Homeodomain-interacting protein kinase maintains neuronal homeostasis during normal *Caenorhabditis elegans* aging and systemically regulates longevity from serotonergic and GABAergic neurons

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Abstract

Aging and the age-associated decline of the proteome is determined in part through neuronal control of evolutionarily conserved transcriptional effectors, which safeguard homeostasis under fluctuating metabolic and stress conditions by regulating an expansive proteostatic network. We have discovered the *Caenorhabditis elegans* homeodomain-interacting protein kinase (HPK-1) acts as a key transcriptional effector to preserve neuronal integrity, function, and proteostasis during aging. Loss of *hpk-1* results in drastic dysregulation in expression of neuronal genes, including genes associated with neuronal aging. During normal aging *hpk-1* expression increases throughout the nervous system more broadly than any other kinase. Within the aging nervous system, *hpk-1* is co-expressed with key longevity transcription factors, including *daf-16* (FOXO)*, hlh-30* (TFEB)*, skn-1* (Nrf2)*, and *hif-1,* which suggests *hpk-1* expression mitigates natural age-associated physiological decline. Consistently, pan-neuronal overexpression of *hpk-1* extends longevity, preserves proteostasis both within and outside of the nervous system, and improves stress resistance. Neuronal HPK-1 improves proteostasis through kinase activity. HPK-1 functions cell non-autonomously within serotonergic and GABAergic neurons to improve proteostasis in distal tissues by specifically regulating distinct components of the proteostatic network. Increased serotonergic HPK-1 enhances the heat shock response and survival to acute stress. In contrast, GABAergic HPK-1 induces basal autophagy and extends longevity. Our work establishes *hpk-1* as a key neuronal transcriptional regulator critical for preservation of neuronal function during aging. Further, these data provide novel insight as to how the nervous system partitions acute and chronic adaptive response pathways to delay aging by maintaining organismal homeostasis.
Keywords: Neuronal cell-nonautonomous control, gene expression, proteostasis, longevity, aging, stress response, autophagy, homeodomain interacting protein kinase

Introduction

The gradual decline of function within the proteome (proteostasis) is a characteristic of aging, which precipitates the onset and progression of a growing number of age-associated diseases (Balch et al., 2008; Gidalevitz et al., 2006; Gidalevitz et al., 2010; Kikis et al., 2010; Morimoto, 2011, 2019; Sala et al., 2017; Taylor and Dillin, 2011): Alzheimer's disease (AD), Parkinson's disease (PD), Huntington's disease, and Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS) are neurodegenerative diseases driven by genetic alterations that typically predispose a mutant protein isoform to aggregate and have toxic gain of function properties on the neuronal proteome. Outside of the nervous system age-associated proteostatic decline also leads to disease, for example: the onset of diabetes mellitus (Jaisson and Gillery, 2014); thus the decline in proteostasis during normal aging is not limited to the nervous system. A growing number of studies suggest that aging is not simply the result of the stochastic accumulation of damage, but is determined through genetics and coordinated mechanisms across tissues and cell types (Labbadia and Morimoto, 2015; Lazaro-Pena et al., 2022; Lopez-Otin et al., 2013). Proteostatic decline corresponds with the age-associated breakdown of a large proteostasis network (PN), which integrates stress-responsive control of protein folding, degradation, and translation in response to myriad cell intrinsic and non-autonomous signals. And yet, while major components of the proteostatic network have been identified, it is still poorly understood how multi-cellular organisms maintain systemic proteostasis within and across tissues to delay aging.

The relatively simple metazoan animal *Caenorhabditis elegans* (*C. elegans*) is a premier model system to learn how proteostasis is coordinated across cell- and tissue-

types in response to myriad signals. Discoveries of cell non-autonomous signaling first

made in *C. elegans* have evolutionarily conserved components, and revealed that the

nervous system acts as a key cell non-autonomous regulator of organismal proteostasis

and longevity (reviewed in (Miller et al., 2020)). For example, a pair of thermosensory

neurons systemically regulate the heat shock response (HSR) in a serotonin-dependent

manner (Prahlad et al., 2008; Tatum et al., 2015). In contrast, a second regulatory

component from the GABAergic and cholinergic systems normally limits muscle cell

proteostasis (Garcia et al., 2007; Silva et al., 2013).

In *C. elegans,* the transcriptional co-factor homeodomain-interacting protein

kinase (HPK-1), preserves proteostasis and organismal longevity (Berber et al., 2016;

Das et al., 2017; Samuelson et al., 2007). We first identified *hpk-1* in a genome-wide RNAi

for genes that are essential for decreased insulin-like signaling (ILS) to extend longevity

(Samuelson et al., 2007). Additionally, we have previously shown that HPK-1 extends

longevity through distinct genetic pathways defined by HSF-1, and the target of rapamycin

complex 1 (TORC1) (Das et al., 2017). Activation by either metabolic or genotoxic

stressors has been observed from yeast to mammals, suggesting that this family of

transcriptional cofactors arose early in evolution to couple metabolic and stress signaling

(Hofmann et al., 2003; Kim et al., 2006; Lee et al., 2008; Shojima et al., 2012).

In general, mammalian HIPK family members regulate the activity of transcription

factors (TFs), chromatin modifiers, signaling molecules and scaffolding proteins in

response to cellular stress (Calzado et al., 2007; de la Vega et al., 2012; Song and Lee,

2003a, b). For example, nutrient stress, such as glucose deprivation can activate Hipk1

and Hipk2 (Ecsedy et al., 2003; Garufi et al., 2013; Song and Lee, 2003b). Conversely,

hyperglycemia triggers HIPK2 degradation via the proteasome (Baldari et al., 2017).

We sought to identify the tissue- and cell-types in which the HPK-1 transcriptional

circuits acts to extend longevity, increase resistance to acute proteotoxic stress, and

which PN components are regulated across tissues. We have discovered that HPK-1

functions as a key regulator of the proteostatic response, originating in the nervous

system of *C. elegans*. We find that *hpk-1* is the most broadly upregulated kinase during

normal *C. elegans* aging, predominantly within the nervous system, and acts to preserves

neuronal function and proteostasis within the nervous system. Further, HPK-1 kinase

activity within the nervous system initiates cell non-autonomous signals that trigger

protective peripheral responses to maintain organismal homeostasis. Responses can

qualitatively differ depending on the neuronal type from which they arise: serotonergic

HPK-1 activity increases thermotolerance and protects the proteome from acute stress

by enhancing the HSR, without increasing lifespan or altering basal autophagy. In

contrast, GABAergic HPK-1 activity induces autophagy to extend longevity, without

altering thermotolerance. We posit that serotonergic HPK-1 signaling responds to acute

proteotoxic stress, whereas GABAergic HPK-1 responds to chronic metabolic changes

mediated through target of rapamycin complex 1 (TORC1) (Das et al., 2017). Yet, each

of these distinct adaptive responses is sufficient to activate the PN and improve

proteostasis outside of the nervous system. Our findings reveal HPK-1 as a key neuronal

regulator in coordinating adaptive metabolic and stress response pathways across

tissues to delay aging throughout the animal.

Results

HPK-1 acts from neuronal tissue to promote longevity and health span.

To precisely determine where HPK-1 functions in the regulation of longevity, we

overexpressed *hpk-1* within neuronal (*rab-3p*), muscle (*myo-3p*), intestine (*ges-1p*) or

hypodermal (*dpy-7p*) tissues to identify where activity was sufficient to increase lifespan.

Increased neuronal expression of *hpk-1* was sufficient to increase lifespan by 17%, which

is comparable to constitutive overexpression of *hpk-1* throughout the soma (*Figure 1A*)

(Das et al., 2017). In contrast, transgenic animals overexpressing *hpk-1* in either

muscular, intestinal, or hypodermal cells had no significant change in lifespan (*Figure 1B-*

D). These results were somewhat unexpected, as we previously found that loss of *hpk-1*

Figure 1. Neuronal HPK-1 extends longevity and promotes health span.
Lifespan curves of animals overexpressing *hpk-1* (red line) in the nervous system **(A)**, muscle **(B)**, intestine **(C)** and hypodermis **(D)** compared with control non-transgenic siblings (blue line). (n≥175, log-rank test, *P* < 0.0001 for A, n≥78 for B, n≥82 for C and n≥105 for D). Lifespan graphs are representative of two biological replicates. **(E)** Frequency of body bends of *wild type*, *rab-3p::hpk-1* and *hpk-1(pk1393); rab-3p::hpk-1* day 2 adult animals (n≥48). **(F)** Survival of day 1 adult animals subjected to heat shock treatment. Graph represents one of the two individual trials (n≥66). See *Supplementary Files 1, 2 and 3* for details and additional trials.

solely within either neuronal, intestinal, or hypodermal cells is sufficient to shorten lifespan

(Das et al., 2017). *hpk-1* is broadly expressed during embryogenesis and larval

development, but is only expressed within the nervous system in adult animals (Berber

et al., 2013; Berber et al., 2016; Das et al., 2017; Raich et al., 2003). Furthermore, *hpk-1*

and orthologs are known to have roles in development, differentiation and cell fate-

specification (Berber et al., 2013; Blaquiere and Verheyen, 2017; Calzado et al., 2007;

Hattangadi et al., 2010; Rinaldo et al., 2007; Rinaldo et al., 2008; Steinmetz et al., 2018).

Therefore, we conclude that HPK-1 functions primarily within the nervous system to

regulate aging.

We performed a locomotion assay to test whether neuronal *hpk-1* could rescue an

age-associated decline in movement, a readout of *C. elegans* healthspan (Berber et al.,

2016; Das et al., 2017; Herndon et al., 2002; Huang et al., 2004; Samuelson et al., 2007).

As expected, *hpk-1(pk1393)* null mutants displayed a reduced frequency of body bends

at day 2 of adulthood (*Figure 1E*). Increased expression of *hpk-1* in neurons was sufficient

to partially mitigate the locomotion defect of *hpk-1* null mutants. Thus, HPK-1 activity

within the nervous system is sufficient to improve healthspan. Further, HPK-1 also retains

essential functions for adult healthspan outside of the nervous system; as *hpk-1* is no

longer expressed with translational reporters outside of the nervous system in adult

animals (Das et al., 2017).

We next asked whether neuronal *hpk-1* expression would be sufficient to rescue

the ability of animals to survive acute stress. We and others previously found that in the

absence of *hpk-1*, animals are vulnerable to thermal stress (Berber et al., 2016; Das et

al., 2017). Restoring *hpk-1* expression solely within the nervous system was sufficient to

fully rescue the reduced thermotolerance of *hpk-1* null mutant animals (Fig. 1F).

Collectively, these findings are consistent with the notion that *hpk-1* primarily acts within

the nervous system to regulate aging and stress resistance.

hpk-1 expression increases broadly during normal aging.

We sought to determine whether *hpk-1* mRNA expression changes during normal

aging. Adult *C. elegans* are composed of 959 somatic cells, of which 302 are neuronal;

all somatic cells are all post-mitotic and arise from an invariant lineage. A recent

comprehensive single-cell analysis of age-associated changes in gene expression

throughout the *C. elegans* identified 211 unique "cell-clusters" within the aging soma:

groups of cells within a lineage or tissue defined by gene expression profiles (Roux et al.,

2022). The "*C. elegans* Aging Atlas" analysis identified 124 neuronal cell clusters and

obtained age-associated changes in gene expression for 122, with high concordance of

overall gene expression between neuron clusters to a previous project, which mapped

the complete gene expression profiles of the *C. elegans* nervous system in late larval

animals (The CeNGEN project (Taylor et al., 2021)). The *C. elegans* Aging Atlas provides

the means to investigate age-associated changes in gene expression at an

unprecedented level of resolution.

Using the *C. elegans* Aging Atlas dataset, in which differentially expressed genes

were identified within each cell cluster in old versus young animals, we find that *hpk-1*

expression increases during aging within 48 cell clusters: broadly within the nervous

system and in eleven non-neuronal cell clusters (*Figure 2-figure supplement 1*, see

Materials and methods). With aging, neuronal expression of *hpk-1* increased within

interneurons, motor neurons, sensory neurons, and all neuronal sub-types (cholinergic,

dopaminergic, GABAergic, serotonergic, and glutamatergic). We found no cell-clusters in

which *hpk-1* is downregulated during normal aging. It is well known that many longevity-

associated TFs increase lifespan when overexpressed and shorten lifespan when lost

(reviewed in (Denzel et al., 2019)), which infers these TFs might be upregulated, or

become chronically activated, during normal aging. A major finding of the *C. elegans*

Aging Atlas study was that many longevity-associated TFs are upregulated during normal

aging in more than 200 cell-type clusters (Roux et al., 2022). Increased expression of

longevity-associated TFs is thought to reflect an age-associated adaptive response to

dysregulation of homeostatic mechanisms and accumulating damage (Roux et al., 2022).

We posit *hpk-1* neuronal expression increases during normal aging in wild-type animals

to mitigate accumulating damage and cellular dysfunction.

During normal aging, *hpk-1* is neuronally co-expressed with longevity-associated

TFs.

We next assessed whether the age-associated increase in expression of *hpk-1*

spatially correlated with expression of *any* TFs, and then segregated co-expression into

neuronal and non-neuronal subgroups. Seventy-one TFs were differentially co-expressed

with *hpk-1* during aging within three or more neuron clusters, thirty within non-neuronal

clusters, with an overlap of twenty-one TFs between neurons and non-neurons (*Figure*

2A-figure supplement 2 and *Supplementary File 4*). Overall, twenty-six of these TFs have

previously been implicated in longevity. There are ten TFs upregulated with aging that

are broadly co-expressed with *hpk-1* in the nervous system (in 9 or more neuronal

clusters), six of which have previously been linked to longevity: *daf-16* (FOXO, overlaps

in 19/37 neuronal clusters)*, hlh-30* (TFEB, 18/37)*, dpy-22* (mediator complex subunit 12L,

Figure 2. During normal aging *hpk-1* is the most broadly upregulated kinase and is co-expressed with key longevity-associated transcription factors within the nervous system.

(A) Venn diagram depicting transcription factors (TFs) with significant age-associated differential expression with *hpk-1* within three or more of the 36 neuronal and/or 11 non-neuronal cell clusters (yellow and blue, respectively), along with TFs that have previously been implicated in *C. elegans* longevity (red). **(B, C)** Heat map of neuronal cell clusters in which *hpk-1* expression increases during normal aging along with most broadly co-expressed TFs (≥ 9 cell-clusters). Positive (red) and negative (blue) fold change with aging of a given TF are shown in **(B)** and **(C)**, respectively, grouped by average across the indicated clusters. Neuronal types, subtypes, cell-cluster or individual neuronal pair, as well as whether a TF has previously been implicated in aging is indicated. Primary data for this analysis was generated in the *C. elegans* Aging Atlas (Roux et al., 2022) and significant differences in expression with aging were determined by filtering differential expression results from a comparison of old vs young animals, based on adjusted p-values <0.05 and a log$_2$ foldchange magnitude of at least 0.5 (between days 8,11,15 and days 1,3,5). **(D)** *hpk-1* is broadly co-expressed with the aging-implicated TFs **(B, C)** in late larval stage animals. Vertical bars show the number of neurons expressing TFs or *hpk-1* in the intersection indicated by the filled dots. The number of neurons each individual gene is found expressed is given by the horizontal bars, "set size". Primary data for this analysis was generated in the CenGEN project, expression was determined based on their "medium" stringency threshold of average TPM per neuron type ≥ 0.1 (Taylor et al., 2021). **(E, F)** Functions and pathways associated with two or more of the TFs listed in **(B)** and **(C)**, respectively. **(G)** *hpk-1* is differentially expressed with age in more cell clusters than any other kinase, and mostly in neurons. Heatmap shows log$_2$ foldchange in old vs young animals for kinases with differential expression in ≥10 cell clusters. Primary data for this analysis was generated in the *C. elegans* Aging Atlas (Roux et al., 2022) and filtered for significant age-associated expression changes as described in **(B, C)**. See *Supplementary Files 4 and 5* for dataset.

al., 1993; Lapierre et al., 2013; Lin et al., 1997; Ogg et al., 1997; Roux et al., 2022;

Suriyalaksh et al., 2022; Tacutu et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2009). Conversely, there was

an inverse correlation with 14 TFs (9 or more clusters, (*Figure 2C*); only two of which have

previously been implicated in longevity, *xbp-1* (X-box binding protein 1) a key regulator of

the endoplasmic reticulum unfolded protein response (ER-UPR), and *mdl-1* (MAX

dimerization protein) (Johnson et al., 2014; Nakamura et al., 2016; Riesen et al., 2014).

Of note, *mdl-1* is a Myc-family member with opposing roles in longevity from *mxl-2* (Mlx)

(Johnson et al., 2014), and *mxl-2* is required for *hpk-1* to extend longevity. (Das et al.,

2017)*.*

In non-neuronal clusters we found a much smaller subset of TFs with

corresponding positive age-associated fold-changes (see Appendix 1). Similar to *hpk-1,*

all of the aforementioned longevity-associated TFs are broadly expressed throughout the

nervous system by late larval development, with the exception of the nematode specific

gene *gei-3*, for which overlap is restricted to a subset of neurons (*Figure 2D*)*.* TFs with

age-associated increases in co-expression with *hpk-1* are associated with positive

regulation of adult lifespan, heat and oxidative stress response, bacterial innate immunity,

chromatin remodeling, development, mitophagy, axon regeneration, neddylation, and

ubiquitination (*Figure 2E*). TFs inversely correlated with *hpk-1* broadly across neuronal

cell-clusters have been implicated in the ER unfolded protein response and the innate

immune response (*Figure 2F*). These findings suggest that during normal aging, *hpk-1* is

induced within the nervous system in tandem with key longevity transcription factors to

mitigate the physiological effects of aging.

The first discovery of a putative link between *hpk-1* and longevity was from our

genome-wide RNAi screen that identified 103 genes that were essential for decreased

insulin-like signaling (ILS) to extend longevity (Samuelson et al., 2007): at 25°C loss of

hpk-1 reduced *daf-2(e1370)* (insulin/IGF1 receptor) and wild-type lifespans to a similar

extent, but did not substantially further reduce *daf-2(e1370);daf-16(mfDf47)* lifespan

(reported in Sup Table S2 of (Samuelson et al., 2007) and this study (*Figure Supplement*

3A-C)). However, animals maintained at 25°C experience chronic, mild heat stress (Das

et al., 2017), which complicates genetic analysis of lifespan as animals lacking either *daf-*

16 or *hpk-1* also have impaired survival to thermal stress. To more rigorously decipher

the genetic interactions between *hpk-1, daf-16* and reduced ILS we repeated these RNAi

experiments under basal temperatures (20°C). We found *hpk-1(RNAi)* had only a mild

detrimental effect on *daf-2(e1370)* lifespan; in wild-type and *daf-2(e1370);daf-*

16(mgDf47) similar results were found between 20 and 25°C (*Figure Supplement 3D-F*,

and *Supplementary File 1*), which suggests HPK-1 and DAF-16 have overlapping

longevity functions, and decreased ILS extends longevity independently from HPK-1

functions outside of the nervous system.

Based on the extensive neuronal overlap in co-expression between *daf-16* and

hpk-1, and previous findings suggesting ILS functions within the nervous system to

regulate longevity (Apfeld and Kenyon, 1998; Wolkow et al., 2000), we revisited whether

hpk-1 and ILS genetically intersect. The nervous system of *C. elegans* is largely refractory

to RNAi, as these cells do not express *sid-1*, which is necessary for dsRNA transport in

neurons (Kamath et al., 2003; Timmons et al., 2001; Winston et al., 2002). Enhanced

neuronal RNAi is obtained by ectopic neuronal expression of *sid-1* (Calixto et al., 2010),

which we next explored in greater detail. We assessed lifespan in transgenic animals

overexpressing *hpk-1* in a neuronal enhanced RNAi background (i.e., *unc-119p::sid-*

1::YFP; eri-1(mg366); *hpk-1(oe)*) and (*Supplementary File 1*). The combination of

inactivating *daf-2* within the nervous system and overexpression of *hpk-1* failed to further

increase lifespan (p-value = 0.2, *Figure Supplement 3G*). Collectively, these results

suggest neuronal HPK-1 share overlapping mechanisms of longevity control with

decreased ILS and activated DAF-16 to extend longevity*.*

hpk-1 is the most broadly upregulated kinase during normal aging

We were surprised to find that *hpk-1* mRNA expression increased during aging, as

kinase regulation at the level of gene expression seemed atypical. Therefore, using the

C. elegans Aging Atlas dataset we assessed whether any of the 438 *C. elegans* kinases

(Zaru et al., 2017) are differentially expressed during aging: 115 kinases are upregulated

and conversely 120 are downregulated in at least one cell cluster, while 254 kinases do

not change expression (*Figure supplement 4, Supplementary File 5*). *hpk-1* is upregulated

in more cell-clusters than any other kinase, while *hpk-1* is upregulated in 48, the next

most broadly upregulated kinase is *gcy-28* (38 cell-clusters), which encodes the ortholog

of natriuretic peptide receptor 1 and is involved in chemotaxis, olfactory behavior, and

sensory perception (Li and van der Kooy, 2018; Shinkai et al., 2011; Tsunozaki et al.,

2008). During normal aging, only 14 kinases are downregulated in 10 or more cell-

clusters (see Appendix 2). Only 20 kinases are upregulated in ten or more cell-clusters

(*Figure 2G-figure supplement 4*). In addition to *hpk-1* and *gcy-28*, five other kinases that

have previously been linked to longevity are also broadly upregulated during normal

aging: *nipi-3* (a Tribbles pseudokinase that positively regulates SKN-1 (Wu et al., 2021)*,*

aak-1 (AMP-activated kinase catalytic subunit alpha-2) (Lee et al., 2009), *scd-2* (ALK

receptor tyrosine kinase) (Shen et al., 2007), *rsks-1* (ribosomal protein S6 kinase)

(Hansen et al., 2007; Pan et al., 2007), and *smg-1* (SMG1 nonsense mediated mRNA

decay associated PI3K related kinase) (Masse et al., 2008). We previously demonstrated

that HPK-1 is an essential component of TORC1-mediated longevity and autophagy (Das

et al., 2017). Interestingly we find that only two of 11 TOR-associated genes: *rsks-1* and

aak-1, are upregulated during aging in three or more cell-clusters (Blackwell et al., 2019;

Hindupur et al., 2015; Pan et al., 2007). We find *rsks-1* is exclusively upregulated outside

of the nervous system and has poor overlap with *hpk-1* (2/13). *aak-1* is primarily but not

exclusively upregulated outside of the nervous system during aging, with some overlap

with *hpk-1*. In future studies it will be interesting to dissect whether HPK-1 intersects with

these components of TORC1 signaling within and/or outside of the nervous system.

HPK-1 preserves integrity of the *C. elegans* nervous system.

Based on the neuronal HPK-1 capacity to promote longevity, we sought to

determine whether HPK-1 preserves the anatomy and physiology of the nervous system

during aging. To assess age-associated changes in neuroanatomy of ventral and dorsal

cord motor neurons (VD and DD), we used the *unc-25p::GFP* cell-specific reporter (*Figure*

3A) (Cinar et al., 2005; Kraemer et al., 2003). Aged populations of *hpk-1* mutant animals

displayed more than a 3-fold difference in VD axonal breaks and more than a 2-fold

difference in DD axonal breaks compared to wild type animals (*Figure 3A-B, D*). These

age-associated breaks could be rescued by neuronal expression of *hpk-1* (*Figure 3C*).

Importantly, young wild-type and *hpk-1* mutant animals did not show neuronal breaks

(*Figure 3B*). Thus, loss of *hpk-1* does not disrupt axon formation during development,

rather HPK-1 preserves axonal integrity in aging motor neurons.

In *C.*

elegans, locomotion is

controlled by

acetylcholine-releasing

excitatory motor neurons

and GABA (γ-

aminobutyric acid)-

releasing-inhibitory

motor neurons

(Jorgensen and Nonet,

1995; Richmond and

Jorgensen, 1999). Thus,

locomotion is a useful

readout to assess

neurotransmission. To

examine the role of *hpk-*

1 in synaptic

transmission, we

performed a paralysis

assay after

acetylcholinesterase

Figure 3. Neuronal HPK-1 maintains neuronal integrity during aging.
(A) Fluorescent micrographs of control and *hpk-1(pk1393)* 9 day old animals expressing GFP in GABAergic DD and VD motor neurons. Asterisks (*) indicate axonal breaks in the motor neurons. **(B)** Percentage of wild type and *hpk-1* mutant animals with neurodegeneration in VD motor neurons (n≥23). **(C)** Percentage of *hpk-1* rescue animals with neurodegeneration in VD motor neurons (n≥10). **(D)** Percentage of wild type and *hpk-1* mutant animals with neurodegeneration in DD motor neurons (n≥20). Percentage of immobilized animals after exposure to aldicarb (n≥67) **(D)** and to 20mM 5-HT (n≥38) **(E)**. *T* test analysis with **P < 0.01 and ***P < 0.001. See *Supplementary Files 6, 7 and 8* for details and additional trials.

inhibition with aldicarb, where mutations that impair cholinergic signaling cause a

reduction in rate of paralysis (Mahoney et al., 2006; Oh and Kim, 2017). Therefore,

mutants with lower synaptic transmission undergo reduced paralysis (i.e., animals are

resistant), while mutants with higher synaptic transmission exhibit greater sensitivity.

Interestingly, *hpk-1* mutants showed increased aldicarb resistance by L4/YA (*Figure 3E*),

suggesting that loss of *hpk-1* reduces cholinergic synaptic transmission and that HPK-1

normally preserves neuronal function.

C. elegans serotonin (5-HT) signaling in conjunction with dopamine (DA)

modulates locomotion; animals treated with exogenous 5-HT exhibit paralysis over time.

In a paralysis assay with exogenous 5-HT, we observed that late L4/YA *hpk-1* mutant

animals paralyzed sooner: at 2 minutes of 5-HT treatment, 63% of mutants were

immobilized compared to 25% of wild type animals immobilized (*Figure 3F*). Based on

the aforementioned findings, we conclude that HPK-1 prevents an age-associated decline

in axonal and synaptic integrity.

Loss of *hpk-1* results in neuronal dysregulation of neuronal gene expression

We sought to gain deeper insight into how loss of *hpk-1* negatively impacted the

C. elegans nervous system. To identify early transcriptional dysregulation events that

occur due to the absence of *hpk-1*, we conducted bulk RNA-sequencing of day 2 adult

wild-type and *hpk-1(pk1393)* null mutant animals, an age at which axonal breaks have

yet to occur (*Figure 3B, D*), but after neuronal function has begun to decline (*Figure 3E,*

F). Differential expression analysis identified 2201 total genes with significant expression

changes with loss of *hpk-1*, 1853 upregulated and 348 downregulated (adjusted p-value

< 0.05 and $\log_2$ foldchange magnitude ≥ 1) (*Figure 4A* and *Supplementary File 9*).

Figure 4. Loss of *hpk-1* results in broad dysregulation of neuronal gene expression.
(A) Differential expression analysis for RNA-Seq of day 2 adult *hpk-1* null mutant animals (n=3) compared to N2 wild-type animals (n=3) identified 2,201 genes with significantly altered expression with loss of *hpk-1* (adjusted p-value < 0.05 and |log$_2$ foldchange| ≥ 1), 84% of which were upregulated in the mutants. The volcano plot illustrates the criteria applied for selecting genes with significant and substantial expression changes, shown as blue dots: vertical dashed lines are the foldchange threshold and the horizontal dashed line is the p-value threshold. **(B, C)** Enrichment for functions and pathways associated with the 348 downregulated genes **(B)** or the 1853 upregulated genes **(C)** in *hpk-1* animals yields innate immune response as the most significantly over-represented term for downregulated genes, but reveals a large number of significant associations to pathways and processed for the upregulated genes- many of which are associated with neurons and neuronal signaling. Each bar represents a functional term or pathway from the Gene Ontology (GO), KEGG, or Reactome databases, as indicated. Bar colors show the –log$_{10}$ transformed enrichment p-value. The number in each bar is the size of the overlap between the set of differentially expressed genes and the genes in the term or pathway. The x-axis indicates the fraction of the total genes in the term or pathway that were differentially expressed. All results shown have significant enrichment after adjustment for multiple testing. **(D)** Functional enrichment for 283 genes upregulated with *hpk-1* loss that are specific to, or enriched in, *C. elegans* neurons shows broad dysregulation of functions associated with neurons including neurotransmitter transport and release, cell-cell junctions, axons, neuropeptides, and sensory processes, among others. 880 genes uniquely expressed or significantly enriched in neurons were derived from bulk tissue-specific RNA-Seq profiling results in (Kaletsky et al., 2018) and 32% of these are significantly upregulated in *hpk-1* null animals. See *Supplementary Files 9 and 10* for dataset and additional analysis.

Functional enrichment with over-representation analysis was performed for the up- and

down-regulated genes separately (GOSeq, adjusted p-value < 0.01). Among down-

regulated genes, we find 25 genes implicated in the innate immune response, as well as

TGF-beta and WNT signaling (five ubiquitin ligase complex component genes),

glycosphingolipid metabolism, and surfactant metabolism. (*Figure 4B*). By contrast, more

than 50 GO terms and pathways were enriched for the upregulated genes. The most

significantly enriched single term reveals a substantial number of cuticle and collagen

associated genes as dysregulated (*Figure 4C*). Upregulation of some collagens and

ECM-remodeling processes have been associated with longevity in *C. elegans* (Ewald et

al., 2015; Rahimi et al., 2022). Alternatively, aberrant upregulation could lead to stiffening

of the cuticle, a hallmark of aged *C. elegans* and some progeric mutants (Ewald et al.,

2015; Rahimi et al., 2022).

355   A striking number of other functions significantly enriched in the *hpk-1* upregulated

genes from across GO, KEGG, and Reactome are related to neuronal function and

signaling, including: neuropeptide and neurotransmitter pathways, mechanosensation,

chemotaxis, and axon guidance, among others (*Figure 4C*). To explore further, we looked

at the *hpk-1* null upregulated genes in the context of a curated compendium of genes with

functions that are important for the nervous system (Hobert, 2013), as well as genes

identified as uniquely expressed in neurons or significantly enriched in neurons from

tissue-specific bulk RNA-Seq (Kaletsky et al., 2018).

363   Among 1496 genes known, or expected through homology, to function in the

nervous system, 264 are upregulated with loss of *hpk-1*, representing a much larger

overlap than expected by chance (hypergeometric test p-value < 0.0001) (*Supplementary*

File 10). Genes with higher fold-change of expression in *hpk-1* mutants were associated

with ciliated sensory neurons (motor proteins, sensory cilia transport), calcium binding,

and neuropeptides. We find that 55 of these neuron-associated genes are normally

upregulated with age in wild-type animals in at least one cell cluster in the *C. elegans*

Aging Atlas, 87 are downregulated with age, with the remaining having mixed or no

significant age-associated changes. This suggests that while loss of *hpk-1* results in

expression of some genes associated with aging, the bulk of differentially expressed

genes at day 2 of adulthood are consistent with dysregulation of neuronal gene

expression. Refined genetic perturbation within the nervous system coupled with single

cell RNA-sequencing over time would be required to fully reveal the impact of HPK-1

function on age-associated changes in gene expression.

We next investigated how many of these genes are predominantly- or exclusively-

expressed in neurons, based on a set of 880 neuron-enriched and neuron-specific genes

(Kaletsky et al., 2018). We found that 15% of all *hpk-1* upregulated genes are enriched

or specific to neurons in wild-type animals (283 genes, hypergeometric test p-value <

0.0001) whereas only five *hpk-1* down-regulated genes normally exhibit such neuron-

restricted expression. To determine what functions are over-represented among the

upregulated neuronally expressed genes, we ran Gene Ontology enrichment analysis.

Representing these results as a network, and clustering terms which have overlapping

gene associations, we identified some major themes: neurotransmitter and ion transport,

synaptic components and signaling, axon and neuron projection components, feeding

and locomotion behavior, mechanosensation and touch-responsive behavior are all

upregulated in the absence of *hpk-1* (*Figure 4D*). Among all genes upregulated in the

hpk-1 null mutants, the largest group correspond to genes related to neuropeptide

encoding, processing and receptors. Neuropeptides are short sequences of amino acids

important for neuromodulation of animal behavior, broadly expressed in sensory, motor

and interneurons. Of the 120 neuropeptide-encoding genes in the *C. elegans* genome,

40 (33%) are upregulated in the *hpk-1* null mutants. Nine of these are insulin-related (*ins*),

which suggest increased *hpk-1* expression during normal aging or *hpk-1* overexpression

may positively affect longevity through decreased *ins* neuropeptide expression. We

surmise that many of the neuronal genes that are induced in the absence of *hpk-1* might

be compensatory responses to maintain neuronal function. We describe the major types

of neuronal processes with increased expression in *hpk-1* null mutant animals in greater

detail in Appendix 3, and assess whether loss of *hpk-1* disrupts proteostasis within the

nervous system in the next section.

Neuronal HPK-1 regulates proteostasis cell intrinsically and cell non-

autonomously via neurotransmission.

We hypothesized that HPK-1 maintains neuronal function by fortifying the neural

proteome. We measured polyglutamine toxic aggregate formation in neuronal cells (*rgef-*

1p::Q40::YFP) of animals overexpressing *hpk-1* pan-neuronally (*rab-3p*). These animals

showed decreased number of fluorescent foci within the nerve ring (*Figure 5Ai - iii, B*). To

assess whether this was associated with improved neuronal function, we assessed

alterations in locomotion capacity (body bends) after placement in liquid. Increased

neuronal expression of *hpk-1* significantly increased the average number of body bends

(17.7 $\pm$ 1 vs 12.5 $\pm$ 1.2 bends/30sec), suggesting that neuronal expression of *hpk-1*

improves proteostasis in the nervous system and mitigates locomotion defects associated

with the decline in proteostasis (*Figure 5C*).

We next tested whether HPK-1 was necessary to preserve proteostasis within

neurons. We crossed the *rgef-1::Q40::YFP* reporter with neuronal enhanced RNAi

background (*sid-1(pk3321);unc-119p::sid-1*) and assessed whether neuronal inactivation

of *hpk-1* hastened age-associated proteostatic decline. Animals with neuronal *hpk-1*

inactivation had a significant increase in foci number within neurons and a decreased

number of body bends in liquid (19.7 ± 0.8 vs 25.5 ± 1.1 bends/30sec) (*Figure 5Aiv, D,*

E). Thus, HPK-1 functions cell intrinsically to maintain neuronal proteostasis.

We next assessed whether neuronal HPK-1 activates a cell non-autonomous

signal to regulate proteostasis in distal tissues. We used a proteostasis reporter

expressed exclusively in muscle tissue (*unc-54p::Q35::YFP*); animals display an age-

associated accumulation of fluorescent foci, which are proteotoxic aggregates, and

become paralyzed as muscle proteome function collapses (Lazaro-Pena et al., 2021;

Morley et al., 2002). Animals with increased neuronal *hpk-1* expression had significantly

decreased fluorescent foci in muscle tissue (*Figure 5Fi-ii*). For instance, at day 3 of

adulthood, animals overexpressing neuronal HPK-1 had an average of 21 ± 0.9 polyQ

aggregates, while control animals had an average of 26 ± 1.1 polyQ aggregates (*Figure*

5G). In *C. elegans*, the age-related progressive proteotoxic stress of muscle polyQ

expression is pathological and results in paralysis. Of note, increased *hpk-1* expression

in neurons was sufficient to reduce paralysis; at day 13 of adulthood only 61% ± 0.10 of

neuronal *hpk-1* overexpressing animals were paralyzed compared to 81% ± 0.08 of

paralyzed control animals (*Figure 5H*). Thus, increased neuronal HPK-1 activity is

sufficient to improve proteostasis cell non-autonomously.

We confirmed that the kinase activity is essential for HPK-1 to improve

proteostasis. We find the kinase domain of HPK-1 is highly conserved from yeast to

mammals, both at the amino acid level and predicted tertiary structure, based on multiple

sequence alignments, AlphaFold structure prediction, and visualization with PyMol

(*Figure supplement 5*) (DeLano, 2002; Jumper et al., 2021; Varadi et al., 2022). We

mutated two highly conserved residues within the kinase domain, K176A and D272N,

 which are known to be essential for the kinase activity of HPK-1 orthologs (He et al.,

Figure 5. Neuronal HPK-1 prevents the decline in proteostasis through neurotransmitter release.
(**A**) Nomarski (*i*) and fluorescent (*ii-iv*) micrographs of animals expressing polyglutamine fluorescent reporter within the nervous system. (**B** and **C**) Quantification of foci in the nerve ring (B) and body bend frequency (C) (n$\geq$21 for B and n$\geq$36 for C). (**D** and **E**) Quantification of foci in the nerve ring (D) and frequency of body bends (E) in neuronal enhanced RNAi animals (n$\geq$19 for D and n$\geq$39 for E). (**F**) Fluorescent micrographs of animals expressing the polyglutamine fluorescent reporter in muscle. (**G** and **H**) Quantification of foci in muscle (G) and paralysis rate (H). Graphs are representative of 5 individual transgenic lines (n$\geq$18 for G and n$\geq$23 for H). (**I** and **J**) Quantification of foci in muscle (I) and paralysis rate (J) in neuronal enhanced RNAi animals (n$\geq$22 for I and n$\geq$73 for J). (**K**) Neuropeptides and neurotransmitters are essential for neuronal signaling; vesicle release depends on *unc-31* and *unc-13*, respectively. (**L**) Quantification of relative *polyQ* fluorescent foci in muscle cells after *rab-3p::hpk-1* overexpression in control, *unc-31(e169)* and *unc-13(e51)* animals; see *figure supplement 6* for absolute values. *T* test analysis with **P < 0.01 and ***P < 0.001. See *Supplementary Files 11, 2, and 12* for details and additional trials.

2010), and tested whether these kinase-dead mutant versions could improve proteostasis

when neuronally overexpressed. In contrast to wild-type HPK-1 (*Figure 5G, H*), neither

mutant had any effect on either polyglutamine foci accumulation (*Figure supplement 5C,*

D) or paralysis (*Figure supplement 5E, F*) in muscle cells (*unc-54p::Q35::YFP*); thus,

increased *hpk-1* expression improves proteostasis through kinase activity.

We tested whether neuronal HPK-1 is required for maintaining proteostasis in

distal muscle cells. Neuronal inactivation of *hpk-1* (*sid-1(pk3321); unc-119p::sid-1; unc-*

54p::Q35::YFP; hpk-1(RNAi)) was sufficient to hasten the collapse of proteostasis,

significantly increasing the number of polyQ aggregates (45 ± 1 vs 32 ± 1.1 at day 4) and

paralysis rate ($84\% \pm 0.04$ vs $14\% \pm 0.04$ at day 9) (*Figure 5Fiii, I, J*). Thus, HPK-1 function

within the nervous system impacts proteostasis in distal muscle tissue, which implies that

HPK-1 coordinates organismal health through cell non-autonomous mechanisms.

To identify the signaling mechanism through which HPK-1 regulates distal

proteostasis, we tested whether either neuropeptide or neurotransmitter transmission are

essential for cell non-autonomous regulation of proteostasis (using *unc-31* and *unc-13*

mutant animals*,* respectively *Figure 5K*). Neuronal expression of *hpk-1* in *unc-31* mutants

improved proteostasis in the absence of neuropeptide transmission and dense core

vesicles, as increased neuronal *hpk-1* expression still delayed the age-associated

accumulation of aggregates within muscle cells. In contrast, in the absence of

neurotransmitter function, neuronal expression of *hpk-1* in *unc-13* mutants failed to

improve proteostasis in muscle tissue (*Figure 5L- see figure supplement 6*). We conclude

that HPK-1 mediated longevity-promoting cell non-autonomous signaling occurs through

neurotransmission.

Neuronal HPK-1 induces molecular chaperones and autophagy in distal tissues.

We sought to identify the components of the PN that are cell non-autonomously regulated via HPK-1 activity in the nervous system. We tested whether increasing levels of neuronal *hpk-1* alters the expression of molecular chaperones (*hsp-16.2p::GFP*). Increased neuronal expression of *hpk-1* in wild type animals did not alter the basal expression of molecular chaperones (*Figure 6A*). In contrast, after heat shock, increased neuronal *hpk-1* expression resulted in hyper-induction of *hsp-16.2p::GFP* expression, particularly in the pharynx and head muscles, but surprisingly not within intestinal cells (*Figure 6B-E*). We conclude that while *hpk-1* is required for the broad induction of

Figure 6. Neuronal HPK-1 induces the proteostatic network in distal tissues.
(**A**) Fluorescent micrographs of animals expressing *hsp-16.2p::GFP* in basal conditions. (**B** and **C**) Fluorescent micrographs (B) and fluorescent density quantification (C) of control and *rab-3p::hpk-1* day 1 adult animals expressing *hsp-16.2p::GFP* after heat shock (35°C) for 1 hour at (n≥15). (**D** and **E**) Fluorescent micrographs and densitometry quantification of the intestinal fluorescence of *hsp-16.2p::GFP* after heat shock (n≥24). (**F** and **G**) Fluorescent micrographs and quantification of fluorescent puncta in the nerve ring of control and *rab-3p::hpk-1* L4 animals expressing *rgef-1p::GFP::LGG-1/Atg8* (n≥21). (**H** and **I**) Fluorescent micrographs (H) and quantification (I) of puncta in seam cells of control and *rab-3p::hpk-1* animals expressing *lgg-1p::GFP::LGG-1/Atg8* (n≥43). (**J** and **K**) Fluorescent micrographs (J) and quantification (K) of puncta in proximal intestinal cells of control and *rab-3p::hpk-1* animals expressing the *lgg-1p::GFP::LGG-1/Atg8* autophagosome reporter (n≥17). *T*-test analysis with **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001 and *****P* < 0.0001. See *Supplementary Files 13 and 14* for details and additional trials.

molecular chaperones (Das et al., 2017), neuronal HPK-1 primes inducibility of the HSR

within specific tissues, rather than in a systemic manner throughout the organism.

We next tested whether increased neuronal HPK-1 activity is sufficient to induce

autophagy. Using two LGG-1/Atg8 fluorescent reporter strains to visualize

autophagosome levels in neurons (*rgef-1p::GFP::LGG-1),* hypodermal seam cells and

intestine (*lgg-1p::GFP::LGG-1)* (Kumsta et al., 2017), we found that increased neuronal

hpk-1 expression significantly induces autophagy in neurons and hypodermal seam cell

(*Figure 6F-I*), but not in the intestine (*Figure 6J, K*). Sustained autophagy and

transcriptional activation of autophagy genes are important components for somatic

maintenance and organismal longevity (Lapierre et al., 2015). Consistently *hpk-1* is

required for the induction of autophagy gene expression induced by TORC1 inactivation

(Das et al., 2017). Thus, increased HPK-1 activity within the nervous system is sufficient

to induce basal levels of autophagy both cell-intrinsically and non-autonomously, which

likely extends longevity.

GABAergic and Serotonergic HPK-1 differentially regulate longevity and acute

stress signaling.

hpk-1 is broadly expressed within the *C. elegans* adult nervous system (Das et al.,

2017), but the neuronal cell-types responsible for extending longevity are unknown. We

overexpressed *hpk-1* in different subtypes of neurons and assessed changes in muscle

proteostasis (*unc-54p::Q35::YFP).* Increased *hpk-1* expression in glutamatergic or

dopaminergic neurons was not sufficient to decrease the formation of fluorescent foci or

reduce paralysis (*Figure supplement 7*), suggesting that HPK-1 does not act within these

neuronal subtypes to cell non-autonomously regulate proteostasis. In contrast, increased

expression of *hpk-1* in either serotonergic (*tph-1p::hpk-1*) or GABAergic (*unc-47p::hpk-1*)

neurons was sufficient to improve proteostasis in muscle tissue (*Figure 7A-D*).

Accordingly, we found that *hpk-1* is expressed in serotonergic and GABAergic neurons,

based on colocalization between *hpk-1* and neuronal cell-type specific reporters (*Figure*

7E, F -see figure supplement 8), consistent with the notion that HPK-1 initiates pro-

longevity signals from these neurons.

We sought to determine whether signals initiated from serotonergic and

GABAergic neurons induced similar or distinct components of the PN in distal tissues,

and assessed the overall consequence on organismal health. Since pan-neuronal

Figure 7. Expression of HPK-1 in serotonergic and GABAergic prevents the decline in proteostasis in muscle tissue.
(A and **B)** Quantification of foci (A) and paralysis rate (B) of animals expressing *hpk-1* in serotonergic neurons (n≥17 for A and n≥28 for B). **(C** and **D)** Quantification of foci (C) and paralysis rate (D) of animals expressing *hpk-1* in GABAergic neurons (n≥19 for C and n≥27 for D). **(E)** Representative fluorescent micrographs of *hpk-1* expression in serotonergic neurons. **(F)** Representative fluorescent micrographs of *hpk-1* expression in GABAergic neurons. *T* test analysis performed to each time point with **P < 0.05 and **P < 0.01*. See *Supplemental Files 11 and 12* for details and additional trials.

506   expression of *hpk-1* was sufficient to induce autophagy, improve thermotolerance, and

507   increase lifespan, we chose to dissect whether these three phenotypes were regulated

508   within distinct neuronal cell-types. Increased HPK-1 serotonergic signaling was sufficient

Figure 8. Serotonergic and GABAergic HPK-1 signaling activates distinct adaptive responses to regulate stress resistance and longevity.
(A) Survival of serotonergic HPK-1 expressing day 1 adult animals after heat shock (n≥32). **(B)** Lifespan of serotonergic HPK-1 expressing animals (n≥76). **(C** and **D)** Representative fluorescent micrographs (C) and quantification (D) of autophagosomes in hypodermal cells of serotonergic HPK-1 day 1 adult animals (n≥80). **(E)** Survival of GABAergic HPK-1 expressing day 1 adult animals after heat shock (n≥47). **(F)** Lifespan of GABAergic HPK-1 expressing animals (n≥119). **(G** and **H)** Representative fluorescent micrographs (G) and quantification of autophagosomes in hypodermal cells of GABAergic HPK-1 day 1 adult animals (n≥64). **(I)** Quantification of autophagosomes in hypodermal cells of mutant animals of serotonin and GABAergic signaling (*tph-1* and *unc-30*, respectively), expressing pan-neuronal *hpk-1* (day 1 adults, n≥ 67). *T* test analysis with *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$ and ****$P < 0.0001$. See *Supplementary Files 1, 3 and 14* for details and additional trials.

to improve thermotolerance, without altering lifespan or autophagy (*Figure 8A-D*). In

contrast, increased *hpk-1* expression in GABAergic neurons did not alter

thermotolerance, but induced autophagy and slightly but significantly increased lifespan

(*Figure 8E-H*).

To identify the mechanism through which increased neuronal HPK-1 activity

induces autophagy in distal tissues, we examined serotonergic neurons. As expected,

loss of *tph-1,* which encodes the *C. elegans* tryptophan hydroxylase 1 essential for

biosynthesis of serotonin (Sze et al., 2000), failed to block the induction of autophagy by

increased neuronal *hpk-1* expression (*Figure 8I*, *tph-1(mg280);rab-3p::hpk-1*)*. unc-30*

encodes the ortholog of human paired like homeodomain 2 (PITX2) and is essential for

the proper differentiation of type-D inhibitory GABAergic motor neurons (Jin et al., 1994;

McIntire et al., 1993). Consistent with our previous result demonstrating that only

GABAergic expression of *hpk-1* promotes autophagy, loss of *unc-30* was sufficient to

completely abrogate the induction of autophagy in seam cells after increased pan-

neuronal expression of *hpk-1* (*Figure 8I*, *unc-30(ok613);rab-3p::hpk-1*). We conclude that

HPK-1 activity in serotonergic neurons promotes systemic thermotolerance, whereas

HPK-1 in GABAergic neurons promotes autophagy. We surmise that the two neuronal

subtypes are likely to contribute synergistically to the extension of longevity.

We sought to fortify our previous findings that: 1) TORC1 negatively regulates *hpk-*

1 under basal conditions; 2) *hpk-1* is essential for decreased TORC1 signaling to increase

longevity and induce autophagy; and 3) HPK-1-mediated longevity requires *mxl-2*, the

ortholog of mammalian Mlx transcription factor (Das et al., 2017). From these data, we

predicted that TOR-mediated longevity might require *mxl-2* via *hpk-1.* Indeed, we find that

inactivation of either *daf-15* (Raptor) or *let-363* (TOR), increased lifespan and required

mxl-2, as *mxl-2(tm1516)* null mutant animals failed to increase lifespan in the absence of

TORC1 (*Figure Supplement 9*). MXL-2 functions as a heterodimer with MML-1 (Pickett et

al., 2007), which have similar roles in *C. elegans* longevity (Johnson et al., 2014).

Interestingly, one of the human homologs of MML-1, Carbohydrate Response Element

Binding Protein (ChREBP/MondoB/MLXIPL/WBSCR14), maps within a deleted region in

Williams-Beuren Syndrome patients, which among other symptoms causes metabolic

dysfunction, silent diabetes, and premature aging (Pober, 2010). This further supports

our model and is consistent with other studies linking the Myc-family of transcription

factors to longevity, autophagy, and TORC1 signaling (Johnson et al., 2014; Nakamura

et al., 2016; Samuelson et al., 2007). Collectively, we conclude that HPK-1 regulates

serotonergic signals to improve survival in acute thermal stress, likely through HSF-1, and

initiates GABAergic signals to extend longevity through increased autophagy, which is

linked to decreased TORC1 signaling and regulation of the Myc TFs.

Discussion

It has been known that a core group of TFs integrates various types of metabolic

and stress signals; moreover, this group of TFs can extend longevity when

overexpressed, and conversely hasten aging when lost (reviewed in (Denzel et al.,

2019)), but whether the activity or expression of these longevity-associated transcriptional

regulators are activated by signals of increasing damage or dysfunction during normal

aging was unknown. Recently, single-cell RNA sequencing has revealed that these

longevity-associated TFs increase in expression during aging in wild-type animals across

multiple somatic tissues (Roux et al., 2022). This comprehensive empirical dataset

provides foundational support for a key theme in aging research: during aging in wild-type

animals, increasing damage and dysfunction is mitigated by the activation of stress

response programs. Our findings that: 1) *hpk-1* expression is upregulated during normal

aging in more neurons and non-neuronal cells than any other kinase, and 2) that *hpk-1* is

co-expressed in cell-clusters that overlap with longevity-associated TFs, including *daf-16,*

hlh-30, skn-1 and *hif-1*, implies that HPK-1 is a key regulator of an emerging

transcriptional anti-aging circuit. This protective transcriptional program is activated in the

nervous system during normal aging in wild-type animals as a cellular response to

increasing stress in the nervous system. Consistently, the presence of human

neurodegenerative disorders, a severe form of neuronal proteotoxic stress, correlates

with activation of human *hpk-1* expression: for example*,* human HIPK2 is activated in

frontal cortex samples of patients with AD, in motor neurons of ALS patients, and in

mouse models of ALS, (Lee et al., 2016). Thus, our results suggest that overexpression

of *hpk-1* in the *C. elegans* nervous system may extend longevity by preemptively delaying

the accumulation of age-associated damage and dysfunction to the proteome (*Figure 9A*).

However, *hpk-1* homologs in more complex metazoans can also promote cell death, a

key homeostatic component of tissue regeneration, indicating that chronic activation of

HIPKs is not always beneficial (Calzado et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2020;

Zhang et al., 2020). Whether activated HIPKs will fortify proteostasis and extend

longevity, or promote cell death is likely to be dependent on many factors, including the

specific homolog, levels of expression, physiological context, genetic background, and

cell-type.

We find that *hpk-1* prevents age-associated decline of axonal and synaptic

integrity, which together preserve neuronal function during the aging process and thus

also promote longer healthspan. In support of this concept, adult *hipk2 -/-* mice display

normal neurogenesis but manifest delayed-onset severe psychomotor and behavioral

deficiencies, as well as degeneration of dopaminergic neurons, reminiscent of

Parkinson's Disease (Zhang et al., 2007). Loss of *hpk-1* results in dysregulation of

neuronal gene expression by early adulthood; some changes are consistent with neuronal

aging but in other cases we observe an inverse correlation. For example, one third of all

neuropeptides are induced in the absence of *hpk-1*; yet increased neuropeptide signaling

has been associated with extended *C. elegans* longevity and is considered protective in

AD (Chen et al., 2018; Hodge et al., 2022; Petrella et al., 2019). One possibility is in the

absence of *hpk-1*, attenuated inducibility of the proteostatic network accelerates age-

associated cellular dysfunction (*Figure 9A*), and upregulation of neuropeptide signaling

compensates in the nervous system for the loss of proteostatic response. This concept is

consistent with our finding that increasing neuronal HPK-1 activity does not require

neuropeptides to improve proteostasis in distal tissues. An alternative possibility for the

connection between protective effects of HPK-1 and neuropeptides in neurons is that

HPK-1 may reduce insulin signaling by suppressing the processing of *ins* peptides,

thereby decreasing ILS to activate DAF-16 (FOXO) transcriptional quality control

programs. For example, loss of *egl-3*, a neuropeptide processing gene, extends longevity

by inactivating processing of insulins (Hamilton et al., 2005), and *egl-3* is upregulated in

hpk-1 loss of function.

Impairment of the proteostatic network after loss of *hpk-1* results in broad

upregulation of gene expression, which may be provide additional levels of compensatory

mechanisms to mitigate neuronal dysfunction. For example, loss of *hpk-1* induces

expression of intraflagellar transport (IFT) components in sensory cilia. Mutations within

sensory neurons can alter longevity (Alcedo and Kenyon, 2004; Apfeld and Kenyon,

1999), and decreased IFT during *C. elegans* aging impairs sensory perception and

metabolism (Zhang et al., 2021). Deficiencies in primary cilia impairs neurogenesis in AD

transgenic mice, resulting in accumulation of $A\beta_{42}$ and tau protein and disease

progression (Armato et al., 2013; Chakravarthy et al., 2012; Ma et al., 2022; Morelli et al.,

2017). However, our bulk RNA-seq analysis cannot decipher changes in gene expression

at the level of individual neurons after loss of *hpk-1*. *hpk-1* and orthologs are known to

have roles in development, differentiation and cell fate-specification (Berber et al., 2013;

Blaquiere and Verheyen, 2017; Calzado et al., 2007; Hattangadi et al., 2010; Rinaldo et

al., 2007; Rinaldo et al., 2008; Steinmetz et al., 2018), therefore we cannot preclude the

possibility that HPK-1 may function to broadly limit neuronal gene expression during the

course of normal development and differentiation, thereby specifying neuronal

transcriptional programs. Misdifferentiation of the nervous system in the absence of *hpk-*

1 could result in both intracellular transcriptional noise and cell non-autonomous noise

across cell-types and tissues.

We show that HPK-1 expression in serotonergic neurons activates a cell non-

autonomous signal to prime induction of molecular chaperones in muscle cells, whereas

HPK-1 expression in GABAergic neurons signals induces autophagy in hypodermal

tissue (*Figure 9B*). Our findings place HPK-1 within a selective cohort of transcriptional

regulators within the *C. elegans* nervous system that are activated in response to

metabolic, environmental, and intrinsic cues; thereby initiating distinct cell non-

autonomous signals to regulate components of the PN in peripheral tissues (Douglas et

al., 2015; Durieux et al., 2011; Frakes et al., 2020; Imanikia et al., 2019; Prahlad et al.,

2008; Prahlad and Morimoto, 2011; Silva et al., 2013; Tatum et al., 2015; Taylor and

Dillin, 2013). Loss of serotonin production in *tph-1* mutant animals has a minimal impact

on lifespan at basal temperature (Murakami and Murakami, 2007). However,

simultaneous loss of both serotonin and dopamine biosynthesis shortens lifespan

(Murakami and Murakami, 2007). Serotonin biosynthesis is also required for several

conditions that extend longevity: animals treated with an atypical antidepressant serotonin

antagonist (mianserin) (Petrascheck et al., 2007), changes in food perception (Entchev

et al., 2015), and neuronal cell non-autonomous induction of the mitochondrial unfolded

protein response (Berendzen et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018). In contrast, loss of either

of the serotonin receptors *ser-1* or *ser-4* have opposing effects on lifespan, suggesting

antagonistic activity between serotonin receptors (Murakami and Murakami, 2007).

Surprisingly, we find that increased HPK-1 activity in serotonergic neurons does

not increase lifespan, but is sufficient to improve muscle proteostasis and amplify the

expression of molecular chaperones that maintain proteostasis within the cytosol and

nucleus. Interestingly, neuronal HSF-1 regulation of the HSR through thermosensory

circuits is also separable from lifespan (Douglas et al., 2015). Serotonin signaling and the

serotonin receptor *ser-1* are essential for the induction of the HSR (Prahlad et al., 2008;

Tatum et al., 2015). ADF serotoninergic neurons receive upstream stress signals from

the thermosensory circuit, consisting of the amphid sensory neurons (AFD) and the AIY

interneurons, which regulate HSF-1 activity in the germline in a serotonin-dependent

manner (Tatum et al., 2015). However, increased serotonergic HPK-1 activity is not

equivalent to altered of thermosensory signals: *hpk-1* improves proteostasis within body

wall muscles but not intestinal cells through neurotransmitters and independent from

dense core vesicles. In contrast, loss of the guanylyl cyclase (*gcy-8*) in AFD

thermosensory neurons or the LIM-homeobox transcription factor (*ttx-3*) in AIY

interneurons improves intestinal proteostasis through dense core vesicle neurosecretion

(i.e., *unc-31*). *hpk-1* is expressed in AFD, but only at very low levels in AIY neurons (data

not shown and (Taylor et al., 2021)), and *hpk-1* is essential for the induction of the HSR

within intestinal cells (Das et al., 2017). Whether *hpk-1* activity within thermosensory

neurons functions within the canonical thermosensory-serotonin circuit to regulate the

intestinal HSR or proteostasis is not mutually exclusive from our findings and will be

interesting to pursue in future studies. Our results suggest serotonergic HPK-1 is an

important regulator of the HSR, potentially functioning in parallel to the thermosensory-

serotonin circuit to restore proteostasis in response to acute thermal stress.

We posit that increased serotonergic HPK-1 activity further activates HSF-1 in

response to heat (*Figure 9B*). This would be consistent with known hyperphosphorylation

of HSF-1 and amplification of the HSR in response to increasingly severe heat stress

(reviewed in (Lazaro-Pena et al., 2022)). Interestingly, HPK-1 limits SUMOylation of HSF-

1, SUMO limits the heat shock response in both *C. elegans* and mammals, and severe

heat shock results in HSF1 deSUMOylation (Das et al., 2017; Hietakangas et al., 2003;

Hietakangas et al., 2006). To our surprise, while increased neuronal *hsf-1* expression

increases longevity (Douglas et al., 2015; Morley and Morimoto, 2004), we could find no

study that has identified specific neuronal cell-types in which increased HSF-1 activity is

sufficient to extend longevity or enhance the HSR. Whether or not HPK-1 regulates HSF-

1 within the nervous system and/or in peripheral muscle cells through cell non-

autonomous signals will be interesting to determine in future studies. HPK-1 co-localizes

with HSF-1 in neurons, *hpk-1* is essential for induction of the HSR, and *hsf-1* and *hpk-1*

are mutually interdependent to extend longevity (Das et al., 2017); albeit the latter finding

was obtained via RNAi in animals without enhanced neuronal RNAi. Thus, while HPK-1

and HSF-1 may have overlapping neuronal functions, it is probable that *hsf-1* is required

outside of the nervous system for HPK-1 to extend longevity and the health of the

proteome (*Figure 9B*).

Figure 9. Differential regulation of the proteostatic network through HPK-1 activity in serotonergic and GABAergic neurons.
(A) During normal aging *hpk-1* expression increases broadly throughout the nervous system in response to accumulating damage and dysfunction. Overexpression of *hpk-1* within the nervous system fortifies proteostasis by priming and preemptively activating mechanisms that delay the progression of aging. In the absence of *hpk-1* the proteostatic network is compromised, resulting in neuronal dysfunction and increased expression compensatory mechanisms to maintain homeostasis (see text for details). **(B)** HPK-1 activity in serotonergic and GABAergic neurons initiates distinct adaptive responses, either of which improve proteostasis in a cell non-autonomous manner. Serotonergic HPK-1 protects the proteome from acute heat stress, while GABAergic HPK-1 fortifies the proteome by regulating autophagy activity in response to metabolic stress, such as changes in TORC1 activity. Gray indicates predicted interactions based on our prior genetic analysis (Das et al., 2017). MML-1 and MXL-2 heterodimerize and encode the orthologs of the Myc-family of transcription factors Mondo A/ChREBP and Mlx, respectively. *pha-4* is orthologous to the FoxA transcription factor.

Increased HPK-1 activity in GABAergic neurons induces autophagy in peripheral

cells, improves proteostasis and longevity. Whether HPK-1 functions in GABAergic

neurons through alteration of GABA or another neurotransmitter is unknown, but proper

differentiation of GABAergic neurons is essential for neuronal HPK-1 activation of

autophagy in distal tissue. We posit HPK-1 cell non-autonomous signaling occurs via

antagonism of GABA signaling. Loss of GABA increases *C. elegans* lifespan (Chun et al.,

2015; Yuan et al., 2019). However, not all neurotransmitters regulate lifespan, as only

mutants for the GABA biosynthetic enzyme, *unc-25*, increase lifespan. This GABAergic-

mediated control in lifespan seems to be mediated by the *gbb-1* metabotropic $GABA_B$

receptor (Chun et al., 2015). Interestingly, GABA signaling inhibits autophagy and causes

oxidative stress in mice, which is mitigated via Tor1 inhibition (Lakhani et al., 2014). In

fact, we previously found that neuronal expression of HPK-1 is inhibited by TORC1 and

hpk-1 is required for TORC1 inactivation to extend longevity and the induction of

autophagy gene expression (Das et al., 2017). Both TORC1 inactivation and *hpk-1*

overexpression requires the Myc-family member *mxl-2* to extend longevity (Das et al.,

2017; Johnson et al., 2014; Nakamura et al., 2016) (*Figure 9B*). Consistently, TORC1

also acts within neurons to regulate aging (Zhang et al., 2019); our results suggest that

GABAergic neurons might be the specific neuronal cell-type through which alterations in

TORC1 activity regulate longevity. Collectively, our results position HPK-1 activity in

GABAergic neurons as the likely integration point for cell non-autonomous regulation of

autophagy via TORC1 (*Figure 9B*).

This work reveals a new level of specificity in the capacity of the nervous system

to initiate adaptive responses by triggering distinct components of the proteostatic

network across cell types. Results elucidating how neuronal cell-types generate

heterotypic signals to coordinate the maintenance of homeostasis are just beginning to

emerge. For example, a previous study discovered that activating non-autonomous

signaling of the endoplasmic reticulum unfolded protein response (ER-UPR) via the XBP-

1 transcription factor can be initiated from serotonergic neurons and dopaminergic

neurons; these signals are unique and converge to activate distinct branches of the ER-

UPR within the same distal tissues (intestinal cells) (Higuchi-Sanabria et al., 2020). In

contrast, our work demonstrates differential, yet specific, activation of cytosolic

components of the PN in separate peripheral tissues through neurotransmitters. Our work

suggests the nervous system partitions neuronal cell-types to coordinate the activation of

complementary proteostatic mechanisms across tissues, despite utilizing the same

transcriptional regulator within each neuronal cell-type. One possibility is that HPK-1

regulates specific adaptive responses based on the unique epigenetic states between

differentiated neuronal subtypes, which would be consistent with recent findings: during

development and differentiation, transcriptional rewiring of cells set chaperoning

capacities and alter usage of mechanisms that maintain protein quality control (Nisaa and

Ben-Zvi, 2021; Shemesh et al., 2021). Our work reveals HPK-1 as a novel transcriptional

regulator within the nervous system of metazoans, which integrates diverse stimuli to

coordinate specific adaptive responses that promote healthy aging.

Materials and Methods

Key resources table

C. elegans strains, strain background

Strain name	Genotype
N2	*Wild type*
AVS392/EK273	*hpk-1(pk1393) X*
AVS543	*artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]*
AVS609	*artEx43 [myo-3p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1*
AVS614	*artEx48 [dpy-7p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1*
AVS627	*artEx52 [ges-1p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1*
AVS420	*hpk-1(pk1393) X; artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]*
AVS602/CZ13799	*juIs76 [unc-25p::GFP + lin-15(+)] II*
AVS608	*hpk-1(pk1393); juIs76 [unc-25p::GFP + lin-15(+)] II*
AVS752	*artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]; hpk-1(pk1393); juIs76 [unc-25p::GFP + lin-15(+)] II*
AVS832	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; artEx58 [rab-3p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1*
AVS833	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; artEx59 [rab-3p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 2*
AVS834	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; artEx60 [rab-3p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 3*
AVS835	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; artEx61 [rab-3p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 4*
AVS744	*artEx75 (rab-3p::hpk-1(K176A) + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry); rmIs132 [Punc-54::Q35::YFP] I line 1*
AVS748	*artEx79 (rab-3p::hpk-1(D272N) + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry); rmIs132 [Punc-54::Q35::YFP] I line 1*
AVS562	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 5*
AVS563	*rmIs110 [F25B3.3p::Q40::YFP]; artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1*
AVS837	*rmIs110 [F25B3.3p::Q40::YFP]; artEx92 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 2*
AVS838	*rmIs110 [F25B3.3p::Q40::YFP]; artEx93 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 3*
AVS839	*rmIs110 [F25B3.3p::Q40::YFP]; artEx94 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 4*
AVS214/HC196	*sid-1(qt9) V*
AVS265/TU3401	*sid-1(pk3321)V; uIs69 [unc-119p::sid-1; myo-2p::mCherry]V*
AVS540	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; sid-1(pk3321)V; uIs69[unc-119p::sid-1; myo-2p::mCherry]V*
AVS541	*rmIs110 [F25B3.3p::Q40::YFP]; sid-1(pk3321)V; uIs69[unc-119p::sid-1; myo-2p::mCherry]V*
AVS713	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; artEx41(rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]; unc-31(e169)V*
AVS810	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]; unc-13(e51)I*
AVS84/TJ375	*gpIs1 [hsp-16.2p::GFP] IV*
AVS397	*gpIs1 [hsp-16.2p::GFP]; artEx35 [sur-5p::hpk-1::CFP +pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]*
AVS399	*gpIs1 [hsp-16.2p::GFP]; artEx33 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP +pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]*
AVS715	*artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]; sqIs24 [rgef-1p::GFP::lgg-1 + unc-122p::RFP]*
AVS716	*artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]; sqIs13 [lgg-1p::GFP::lgg-1 + odr-1p::RFP]*
AVS682	*artEx62 [tph-1p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
AVS683	*artEx63 [tph-1p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 2; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
AVS685	*artEx65 [unc-47p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
AVS686	*artEx66 [unc-47p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 2; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
AVS691	*artEx71 [eat-4p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
AVS692	*artEx72 [eat-4p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 2; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
AVS693	*artEx73 [cat-2p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
AVS694	*artEx74 [cat-2p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 2; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
AVS809	*artEx62 [tph-1p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1; sqIs13 [lgg-1p::GFP::lgg-1 + odr-1p::RFP]*
AVS794	*artEx65 [unc-47p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1; sqIs13 [lgg-1p::GFP::lgg-1 + odr-1p::RFP]*
AVS709	*artEx62 [tph-1p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1*
AVS710	*artEx65 [unc-47p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1*
AVS888	*artEx99 [unc-47p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 2*
AVS816	*artEx41(rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry); sqIs13 [lgg-1p::GFP::lgg-1 + unc-122p::RFP]; unc-30(ok613)*
AVS872	*artEx41(rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry); sqIs13 [lgg-1p::GFP::lgg-1 + unc-122p::RFP]; tph-1(mg280)*
AVS836	*artEx91 [hpk-1p::GFP + tph-1p::mCherry] line 1*
AVS757	*artEx87 [hpk-1p::mCherry + unc-47p::GFP] line 1*
AVS001/CB1370	*daf-2(e1370)*
AVS022/GR1309	*daf-2(e1370); daf-16(mgDf47)*
AVS495/CL6264	*uIs60 [unc-119p::YFP + unc119p::sid-1]; eri-1(mg366)*

AVS817	artIs1 [sur-5p::HPK-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::m-cherry)]; uIs60 [unc-119p::YFP + unc119p::sid-1]; eri-1(mg366)
AVS488	mxl-2(tm1516)

724 Strains with both an AVS# and an external designation were generated in another laboratory. In these cases, an AVS# is assigned
725 for internal record keeping and for purposes of increased rigor and reproducibility.
726

C. elegans strains and details

728 All strains were maintained at 20°C on standard NGM plates with OP50. For all

729 experiments, animals were grown in 20x concentrated HT115 bacteria seeded on 6cm

730 RNAi plates. Details on the strains, mutant alleles, and transgenic animals used in this

731 study are listed in the Key resources table (above).

Generation of transgenic strains

To assemble tissue-specific constructs for increased *hpk-1* expression, the *hpk-1* cDNA

was amplified and inserted into a pPD95.75 plasmid backbone containing the following

promoters: hypodermal *dpy-7p* (Gilleard et al., 1997), body wall muscle *myo-3p* (Okkema

et al., 1993), pan-neuronal *rab-3p* (Nonet et al., 1997), dopaminergic neurons *cat-2p*

(Lints and Emmons, 1999), glutamatergic neurons *eat-4p* (Lee et al., 1999), serotonergic

neurons *tph-1p* (Sze et al., 2000), and g-aminobutyric acid (GABA)ergic neurons *unc-47p*

(Gendrel et al., 2016). All the assembled plasmids were validated by sequencing prior to

microinjection. These constructs were injected at 5 ng/ml together with *myo-2p::mCherry*

construct at 5 ng/ml as injection marker and *pBlueScript* at 90ng/ml as DNA carrier.

RNAi feeding

The *hpk-1* RNAi clone was originated from early copies of *E. coli* glycerol stocks of the

comprehensive RNAi libraries generated in the Ahringer and Vidal laboratories. The

control empty vector (L4440) and *hpk-1* RNAi colonies were grown overnight in Luria

broth with 50 μg ml–1 ampicillin and then seeded onto 6cm RNAi agar plates containing

5 mM isopropylthiogalactoside (IPTG) to induce dsRNA expression overnight at room

temperature. RNAi clones used in this study were verified by DNA sequencing and

subsequent BLAST analysis to confirm their identity.

Lifespan analysis

Traditional lifespan assays were performed essentially as described in: (Das et al., 2017;

Lee et al., 2003). Briefly, animals were synchronized by egg prep bleaching followed by

hatching in M9 solution at 20°C overnight. The L1 animals were seeded onto 6cm plates

with HT115 bacteria and allowed to develop at 20°C. At L4 stage, FUdR was added to a

final concentration of 400 uM. Viability was scored every day or every other day as

indicated in each figure. Prism 7 was used to for statistical analyses and the *P* values

were calculated using log-rank (Mantel-Cox) method.

For lifespan with RNAi-mediated knockdown of TOR (*Figure Supplement 9*),

animals for the *let-363* (TOR RNAi) condition were first raised on empty vector RNAi

during development, and transferred to plates with *let-363* RNAi bacteria at L4 to avoid

developmental arrest at L3. In addition to having IPTG present in the media of the RNAi

plates, an additional 200uL of 0.2 M IPTG was added directly to the bacterial lawn of all

plates and allowed to dry immediately before adding animals. The assays were otherwise

performed as just described.

For lifespan assays in *Figure Supplement 3G*, assay plates and animal populations

were prepared as just described, and then lifespan was determined from analysis of time-

series image data collected for a given animal at approximately hour intervals throughout

adult life on modified Epson V800 flatbed scanners with our instance of the *C. elegans*

"lifespan machine" (Oswal et al., 2021; Stroustrup et al., 2013).

For replica set lifespan experiments (*Figure Supplement 3*), animals were

synchronized as previously described, followed by moving animals to 16°C during

development (L1 – L4), after which FUdR was added, and animals were moved to 20 or

25 °C as indicated. Replica set lifespan was trials were setup, scored, and results were

analyzed as described in (Cornwell et al., 2018; Cornwell and Samuelson, 2020).

In all cases: scoring of viability was blinded with respect to genotype and values

obtained at previous timepoints, and animals that died due to rupturing, desiccation on

the side of the plate or well, or clear body morphology defects were censored.

Thermotolerance assay.

Survival assays at high temperature were conducted as previously described in (Johnson

et al., 2014). In brief, synchronized L1 animals were allowed to develop at 20°C and FUdR

was added at the L4 stage. At day 1 adulthood, animals were moved to 35°C for a period

of 6 and 8 hours. Animals were allowed to recover for 2 hours at 20°C, and viability was

scored. In all cases, scoring of viability was blinded with respect to genotype and values

obtained at previous timepoints; animals that died due to rupturing, desiccation on the

side of the plate or well, or had clear body morphology defects were censored. Statistical

testing between pairs of conditions for differences in the number of foci was performed

using student's *t* test analysis.

Induction of *hsp-16.2p*::*GFP* after heat shock.

The *hsp-16.2p*::*GFP* animals were heat shocked on day 1 of adulthood for 1 hour at 35°C

and imaged after 4 hours of recovery. Images were acquired using a Zeiss Axio Imager

M2m microscope with AxioVision v4.8.2.0 software. The GFP a.u. values from the head

and intestine of the animals were acquired using the area selection feature from

AxioVision software. Two independent trials with a minimum of 20 animals per experiment

were performed.

Measurement of autophagosome formation using the *GFP::LGG-1/Atg8* reporter.

GFP::LGG-1/Atg8 foci formation was visualized as described in (Kumsta et al., 2017).

Briefly, L4 stage and day 1 adult animals were raised on HT115 bacteria at 20°C and

imaged using a Zeiss Axio Imager M2m microscope with AxioVision v4.8.2.0 software at

63X magnification. Two independent trials where at least 20 seam cells from 15-20

different animals were scored for *GFP::LGG-1* puncta accumulation. In all cases scoring

of puncta was blinded with respect to genotype.

Measurement of neurodegeneration in motor neurons.

Animals carrying the *unc-25p::GFP* reporter strain to visualize VD and DD motor neurons

were synchronized and allowed to developed at 20°C and FUdR was added at L4 stage.

At L4, D2 and D9 of adulthood, animals were imaged in a Zeiss Axio Imager M2m

microscope and the number of animals showing axonal breaks in the VD and DD motor

neurons were scored. Axonal breaks were defined as an area of discontinued

fluorescence in either the ventral or dorsal nerve cords.

Polyglutamine aggregation in neurons and locomotion analyses.

The visualization and quantification of the progressive decline in proteostasis in the

nervous system (specifically the nerve ring) was performed as described in (Brignull et

al., 2006; Lazaro-Pena et al., 2021). In brief, synchronized *rgef-1p*::*polyQ40*::*YFP* L4

animals were treated with FUdR. Then, z-stack images from the nerve ring were acquired

using a Zeiss Axio Imager M2m microscope with AxioVision v4.8.2.0 software at 63X

magnification. The fluorescent foci form compressed *z*-stack images from 20 animals per

technical replicate were scored blind every other day from four to eight days of adulthood.

To assess locomotion capacity, at day two of adulthood, 40 animals were

transferred to a drop of 10ul of M9 solution and the number of body bends performed in

a period of 30 seconds from each animal was scored (as described in (Lazaro-Pena et

al., 2021)). Statistical testing between pairs of conditions for differences in the number of

foci was performed using student's *t* test analysis.

Polyglutamine aggregation in muscle and paralysis analyses.

The visualization and quantification of the progressive decline in proteostasis in muscle

tissue was performed as described in (Lazaro-Pena et al., 2021; Morley et al., 2002).

Briefly, synchronized *unc-54p*::*Q35*::*YFP* L4 animals were treated with FUdR. Then,

fluorescent foci from 20 animals per technical replicate were scored blind daily from days

one to three of adulthood. To assess paralysis, at days 5, 7, 9, and 11 of adulthood,

prodded animals that responded with head movement (and were therefore still alive) but

no backward or repulsive motion were scored as paralyzed (as described in (Lazaro-Pena

et al., 2021)). Statistical testing between pairs of conditions for differences in the number

of foci was performed using student's *t* test analysis. Two to five independent transgenics

lines were tested.

Aldicarb assay.

The aldicarb assay was performed as described in (Mahoney et al., 2006; Oh and Kim,

2017). Plates containing Aldicarb 1mM were prepared the day before the assay and

stored at 4°C. Animals were synchronized by picking at L4 stage and placing them in a

plate with HT115 bacteria. After 24 hours, one aldicarb plate per strain were brought out

of 4°C and a small drop of OP50 was placed in the center of the plate a let dry for 30

minutes. Approximately 25 animals were placed on each plate, and the number of

paralyzed animals were scored every hour up to 5 hours. The assay was performed at

room temperature.

Exogenous 5-HT immobilization assay.

Animals were synchronized by picking at L4 stage and placing them in a plate with HT115

bacteria. After 24 hours, serotonin (5-HT) was dissolved in M9 buffer to a 20mM

concentration (Hart, 2006). Twenty worms were placed on a glass plate well with 400ul

of 20mM serotonin for 10 minutes. The same number of control animals were placed in

400ul of M9 buffer. The locomotion of worms (mobilize or immobilized) was annotated at

the following time points: 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 minutes. The assay was performed at room

temperature.

Sample preparation and sequencing for RNA-Seq.

10 cm RNAi plates were seeded with 1 mL of 10x concentrated HT115 EV bacteria from

an overnight culture, and allowed to dry for 1-2 days. N2 or *hpk-1(pk1393)* Approximately

1,000 synchronized L1 animals were added to each plate (~3000 animals per condition

across multiple plates). At the L4 stage, 600 μL of 4 mg/mL FUdR was added. Animals

were kept at 20 °C for the duration of the experiment.

Day 2 adult animals were collected in M9 buffer, washed 2x in M9, and a final wash

with DEPC-treated RNase-free water. Approximately two times the volume of the animal

pellet of TRIzol® reagent was added to each animal preparation, followed by brief mixing

and freezing overnight at -80 °C. Tubes were then allowed to partially thaw, and were

vortexed for five minutes to assist with disrupting the cuticle. Samples were transferred

to new tubes, and 200 µL of chloroform per 1 mL of TRIzol was added, followed by 20s

vortexing; the tubes settled at RT for 10 minutes. Supernatants were transferred to new

tubes, and an equal amount of 100% ethanol was added and mixed before proceeding to

column purification with the Qiagen RNAeasy Mini kit according the manufacturer's

instructions. Samples were eluted with 30 – 50 µL of DEPC-treated water, and checked

for initial concentration and quality with a Nanodrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer.

Biological replicate samples were prepared from independently synchronized populations

of animals.

Isolated RNA was provided to the University of Rochester Genomics Research

Center for library preparation and sequencing. Prior to library preparation, RNA integrity

of all samples was confirmed on an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer. Libraries for sequencing

were prepared with the Illumina TruSeq Stranded mRNA kit, according to the

manufacturer's instructions. Quality of the resulting libraries was checked again with a

Bioanalyzer prior to sequencing to ensure integrity. Sequencing was performed on an

Illumina HiSeq2500 v4, yielding an average of approximately 31 million single-ended 100

bp reads per sample. Quality of the output was summarized with FastQC (Andrews, 2010)

and reads were trimmed and filtered with Trimmomatic to remove adapter sequence and

any low-quality content occasionally observed toward the ends of reads (Bolger et al.,

2014). After filtering out low-quality reads, an average of 30 million reads per sample

remained, and were used for the rest of the analysis.

Analysis of *hpk-1* null and wild-type control RNA-Seq dataset.

RNA-Seq reads were aligned to the *C. elegans* genome (assembly WBcel235) with STAR

2.4.2a (Dobin et al., 2013) using gene annotation from Ensembl (version 82)

(Cunningham et al., 2022). An average of 90.2% of reads per sample were uniquely and

unambiguously mapped to the genome. These alignments were used as input to

featureCounts (version 1.4.6-p5) for gene-level counts (Liao et al., 2014). Ambiguous or

multi-mapping reads, comprising an average of approximately 9% of the reads per

sample, were not included in the gene-level count results. Transcript-level quantification

was also performed with RSEM (Li and Dewey, 2011) to obtain TPM (Transcripts Per

Million) expression estimates.

Further analysis was performed primarily in the R statistical software environment

(version 4.0.2) (Team, 2013), utilizing custom scripts and incorporating packages from

Bioconductor. Both count and TPM expression matrices were filtered to remove genes

with low or no expression, keeping genes with at least 10 read counts in at least one

sample. Genes were further filtered to keep only those annotated as protein coding,

pseudogene, ncRNA, lincRNA, antisense, or snRNA, which could have been included in

the sequenced libraries after poly-A selection; 96.3% of genes included in the final set

are protein-coding. Gene identifiers have been updated as necessary from newer

versions of WormBase (WS284) for integration with recent resources and datasets.

Differential expression analysis was performed with DESeq2, and the optional fold-

change shrinkage procedure was applied to moderate fold-changes for low-expression

genes (Love et al., 2014). Genes significantly differentially expressed between *hpk-

1(pk1393)* and N2 animals were taken as those with FDR-adjusted p-value less than 0.05

and absolute value of $\log_2$ foldchange of at least 1 (on a linear scale, down- or up-

regulated by at least two-fold). Functional and over-representation analysis for

differentially expressed genes was performed with GOSeq (Young et al., 2010)using gene

sets and pathways from the Gene Ontology (Harris et al., 2004), KEGG (Kanehisa and

Goto, 2000), and Reactome (Jassal et al., 2020).

Integration with public tissue-specific and single-cell RNA-Seq datasets.

C. elegans Aging Atlas and CenGen single-cell datasets

We obtained differential expression results for old (days 8, 11, 15) vs young (days 1, 3,

5) animals across 200 cell clusters from the Aging Atlas single-cell RNA-Seq project

(Roux et al., 2022). Significantly differentially expressed genes within each cluster were

taken as those with adjusted p-value < 0.05, and $\log_2$ fold-change magnitude of at least

0.5 (approximately 1.4 fold up- or down-regulated on a linear scale). Additional neuron

identity information was obtained by mapping Aging Atlas neuron clusters to clusters

identified in late-larval stage animals in the CeNGEN single-cell neuronal transcriptome

project (Taylor et al., 2021), assisted by correlations between clusters of the two datasets

already provided with the Aging Atlas. Chemical signaling subtypes of neurons were

determined by expression of marker genes commonly used in the field for fluorescent

labeling of neurons: *tph-1* for serotonergic, *unc-47* for GABAergic, *eat-4* for glutamatergic,

cat-2 for dopaminergic, *cat-2* for cholinergic. Where a high correlation had been

established between a cluster in the Aging Atlas and CeNGEN, a signaling type was

assigned if the cluster expressed the associated marker gene at TPM greater than 75

based on the provided pre-normalized expression matrix available from the CeNGEN

website. Ten Aging Atlas neuron clusters did not have an obvious corresponding cluster

in the CeNGEN dataset; for these clusters neuron signaling class was based on marker

genes having average cluster counts > 0.5 across all cells in a cluster and, where

possible, a consensus of the six Aging Atlas timepoints.

Genes uniquely expressed in neurons, or significantly enriched compared to other

tissues were obtained from tissue-specific bulk RNA-Seq reported by (Kaletsky et al.,

2018) due to the additional dynamic range provided over current single-cell sequencing

technology.

C. elegans kinome, transcription factors, neuronal genome, and longevity-associated

genes

A collection of *C. elegans* kinases was assembled based on Zaru *et al.* 2017 (Zaru et al.,

2017) and cross-referenced against current gene annotation in WormBase version

WS284 (Harris et al., 2020) to keep only protein-coding genes and remove pseudogenes

or "dead" genes. This produced a list of 438 kinases in the *C. elegans* kinome (See Figure

Supplement 4, Supplementary File 5). *C. elegans* transcription factors were identified

from a previously published compendium (Nye et al., 1989). Genes with known or

predicted functions important to neurons, and their associated roles, were assembled

from tables curated in (Hobert, 2013). Genes with lifespan phenotypes primarily from

perturbation studies in *C. elegans* utilizing RNAi or mutant strains were assembled from

annotation in WormBase (WS282) as well as the GenAge database (de Magalhaes and

Toussaint, 2004).

Statistical analysis for *in vivo* assays.

Unless otherwise specified, GraphPad PRISM version 7 software was used for statistical

analyses. Data were considered statistically significant when *P* value was lower than 0.05.

In figures, asterisks denote statistical significance as (*, $P < 0.05$, **, $P < 0.001$, ****, $P <$

0.0001) as compared to appropriate controls. N number listed in figure legend indicates

the number of one representative experiment among all biological trials.

Appendices.

Appendix 1. In non-neuronal clusters we found a positive correlation between *hpk-1* and a much smaller subset of TFs, only three of which have previously been implicated in longevity: *fkh-9* (FOXG), *sea-2*, and *zfh-2* (ZFHX3) (Walter et al., 2011). Conversely, only three longevity-associated TFs had inverse expression changes with age relative to *hpk-1* outside of the nervous system: *xbp-1, mdl-1,* and *hlh-6* (achaete-scute family bHLH transcription factor 3) (*Figure supplement 1*). Previously, it has been found that *xbp-1* expression decreases broadly across 153 cell clusters (Roux et al., 2022); thus, whether inverse co-expression with *hpk-1* has biological significance cannot be ascertained from this analysis.

Appendix 2. During normal aging, only 14 kinases are downregulated in 10 or more cell-clusters, four of which have been previously associated with longevity: *akt-1* (AKT1, a canonical component of the insulin-signaling pathway (Paradis and Ruvkun, 1998)), *nipi-3*, *dlk-1* (MAP3K12, a positive retrograde longevity response to mitochondrial electron transport chain disruption (Munkacsy et al., 2016)), and *mkk-4* (MAP2K4) (*Figure supplement 4*). Interestingly, *dlk-1* and *mkk-4* are both required for axon regeneration after laser injury (Hammarlund et al., 2009).

Kinases often function in tandem in signal transduction cascades. We examined whether any were co-expressed during aging in over-lapping cell-clusters with *hpk-1*, which would be consistent with age-associated pathway activation via changes in gene expression. Each kinase had a unique signature of cell clusters: *akt-1* and *dlk-1* are broadly downregulated both within and outside the nervous system, conversely *gcy-28* and *hpk-1* are broadly upregulated. Other kinases with age-associated changes in

expression across multiple cell-types displayed more specific patterns. For instance, *mkk-*

4 was downregulated in a restricted set of clusters across cell-types, while *nipi-3*

expression was both strongly up and downregulated across many clusters. We failed to

identify any obvious correspondence, suggesting that putative HPK-1 regulatory

cascades either are not co-regulated via increased age-associated expression across cell

types or are cell-type specific.

Appendix 3. Loss of *hpk-1* upregulates expression of a number of neuronal genes

including those involved in: neuropeptide signaling, neurotransmission, release of

synaptic vesicles, calcium homeostasis, and function of sensory neurons. In addition to

upregulation of *ins* neuropeptides, 12 FMRFamide-related (flp) peptides, 19

neuropeptide-like proteins (nlp), nine neuropeptide maturation genes (e.g., *egl-3*

(proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 2) and *egl-21*(carboxypeptidase E)), and nine

putative GPCR neuropeptide receptors were also significantly upregulated in *hpk-1* null

mutants. Neurotransmitters are signaling molecules that trigger a response by binding to

ionotropic or metabotropic neurotransmitter receptors in recipient neurons or tissues; we

find that mainly the latter are upregulated in *hpk-1* null mutant animals, including:

acetylcholine (*gar-1, gar-2* and *gar-3*), GABA (*gbb-2*) and glutamate (*mgl-3* and

uncharacterized *C30A5.10*). In total nine metabotropic and two ionotropic gluatamate

receptors, 14 vesicular glutamate transport family genes, nine acetylcholine receptor

ligand-gated ion channels, and nine GABA receptor ligand-gated ion channels were

upregulated. Additionally, *ace-2*, *ace-3* and *cha-1*, involved in acetylcholine degradation

and synthesis (respectively), were upregulated. *comt-4*, a catechol-O-methyltransferase

expected to be involved in the degradation of dopamine, was significantly down-
regulated.

Synaptic transmission, the formation and release of synaptic vesicles, carry
neurotransmitters and rely on proteins necessary for docking, priming and fusing to the
axon terminal plasma membrane, which releases cargo into the synaptic cleft.
Interestingly, loss of *hpk-1* causes the upregulation of synaptic proteins such as *unc-13*,
unc-10 and *rab-3*, which are essential for vesicle priming, recruitment and sequestration
of vesicles, respectively. The process of vesicle release is highly dependent on a Ca^{2+}
signal detected by synaptotagmins proteins, which promotes vesicle fusion to the plasma
membrane (Deak, 2014). In *hpk-1* null mutant animals, we observed upregulation of
synaptotagmin *snt-1*, *snt-3* and *snt-4* Ca^{2+} sensor proteins for vesicle release.

Neuronal function is regulated by changes in calcium levels: a decrease in calcium
uptake reduces neuronal function by a reducing neurotransmitter release (Scriabine and
Kazda, 1989). In contrast, increasing calcium influx triggers activation of proteases and
phospholipases, resulting in cell damage and cell death (Cheung et al., 1986; Siesjo,
1989). Voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels (VGCCs) are composed of 24 transmembrane
alpha-1 subunits and associate with auxiliary beta-1 and alpha-2-delta subunits. *hpk-1*
null mutant animals have increased expression of two of five alpha-1 subunits (*egl-19* and
unc-2), and both alpha-2-delta subunits (*unc-36* and *tag-180*). Previous research
describes the role of *egl-19* voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channel in the induction of the heat stress
response (Silva et al., 2013): moderate upregulation of acetylcholine signaling improves
muscle proteostasis by the activation of HSF-1, triggered by the *egl-19*-dependent Ca^{2+}
influx.

Neuronally expressed cilia are essential for cell motility, sensory perception and signaling. The assembly and maintenance of sensory cilia depends on IFT: bidirectional movement of cargo to and from the base and tip of the axoneme. The *C. elegans* IFT machinery is composed of: anterograde IFT motors, heterotrimeric kinesin-II and homodimeric OSM-3, retrograde dynein motors; and the IFT-A, -B and BBSome particle complexes (Hao et al., 2009; Scholey et al., 2004). Loss of *hpk-1* induces the expression of a high number of IFT machinery components including: *klp-11* (kinesin II motor), *che-3* (dynein motor), three and seven members of the IFT-A and -B complexes (respectively), and five members of BBSome complex. In mammals, there is a link between primary cilia signaling and age-related brain disease, including neurodegenerative disorders (Ma et al., 2022).

Data availability.

All data supporting the findings of this study are available within the article, its Supplementary Information files, the peer-review file, or are available upon request. RNA-Seq data for *hpk-1(pk1393)* and N2 is available from GEO, accession GSE220744.

All scripts for data analysis are available upon reasonable request.

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Figure Supplement 1. During normal aging *hpk-1* is co-expressed with transcription factors in cell-clusters outside of the nervous system.
Heat map of non-neuronal cell clusters in which *hpk-1* expression increases during normal aging along with TFs differentially expressed in 3 or more neuron cell-clusters. Fold-changes of a given TF from old versus young animals are shown, upregulation with aging in red and downregulation with aging in blue. Neuronal types, neurotransmitter subtypes are indicated in the top, names of the cell cluster or individual neuronal pair are given at the bottom, and whether a TF has previously been implicated in aging is indicated by the black and gold on the left side (genes with gold bars have previously published aging-associated phenotypes). Primary data for this analysis was generated in the *C. elegans* Aging Atlas (Roux et al., 2022) and differential expression with aging was based on adjusted p-values <0.05 and a $\log_2$ FC magnitude of at least 0.5 (between days 8,11,15 and days 1,3,5). Note *hpk-1* is included for reference and is a transcriptional co-factor, but is not a *bona fide* transcription factor. See *Supplementary Files 4 and 5* for dataset.

Figure Supplement 2. *hpk-1* neuronal co-expression with transcription factors during aging. Heat map of neuronal cell clusters in which *hpk-1* expression increases during normal aging along with TFs differentially expressed in 3 or more neuron cell-clusters. Fold-changes of a given TF from old versus young animals are shown, upregulation with aging in red and downregulation with aging in blue. Neuronal types, neurotransmitter subtypes are indicated in the top, names of the cell cluster or individual neuronal pair are given at the bottom, and whether a TF has previously been implicated in aging is indicated by the black and gold on the left side (genes with gold bars have previously published aging-associated phenotypes). Primary data for this analysis was generated in the *C. elegans* Aging Atlas (Roux et al., 2022) and differential expression with aging was based on adjusted p-values <0.05 and a $\log_2$ FC magnitude of at least 0.5 (between days 8,11,15 and days 1,3,5). Note *hpk-1* is included for reference and is a transcriptional co-factor, but is not a *bona fide* transcription factor. See *Supplementary Files 4 and 5* for dataset.

Figure Supplement 3. Genetic analysis of lifespan between *hpk-1* and alterations of ILS.
(A-C) Lifespan of *daf-2(e1370)* mutant animals treated with either empty vector (*ev*), *hpk-1(RNAi)*, or *daf-16(RNAi)* at 25°C in either *daf-2(e1370)* (A), wild-type (B), or *daf-2(e1370);daf-16(mgDf47)* mutant animals (C). Primary lifespan data for (A-C) was generated in (Samuelson et al., 2007) and can be found in Supplemental Table 2 of that study. **(D-F)** Lifespan of *daf-2(e1370)* mutant animals treated with either empty vector (*ev*), *hpk-1(RNAi)*, or *daf-16(RNAi)* at 20°C in either *daf-2(e1370)* (D), wild-type (E), or *daf-2(e1370);daf-16(mgDf47)* mutant animals (F). Primary data for (D-F) can be found in *Supplementary File 1* (this study). Lifespan experiments in **(A-F)** used the replicate set method (for detailed protocols see (Cornwell et al., 2018; Cornwell and Samuelson, 2020), which is as accurate and precise as traditional approaches to assess changes in *C. elegans* lifespan and have high resolution to detect differences (Cornwell et al., 2022): in *daf-2(e1370);daf-16(mgDf47)* the p-value comparisons (empty vector to *hpk-1(RNAi)*) are significant at both 25 and 20°C, but result in small absolute decreases in median lifespan (0.68 and 1.12 days, respectively). Curves were plotted using WormLife (https://github.com/samuelsonlab-urmc/wormlife) (Cornwell et al., 2018). **(G)** Lifespan of *C. elegans* with enhanced sensitivity to RNAi within the nervous system (*unc-119p::sid-1; eri-1(mg366)*) treated with either empty vector (grey line) or *daf-2(RNAi)* (red line) or *unc-119p::sid-1; eri-1(mg366); sur-5p::hpk-1* animals treated with *daf-2(RNAi)* (black line) using the Lifespan Machine method (Stroustrup et al., 2013). See *Supplementary File 1* for primary data.

Figure Supplement 4. Only a limited subset of kinases change expression during normal aging.

Heat map of 184 kinases that change expression during normal aging in any cell cluster in the aging atlas dataset, of the 438 total kinases identified in *C. elegans*. Increased (red) and decreased (blue) expression with aging of a given kinase is shown. Major tissue types, kinase classes, as well as whether a kinase has previously been implicated in aging is indicated in the top and side bars, respectively. Primary data for this analysis was generated in the *C. elegans* Aging Atlas (Roux et al., 2022) and differential expression with aging was based on adjusted p-values <0.05 and a $\log_2$ FC magnitude of at least 0.5 (between days 8,11,15 and days 1,3,5). See *Supplementary Files 4 and 5* for dataset.

Figure Supplement 5. HPK-1 kinase activity is necessary to improve proteostasis.
(A) Multiple sequence alignment of the HPK-1 kinase domain across evolutionarily distant species. Alignment was conducted using Clustal Omega (Sievers et al., 2011), with sequence IDs: HIPK2 (NP_073577.3), HPK-1 (F20B6.8a), HIPK2 (*M. musculus*, NP_001281073.1), HIPK (*D. melanogaster*, CG17090), HPK-1 (*C. briggsae*, CBP26904), and Yak1 (SGDID:S000003677). **(B)** Overlap between the predicted tertiary structures of the kinase domain of *C. elegans* HPK-1 (green), *S. cerevisiae* Yak1 (pink), and *H. sapiens* HIPK2 (blue). The K176A and D272N mutations are indicated by a red triangle and purple star, respectively, falling within the catalytic domain (He et al., 2010). Predicted structures for these genes were downloaded from AlphaFold (Jumper et al., 2021; Varadi et al., 2022): HPK-1(Q8MQ70_HIPK_CAEEL), Yak1 (A0A7C8V8P7_ORBOL), (H7BXX9_HUMAN). Highly conserved regions observed using multiple sequence alignment where then aligned in 3D using PyMol alignment tool (DeLano, 2002). **(C-F)** Quantification of foci in muscle (C, D) and paralysis rate (E, F) of transgenic animals with neuronal overexpression of *hpk-1(K176A)* (C, E) and *hpk-1(D272N)* (D, F), respectively. (n$\geq$20 for C, n$\geq$20 for D, n$\geq$48 for E

1191 and n$\geq$30 for F). *T* test analysis was performed between transgenic and non-transgenic
1192 animals at every time point. See *Supplementary Files 11 and 12* for details.
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Figure Supplement 6. HPK-1 cell-nonautonomous regulation of proteostasis
depends on neurotransmitter signaling.
(**A**) Quantification of *polyQ* foci in muscle of wild type and neuropeptide secretion
mutants, *unc-31(e169)* (n$\geq$21), (**B**) Quantification of foci in muscle of wild type and
neurotransmitters secretion mutants, *unc-13(e51)* (n$\geq$21). *T* test analysis with **$P < 0.01$
and ***$P < 0.001$. See *Supplementary File 11* for details.

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Figure Supplement 7. ***hpk-1* expression in glutamatergic and dopaminergic neurons is not sufficient to prevent the decline in proteostasis.**
(A and **B)** Quantification of number of foci (A) and paralysis rate (B) of animals expressing *hpk-1* in the glutamatergic neurons (*eat-4p::hpk-1*; green line) and control non-transgenic siblings (blue line) (n≥18 for A and n≥29 for B). **(C** and **D)** Quantification of number of foci (C) and paralysis rate (D) of animals expressing *hpk-1* in the dopaminergic neurons (*cat-2p::hpk-1;* orange line) and control non-transgenic siblings (blue line) (n≥16 for C and n≥34 for D). See *Supplementary Files 11 and 12* for details and additional trials.

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1215 **Figure Supplement 8. *hpk-1* is expressed in GABAergic and serotonergic neurons.**
1216 Representative fluorescent micrographs of day 1 adult animals co-expressing *hpk-*
1217 *1p::mCherry* and *unc-47p::GFP* **(A-C)**; and *hpk-1p::GFP* and *tph-1p::mCherry* **(D-F)**.
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Figure Supplement 9. ***mxl-2* is required for decreased TORC1 signaling to increase**
longevity. Lifespan of wild-type (N2, darker shades) or *mxl-2(tm1516)* null mutant
animals (lighter shades) treated with either empty vector (black/gray), *let-363(RNAi)*
(blues), or *daf-15(RNAi)* (reds). Lifespan graph is representative of one trial with two
replicates. Curves were plotted using WormLife (https://github.com/samuelsonlab-
urmc/wormlife) (Cornwell et al., 2018). See *Supplementary File 1* for details and
additional trial.
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1229 **Supplementary File 1.** *Lazaro-Pena SF01 Lifespan assays.xlsx.* Trials, data, strains,
1230 genotypes, number of animals, and statistics for lifespan data presented in Figures 1a-d,
1231 8b,f, S3a-g, and S9.
1232
1233 **Supplementary File 2.** *Lazaro-Pena SF02 Body bends assays.xlsx.* Experimental
1234 data, strains, genotypes, number of animals and statistical analysis for data presented in
1235 Figures 1e, and 5c,e.
1236
1237 **Supplementary File 3.** *Lazaro-Pena SF03 Thermotolerance assays.xlsx.* Trials, data,
1238 analysis, strains, genotypes, number of animals, and statistics for thermotolerance data
1239 presented in Figures 1f, and 8a,e.
1240
Supplementary File 4. *Lazaro-Pena SF04 TFs DE with aging in hpk-1 DE*
clusters.xlsx. Transcription factors differentially expressed in old vs young animals in the
same cell clusters where *hpk-1* has significant expression changes with age in the Aging
Atlas dataset. This includes a summary of which clusters exhibit upregulation and which
exhibit downregulation for a TF, and if the gene has been previously shown to have aging
or lifespan associated phenotypes in RNAi or loss-of-function mutant experiments.
Primary data was from the *C. elegans* Aging Atlas, and association to aging phenotypes
was determined based on curated annotations from WormBase and GenAge. File is
associated with Figures 2, S1, S2, and S4.
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Supplementary File 5. *Lazaro-Pena SF05 C elegans kinome aging DE.xlsx.* Kinases
differentially expressed in old vs young animals out of any of the 200 clusters with DE
analysis results from the Aging Atlas dataset. Out of 438 kinases identified in *C. elegans*,
186 have significant age-associated expression changes in at least one Aging Atlas cell
cluster. For these kinases, we summarized the number of age-associated up- and down-
regulated changes, if they have been previously identified as having aging or lifespan
phenotypes in loss-of-function experiments, and the fold-changes in *hpk-1* null vs WT
animals for significant changes in our bulk RNA-Seq experiment. Primary data was from
the *C. elegans* Aging Atlas, and association to aging phenotypes was determined based
on curated annotations from WormBase and GenAge. File is associated with Figures 2,
S1, S2, and S4.
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1263 **Supplementary File 6.** *Lazaro-Pena SF06 Neurodegeneration assay.xlsx.*
1264 Experimental data, strains, genotypes, number of animals/cells, age and statistical
1265 analysis for data presented in Figures 3b-d.
1266
1267 **Supplementary File 7.** *Lazaro-Pena SF07 Aldicarb assay.xlsx.* Experimental data,
1268 strains, genotypes, number of animals, hours on aldicarb and statistical analysis for data
1269 presented in Figure 3e.
1270
1271 **Supplementary File 8.** *Lazaro-Pena SF08 Serotonin assay.xlsx.* Experimental data,
1272 strains, genotypes, number of animals, minutes on 5-HT and statistical analysis for data
1273 presented in Figure 3f.
1274

Supplementary File 9. *Lazaro-Pena SF09 hpk-1(0) and N2 D2 RNA-seq.xlsx.* Differential expression analysis results for RNA-Seq of *hpk-1(pk1393)* null mutant animals compared to wildtype, presented in this manuscript. *Sheet 1:* differential expression for all 16,828 genes considered to be expressed in any sample in the experiment. *Sheet 2:* the subset of genes with significant expression changes between groups (adjusted p-value < 0.05, log2 fold-change magnitude ≥ 1). Additional columns in both sheets include a summary of the raw and normalized expression for each group, and the human homologs from OrthoList, where applicable. File is associated with Figure 4.

Supplementary File 10. *Lazaro-Pena SF10 hpk-1 DE genes with neuron-associated function annotations.xlsx.* Of the genes significantly differentially expressed in *hpk-1(pk1393)* null mutant animals vs wildtype, we found 280 overlap a set of genes with important functions in neurons (Hobert, O. (2018). *The neuronal genome of Caenorhabditis elegans*). For these genes, table includes a summary of their function, the differential expression fold-change and raw expression level in the *hpk-1(pk1393)* vs wildtype RNA-Seq comparison, and the clusters from the Aging Atlas dataset with significant age-associated expression changes (where applicable). File is associated with Figure 4.

Supplementary File 11. *Lazaro-Pena SF11 Polyglutamine assays.xlsx.* Trials, data, analysis, strains, genotypes, number of animals, age and statistical analysis of polyglutamine foci formation data presented in Figures 5b,d,g,i,l, 7a,c, S5c,d, S6a,b, and S7a,c.

Supplementary File 12. *Lazaro-Pena SF12 Paralysis assays.xlsx.* Trials, data, analysis, strains, genotypes, number of animals, age and statistical analysis of data for paralysis onset in animals expressing *polyQ::YFP* presented in Figures 5h,j, 7b,d, S5e,f, and S8b,d.

Supplementary File 13. *Lazaro-Pena SF13 Induction of molecular chaperone.xlsx.* Trials, fluorescent quantification, analysis, strains, genotypes, number of animals, heat shock conditions, and statistical analysis of data presented in Figure 6c,e.

Supplementary File 14. *Lazaro-Pena SF14 Induction of autophagosomes.xlsx.* Trials, autophagosome quantification, analysis, strains, genotypes, number of cells, age and statistical analysis of data presented in Figures 6g,i,k, and 8d,h,i.

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