determined by absorbance at 630nm and compared to a standard curve of known

concentrations. For short-term Con-Ex experiments lasting <3 hours, both excretions and flies

were collected and measured. To measure internal blue concentration, groups of flies were

homogenized in 1mL of phosphate-buffered saline containing 0.1% Trixon X-100 (IBI

Scientific) for 30s at 30Hz using a QIAGEN TissueLyser. Concentration of internal extracts

were determined by absorbance at 630nm and both internal and excreted concentrations were

summed to determine total consumption.

Fly Liquid-Food Interaction Counter (FLIC) assays

Flies were tested on the Fly Liquid-Food Interaction Counter (FLIC) system as previously

described[31](Sable Systems International). Female flies were starved for 20-24 hours in vials

containing a kimwipe with 2mL of Milli-Q water. For single-choice FLIC experiments, flies

were flipped to low-BCAA, high-BCAA, or fresh starvation vials at 10AM the morning of

testing and allowed to feed for 3 hours. Re-feeding food was spiked with blue dye to ensure

feeding, and flies with visually blue bellies were selected for the experiment. FLIC *Drosophila*

Feeding Monitors (DFMs, Sable Systems International, model DFMV3) were loaded with a food

solution containing 5% sucrose and 5% yeast extract (w/v) in 4 mg/l $MgCl_2$. After re-feeding,

flies were briefly anesthetized on ice and aspirated into the DFM chambers. We began recording

immediately after loading flies (generally, loading all DFMs requires <10 minutes) and measured

FLIC interactions for 3 hours. For FLIC experiments that contained a choice environment in the

common garden, re-feeding food was prepared fresh for each experiment by melting SY10%

medium with or without 1% L-Isoleucine (w/v). FLIC DFMs were loaded with food solutions

containing either 2% sucrose OR [2% yeast extract + 1% sucrose] in 4 mg/l $MgCl_2$ and FLIC

interactions were recorded for 24 hours. Each DFM was loaded with flies from at least two

treatment groups to reduce technical bias from individual DFM signals. FLIC data were analyzed

using custom R code, which is available at https://github.com/PletcherLab/FLIC_R_Code.

Default thresholds were used for analysis except for the following: minimum feeding threshold =

10, tasting threshold = (0,10). Animals that did not participate (i.e. returned zero values) were

excluded from analysis. FLIC data are generally non-normal, and thus are expressed as a box-

cox transformation to the 0.25 power of the total interactions, which yielded normal

distributions.

Western Blots

Experimental flies were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen after appropriate diet or light exposures.

Heads and bodies were separated using a metal sieve on dry ice, and 10 heads were pooled for

each biological replicate. Heads were first pulverized to a fine powder using a plastic pestle on

dry ice. Protein extraction was carried out on ice using RIPA buffer (Sigma Aldrich)

supplemented with protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma), phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Sigma),

sodium orthovanadate (NEB, 1mM), sodium fluoride (NEB, 1 mM), and sodium butyrate

(100uM). 150uL of ice cold buffer was added to heads followed by immediate homogenization

with a motorized pestle for 10 seconds on ice. Lysates were incubated on ice for 10 minutes

followed by 20 seconds of sonication and centrifugation at 16000xg at 4C for 10 minutes.

Protein lysates were added 1:1 to 2X protein sample buffer (1mM Tris-HCL pH 6.8, 10% SDS,

1% Bromophenol blue, and 1M DTT) and denatured at 95°C for 10 minutes. Protein was

separated by SDS-PAGE on a 4-12% gel (Biorad) at 200V for 30 minutes, followed by

electrophoretic transfer to PVDF or nitrocellulose membrane at 70V for 1 hour. Blots were

incubated in 5% milk in .1% TBS-T at room temperature for one hour, followed by overnight

incubation with primary antibodies overnight at 4°C. Membranes were washed with .1% TBS-T

and incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (abcam) at room temperature for 1-4

hours. Membranes were washed again with .1% TBS-T and then incubated briefly in ECL

substrate (SuperSignal West Femto, ThermoFisher) before imaging. Band detection and

quantification was performed using Image Lab software (Bio-Rad). Rabbit anti-histone H3

(abcam, ab1791, 1:20000), Rat anti-histone H3K9ac (active motif, #61663, 1:500), Rabbit anti-

LaminB1(CST, #13435S, 1:2000) Rabbit anti-Beta-Tubulin (abcam, ab179513, 1:500), rabbit

anti-pS6K(T398) (#9209S 082813, 1:1000), mouse anti-H4K9me3 (Millipore #05-1242,

1:1000), rabbit anti-H3K27ac (D. Lombard, 1:2000), rabbit anti-ubiquitin (Santa Cruz 1:5000),

Rabbit anti-histone H4 (abcam, ab10158 1:5000), mouse anti-GAPDH (proteintech #60004

1:1000), rabbit anti-dS6K (T. Neufeld 1:3500), rabbit anti-pAKT (CST 1:1000), rabbit anti-AKT

(CST 1:1000), and rabbit anti-GFP (abcam, 1:1000) were used for primary antibody staining.

RNA extraction and RT-qPCR

Experimental flies were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen after appropriate diet exposures. Heads

and bodies were separated using a metal sieve on dry ice, and 10 heads were pooled for each

biological replicate. Total RNA was extracted using TRIzol Reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

#15596026) following the manufacturer's instructions. Flies were collected into nuclease-free

lysing tubes with matrix D beads (MPbio, #6913-500-129984) and 300 ul of TRIzol, then

homogenized for two 15-s pulses at 6.5 M/s. Lysates were incubated at room temperature for 10

min, and then 100 ul of chloroform (Sigma-Aldrich) was added for phase separation. 175 ul of

RNA containing supernatant was transferred to nuclease-free tubes and mixed with an equal

volume of isopropanol (Sigma-Aldrich) to precipitate the RNA, and centrifuged at 12000xg for

15 min at 4°C. The pellet was washed twice with 70% cold EtOH (Sigma-Aldrich), air dried, and

redissolved in 25 ul of nuclease-free water. RNA concentration and quality was determined using

a NanoDrop One (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Complementary DNA (cDNA) was prepared from

1 ug of total RNA using High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) and the resulting cDNA was diluted 1:50 before use. No-RT reactions were prepared

and run as controls to ensure no genomic DNA contamination. Quantitative polymerase chain

reactions (qPCRs) contained 1X PowerUp SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems),

500 nM appropriate primers, and 5 ul 1:50 cDNA for a total reaction volume of 10 ul. C_T values

were calculated using an absolute threshold of $\Delta Rn=0.1$ and relative expression was determined

using the comparative C_T approach [66]. Primers used in this study are:

*RpL-32-RA*_Forward (cgg atc gat atg cta agc tgt) and

*RpL-32-RA*_Reverse (gcc ctt gtt cga tcc gta)

*H3.3A*_Forward (GAAGAAGCCACATCGCTACC) and

*H3.3A*_Reverse (CACAGATTGGTGTCCTCGAA)

*H3*_Forward (ACCGAGCTTCTAATCCGCAAG) and

*H3*_Reverse (ACCAACCAGGTAGGCTTCGC)

*CG1673*_Forward (TGCGCTTTTACTTCCAAGCAGCA) and

*CG1673*_Reverse(GGGCCTAGGTTCTACTGACGGGT)

*Trh*_Forward(GTGCTCCAGTTTTGACTTCGG) and

*Trh*_Reverse(TTTACGGTACACGGGGTCCT)

*Tph*_Forward(CCTCTGTACTATGTGGCCGA) and

*Tph*_Reverse(TCGAGTCGAGAACCTCAACA)

Brain Immunohistochemistry

Adult brain immunostaining was performed as previously described[67]. Adult brains were

dissected and fixed in PBS, pH 7.4 containing 3.7% formaldehyde for approximately 1 hr. Fixed

brains were washed quickly 3 times followed by 3 – 20 min washes in 0.1% PBS-T, or 0.5%

PBS-T for histone immunostaining, with gentle shaking at room temperature. Brains were

blocked using 5% normal goat serum (NGS) in 0.1% PBS-T for at least 30 min at room

temperature with gentle rocking, then incubated in primary antibody diluted in 5% NGS for two

nights at 4°C. After primary antibody incubation, brains were washed 3 times in PBS-T and

incubated in secondary antibody diluted 1:500 in 5% NGS for one night at 4°C. Brains were

washed 3 times in PBS-T and mounted between a glass microscope slide and a #1.5 cover glass

separated by a custom bridge in VECTASHIELD Antifade Mounting Medium (Vector

Laboratories). Samples were imaged on a Nikon A1 Confocal Microscope using either a 20X air

or 40X oil lens objective. All treatments were mounted under the same cover slip and at least two

slides per experiment were imaged. Image processing was performed using ImageJ (NIH). ROIs

were drawn by hand around appropriate cell bodies and values are background-subtracted.

Images are representative maximum intensity projections compiled from 1-2 μm thick sections

of the indicated number of z-stacks and are contrast matched. Rabbit anti-serotonin (Sigma,

S5545 1:6000), mouse anti-nc82 (DSHB 1:20) and rabbit anti-histone H3 (abcam, ab1791

1:20000) were used for primary antibody staining, and Alexa Fluor 488 and 594 were used for

secondary antibody staining (Life Technologies 1:1000).

Egg laying assay

Following eclosion, male and female flies were allowed to mate on SY10% food for 48 hours.

Groups of 5 males and 5 females were sorted to appropriate holidic diets. Food was changed

every day for the first 2 days and e/o day thereafter and eggs were counted from the old media.

Egg counts were obtained from 8-10 vials per treatment.

Triacylglyceride and Total Protein Quantification

Experimental flies were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen after exposure to appropriate diets for one

week. Two experimental flies per biological replicate were homogenized in 200 µl PBS/0.05%

Triton-X with protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma). The homogenate was added into Infinity

Triglyceride Reagent (Thermo Electron Corp.) according to manufacturer's instructions. In

parallel, the homogenate was added to BCA working reagent (Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit)

according to manufacturer's instructions. TAG concentrations were determined by the

absorbance at 520nm and estimated by a known triglyceride standard. Total protein

concentrations were determined by absorbance at 562 nm and estimated by a known protein

albumin standard.

Activity Assay

Activity recordings and data processing were performed using the *Drosophila* Activity Monitor

System (TriKinetics). After diet exposure for 5 days, adult flies were individually tested in 5 mm

x 65 mm polycarbonate tubes with the appropriate diet food at one end of the testing tube. The

first day of data was removed from the final analysis in order to allow for acclimation to

experimental housing conditions. Total activity counts were calculated for each fly by summing

all activity counts recorded during the light and dark cycle, respectively. Experiments were

performed at 25°C and 60% humidity under a 12-hour light:12-hour dark cycle.

Statistics

Pairwise comparisons between treatment survivorship curves were carried out using the statistical package R with DLife, as previously described[65]. P-values were obtained using the log-rank test. For all other comparisons involving only one level, we used Student's t-test to detect significant differences between two treatments or one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test after verifying normality and equality of variances. T-tests were two-tailed during initial characterization experiments, or one-tailed in future experiments where the predicted direction of change was known. For comparisons involving more than one level, we used two-way ANOVA to detect significant interactions between the levels and followed up with Tukey's post-hoc when significance was detected ($p<0.05$). In cases where data were non-normally distributed (FLIC data), we performed a box-cox transformation to the 0.25 power before computing P-values. In cases where experimental replicates were pooled, a two-way ANOVA with blocking for experiment was performed to ensure non-significant experimental effects. P-values for experiments with less than 3 biological replicates per treatment are not reported. For all dot and bar plots, error bars represent the SEM. All statistical tests and graphing were performed using R. Specific details of statistical analyses are presented in the figure legends.

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Conceptualization: KJW, SDP

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Investigation: KJW, RAH, EH, SDP

Visualization: KJW, EH

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Supervision: KJW, SDP

Writing – original draft: KJW, SDP

Writing – review & editing: KJW, SDP

Competing interests: The senior author (S.D.P) is a share holder in the company, Flidea, which

has developed technology related to the FLIC feeding system. **Data and materials availability:**

The datasets generated during the current study are available from the corresponding author on

reasonable request.nFLIC data were analyzed using custom R code, which is available at

https://github.com/PletcherLab/FLIC_R_Code.

Figure 1

Figure 1. Hunger extends lifespan independent of appetite in dietary and genetic models of hungry flies. (A) Schematic (left) and relative composition (right) of experimental diets. Details in Supplementary Tables S1-2 and Methods. Yaa=baseline diet as in (*20*), RD=reference diet, containing 51.36g/L carbohydrate, 34.9g/L non-essential amino acids, 22.56g/L non-BCAA essential amino acids and, 12.39g/L BCAAs. **(B)** Lifespan of *Canton-S* flies on diets of indicated BCAA concentration (log-rank test, p-values derived by comparison to RD, N=159-172). **(C)** Lifespan of *Canton-S* flies on low- or high-BCAA diets (log-rank test, N=173-175). **(D-F)** 24-hr Con-Ex measurement of w^{1118} or *PoxN* flies on indicated diets. Volume (D), kcal (E), and total or BCAA-only amino acid intake (F) (two-tailed Student's t-test). **(G)** Schematic of FLIC experimental designs used in H-I (top panel) and K (bottom panel). **(H)** FLIC interactions in common garden (one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc. Experimental replicates are pooled, N=52-55). **(I)** Con-Ex measurement of volumetric intake during re-feeding period (two-tailed Student's t-test). **(J)** Con-Ex measurement on diets with individual BCAA reductions (one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc). **(K)** FLIC interactions in food choice environment (2% sucrose or [2% yeast + 1% sucrose]) after re-feeding SY food +/- 1% isoleucine (two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc. Experimental replicates are pooled, N=59-60). **(L)** Lifespan of *Canton-S* flies on RD, low-BCAA, or low-isoleucine diets (log-rank test, p-values derived by comparison to low-BCAA diet, N=171-177). **(M-N)** Con-Ex and lifespan measurements of flies carrying R50H05-GAL>UAS-CsChrimson or R50H05-GAL4/w-;CS controls exposed to red light for 12 hours per day or kept in constant darkness. (M) 24-hr Con-Ex measurement (two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-poc). (N) Lifespan measurement (log-rank test, N=101-123). All FLIC data are expressed as box-cox transformation to the 0.25 power (termed TFLicks) to achieve normality. *p<0.05, **p<0.01,***p<0.001.

Figure 2

Figure 2. Dietary BCAAs reshape the neuronal epigenome by altering histone acetylation and histone H3 abundance. (A) Representative western blot for H3K9ac and total histone H3 in *Canton-S* fly heads after exposure to indicated diets for 5-7 days, quantified in right panel (one-way ANOVA. 10 heads per biological replicate, experimental replicates are pooled, N=11). **(B)** RT-qPCR measurement of relative mRNA abundance in *Canton-S* heads after 5-7 days on low- or high-BCAA, values are normalized to low-BCAA treatment (one-way ANOVA. 10 heads per biological replicate, experimental replicates are pooled, N=10-11). **(C)** Western blot for histone PTMs in *Canton-S* fly heads after exposure to indicated diets +/- 100 mM sodium butyrate for 5-7 days, bands are quantified in bottom panel and normalized to low-BCAA treatment (10 heads per biological replicate, N=2). **(D)** Western blot for histone H3 and H4 in *Canton-S* heads on low-BCAA, high-BCAA, or [low-BCAA + high isoleucine] diets, quantified in bottom panel and normalized to low-BCAA treatment (one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc. 10 heads per biological replicate, N=2-3). **(E)** Western blot for histone H3 in heads of flies carrying R50H05-GAL>UAS-CsChrimson or UAS-CsChrimson/w-;CS controls exposed to red light for 12 hours, quantified in right panel and normalized to UAS-CsChrimson/w-;CS control (one-way ANOVA. 10 heads per biological replicate, N=4-5).

Figure 3

Figure 3. Utilization of the histone variant H3.3A in the brain is modulated by BCAAs to

stimulate feeding but is not required to extend lifespan. (A) RT-qPCR quantification of

relative mRNA abundance of *H3.3A* in *Canton-S* heads after 5-7 days on low- vs. high-BCAA

diet, values are normalized to low-BCAA treatment (one-way ANOVA. 10 heads per biological

replicate, experimental replicates are pooled). **(B-D)** Pulse-chase of fluorescently labelled H3.3A

in brains (B) or heads (C-D) of flies carrying *Nsyb-GeneSwitch-GAL4>H3.3A-GFP* on low- or

high-BCAA diets. (B) Representative confocal images of brains immediately following the 2-day

pulse of H3.3A-GFP induced by BCAA food + RU486 (top panel) and 1 week after the pulse

(bottom panel). Scale bar 100μm. (C) Western blot of H3.3A-GFP (predicted molecular weight =

42 kDa) and histone H3 immediately following the 2-day pulse of H3.3A-GFP induced by

BCAA food + RU486, quantified in bottom panel (one-way ANOVA, 10 heads per biological

replicate). (D) Western blot of H3.3A-GFP (one-way ANOVA), histone H3 (one-tailed Student's

t-test), and ubiquitin (one-way ANOVA, p=0.571) 1 week after the H3.3A-GFP pulse, quantified

in bottom panel (10 heads per biological replicate). **(E)** Con-Ex measurement of 24-hr food

intake after 5 days on BCAA diets +/- 100 mM sodium butyrate (two-way ANOVA with

Tukey's post-hoc). **(F)** Con-Ex measurement of 24-hr food intake after 5-7 days on BCAA diets

from flies carrying *Nsyb-GAL4>UAS-HIRA RNAi* or controls (*Nsyb-GAL4/w-;CS* and *UAS-*

*HIRA RNAi/w-;*CS) (two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc, experiment replicates are

pooled). **(G)** Lifespans of flies carrying *Nsyb-GAL4>UAS-HIRA RNAi* or controls (*Nsyb-*

GAL4/w-;CS and *UAS-HIRA RNAi/w-;CS*) (log-rank test, N=184-202). **(H)** Lifespan of flies on

BCAA diets +/- 100 mm sodium butyrate (log-rank test, N=186-196).

Figure 4

Figure 4. Hunger neurons use BCAA metabolism to regulate histone abundance and

modulate lifespan independent of feeding. (A) RT-qPCR quantification of relative mRNA

abundance of *BCAT* (*CG1673)* in *Canton-S* heads after 5-7 days on BCAA diets, values are

normalized to low-BCAA treatment (one-way ANOVA, 10 heads per biological replicate). **(B)**

Western blot of histone H3 in heads of flies carrying *Nsyb-GAL>UAS-BCAT RNAi* or control

(*Nsyb-GAL4/w-;CS)*, quantified in right panel and normalized to low-BCAA treatment (two-way

ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc, N=2). **(C)** Western blot of histone H3 and H3K9ac in heads of

flies carrying *R50H05-GAL4>UAS-BCAT RNAi* or control (*R50H05-GAL4/w-;CS)*, quantified in

right panel (two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc, experimental replicates pooled, N=5). **(D)**

Lifespans of flies carrying *R50H05-GAL4>UAS-BCAT RNAi* or controls (*R50H05-GAL4/w-;CS*

or *UAS-BCAT RNAi/w-;CS)* on low- or high-BCAA diets (log-rank test, N=91-100,

***p<0.001,). **(E)** Con-Ex measurement of 24-hr food intake after 5 days on BCAA diets in flies

carrying *R50H05-GAL4>UAS-BCAT RNAi* or controls (*R50H05-GAL4/w-;CS* or *UAS-BCAT*

RNAi/w-;CS) (two-way ANOVA).

Figure 5

Figure 5. Spatially and temporally distinct processes link hunger to feeding and aging. (A) RT-qPCR quantification of relative mRNA abundance of *Trh* and *Tph* in *Canton-S* heads after 5-7 days on BCAA diets, values are normalized to low-BCAA treatment (one-way ANOVA. 10 heads per biological replicate). **(B-D)** Immunostaining for serotonin in PLP neuron cell-bodies in flies carrying *R50H05-GAL4>UAS-GTACR.eYFP* after 5-7 days on BCAA diets. (B) Maximum intensity projection of ten 1.5 μm stacks highlighting the PLP neurons (white box) in the posterior fly brain. Scale bar 100μm. (C) Representative confocal images of immunostaining for serotonin in PLP neurons of flies carrying *R50H05-GAL4>UAS-GTACR.eYFP (*green=nc82, magenta=serotonin, blue=DAPI, scale bar=10μm). Images are maximum intensity projections of ten 1.5 μm stacks through the PLP neurons (D) Quantification of (C) as described in Methods (one-way ANOVA, experimental replicates are pooled). **(E)** Con-Ex measurement of 24-hr food intake after 5 days on BCAA diets in flies carrying *Trh-GAL4>UAS-BCAT RNAi* or control (*Trh-GAL4/w-;CS)* (two-way ANOVA). **(F-G)** Con-Ex measurement of 24-hr food intake after 5 days or 2 weeks on BCAA diets in *Canton-S* flies; volume (F) and total amino acid intake (G) (two-tailed Student's t-test). (H) Western blot of histone H3 and H3K9ac in heads of *Canton-S* flies after 5 days vs. 2 weeks on BCAA diets, quantified in right panel (one-tailed Student's t-tests, 10 heads per biological replicate, experimental replicates are pooled, N=3-5).

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Supplementary Materials for

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Encoding of hunger by the neuronal epigenome slows aging in *Drosophila*
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Figure S1

Figure S1. Isoleucine is necessary and sufficient to increase feeding and modulate aging.

(A) Lifespan of male *Canton-S* flies on low- or high-BCAA diets, related to Figure 1B (log-rank test, N= 217-231**). (B)** Total volume consumed by female *Canton-S* flies on RD, low-, or high-BCAA diets for 1 week (one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc). **(C)** Total amino acid and BCAA consumed during 3-hour refeeding low- or high-BCAA food, related to Figure 1I (one-way ANOVA). **(D-E)** Total amino acid **(D)** and kcal **(E)** consumed by *Canton-S* flies on indicated diets, related to Figure 1J. **(F)** Lifespans of *Canton-S* flies on indicated diets (log-rank test, p-values derived by comparison to low-BCAA, N=170-177, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001).

Figure S2. Physiological measures typically associated with aging are unchanged by dietary

BCAAs. (A) Eggs laid by *Canton-S* flies on indicated diets after 1, 4, or 8 days on diet (two-way

ANOVA). **(B)** Total triacylglycerides in *Canton-S* flies after 1 week on BCAA diets (one-way

ANOVA, 2 flies per biological replicate). **(C)** Total protein in *Canton-S* flies after 1 week on

BCAA diets (one-way ANOVA, 2 flies per biological replicate). **(D)** Total activity counts of

Canton-S flies after 5 days on BCAA diets during dark (left) and light (right) period (one-way

ANOVAs). **(E)** Western blot and quantification of S6K and AKT activation in heads of *Canton-*

S flies after 1 week on BCAA diets (N=2).

A

programmable LEDs

smart controller

PLETCHER LAB

vial holder

vials with flies

mirrors

Figure S3

53   **Figure S3. Custom rig for optogenetic experiments. (A)** Representative rig used for

54   optogenetic lifespan and Con-Ex experiments. Details can be found in methods.

Anterior

2.84 um projections

Posterior

Figure S4

57   **Figure S4. Histone H3 abundance is modulated by dietary BCAAs in discrete anatomical**

58   **locations. (A)** Immunostaining for histone H3 in *Canton-S* flies after 5-7 days on BCAA diets.

59   Representative images are montages of maximum intensity projections through the central brain,

60   each consisting of two 1.42μm stacks (scale bar = 100μm).

Figure S5

Figure S5. tSNE plots of single-cell gene expression in fly heads. (A-D) tSNE plots from the

Fly Cell Atlas (www.flycellatlas.org) generated using the publicly available 10x droplet based

single-cell sequencing dataset from fly heads and visualized using SCope[47]. **(A)** Cells that

express *BCAT* (red) and *SerT* (green) with a cluster of co-expressing cells shown in yellow

(approximately 80 cells were detected to express both *BCAT* and *SerT*). **(B)** Cells that express

BCAT (red), *SerT* (green), *Trh* (blue), and co-expressing cells shown in white and highlighted

with arrowhead. **(C)** Cells that express *BCAT* (red) or *Trh* (blue) and co-expressing cells shown

in pink. **(D)** Cells that express *SerT* (green) or *Trh* (dark blue) and co-expressing cells shown in

light blue.

A

Figure S6

88   **Figure S6. Lifespan of flies with optogenetic inhibition of R50 hunger neurons.** Flies

89   carrying *R50H05-GAL4>UAS-GTACR* or *UAS-GTACR/w-;CS* as control were aged on low- or

90   high-BCAA diets and exposed to 530nm light constantly for the duration of the experiment (log-

91   rank test, N=93-100).

Figure S7

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Figure S7. Proposed model. The motivational state of hunger modulates feeding and aging via distinct pathways.
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Table S1. Composition of diets used for experiments

Diet/ Component	Yaa (Piper, et al.)	RD	Low BCAA	High BCAA	High BCAA –Isoleucine	High BCAA – Leucine	High BCAA – Valine	Low BCAA + Isoleucine	Low Histidine/ Arginine
Total volume (l)	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Agar (g)	7	11.25	11.25	11.25	11.25	11.25	11.25	11.25	11.25
Isoleucine (g)	1.16	3.48	1.16	5.8	1.16	5.8	5.8	5.8	3.48
Leucine (g)	1.64	4.92	1.64	8.2	8.2	1.64	8.2	1.64	4.92
Valine (g)	1.33	3.99	1.33	6.65	6.65	6.65	1.33	1.33	3.99
Tyrosine (g)	0.84	2.52	2.52	2.52	2.52	2.52	2.52	2.52	2.52
Sucrose (g)	17.12	51.36	51.36	51.36	51.36	51.36	51.36	51.36	51.36
Cholesterol solution (ml)	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
CaCl2 (1000X, ml)	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
MgSO4 (1000X, ml)	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
CuSO4 (1000X, ml)	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
FeSO4 (1000X, ml)	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
ZnSO4 (1000X, ml)	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Acetate buffer (10X, ml)	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nucleic acids/lipids (125X, ml)	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
EAA solution (ml)	60.51	181.5	181.5	181.5	181.5	181.5	181.5	181.5	181.5
NEAA solution (ml)	60.51	181.5	181.5	181.5	181.5	181.5	181.5	181.5	181.5
Glutamate solution (ml)	18.21	54.5	54.5	54.5	54.5	54.5	54.5	54.5	54.5
Cysteine solution (ml)	5.28	15.5	15.5	15.5	15.5	15.5	15.5	15.5	15.5
Vitamin solution (47.6X, ml)	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21
Folic acid (1000X, ml)	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Propionic acid (ml)	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Tegosept (ml)	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15

Table S2. Concentration of amino acid stock solutions used in diets

	BCAA diets (g/200ml)	Low Histidine/Arginine (g/200ml)
Essential Amino Acids		
F (L-phenylalanine)	3.03	3.03
H (L-histidine)	2.24	0.746
K (L-lysine)	5.74	5.74
M (L-methionine)	1.12	1.12
R (L-arginine)	4.7	1.566
T (L-threonine)	4.28	4.28
W (L-tryptophan)	1.45	1.45
Non-essential Amino Acids		
A (L-alanine)	5.25	5.25
D (L-aspartate)	2.78	2.78
G (glycine)	3.58	3.58
N (L-asparagine)	2.78	2.78
P (L-proline)	1.86	1.86
Q (L-glutamine)	6.02	6.02
S (L-serine)	2.51	2.51
C (L-cysteine)	2.5	2.5
E (L-glutamate, Na salt)	5	5
Added as solid	(g/l)	(g/l)
I (L-isoleucine)	See Extended Data Table 1	See Extended Data Table 1
L (L-leucine)	See Extended Data Table 1	See Extended Data Table 1
V (L-Valine)	See Extended Data Table 1	See Extended Data Table 1
Y (L-tyrosine)	2.52	2.52