1 **Homeodomain-interacting protein kinase maintains neuronal homeostasis during**
2 **normal *Caenorhabditis elegans* aging and systemically regulates longevity from**
3 **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* induction overlaps with key longevity transcription factors*,* 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, which requires *mxl-2* (MLX), *hlh-30* (TFEB), and *daf-16* (FOXO). 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).

The first discovery of a putative link between the transcriptional co-factor

homeodomain-interacting protein kinase (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). In *C. elegans, hpk-1*

preserves proteostasis, stress response and organismal longevity (Berber et al., 2016;

Das et al., 2017; 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 act 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.

HPK-1 overexpression is sufficient to induce autophagy gene expression, and

autophagosome formation requires *hlh-30* (TFEB), *mxl-2* (MLX), and *daf-16* (FOXO)

transcription factors. 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

Figure 1. Neuronal HPK-1 extends longevity and promotes healthspan.
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)** Lifespan curves of wild-type (blue), *hpk-1(pk1393)* (red), and *hpk-1(pk1393); rab-3p::hpk-1* animals (pink). **(G)** Survival of day 1 adult animals subjected to heat shock treatment. Graph represents one of the two individual trials (n≥66). *T* test analysis with **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 and ***P < 0.0001. See *Supplementary Files 1, 2 and 3* for details and additional trials.

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*

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 HPK-1 protein 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 in response to active

stimuli. Next, we tested whether restoring *hpk-1* exclusively within the nervous system

would prevent the premature age-associated decline in movement of *hpk-1* null mutant

animals. Indeed, restoring *hpk-1* neuronal expression rescued the premature age-

associated decline in movement of *hpk-1* null mutant animals (*Video 1*). Thus, HPK-1

activity within the nervous system is sufficient to improve healthspan. Lastly, neuronal

hpk-1 rescue was sufficient to restore a wild-type lifespan in *hpk-1* null mutant animals

(*Figure 1F*). It should be noted this same transgene increases wild-type lifespan (*Figure*

1A), which suggests HPK-1 retains essential functions for adult healthspan and lifespan

outside of the nervous system; we posit these functions are related to development as

HPK-1 is no longer expressed 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

rescue the reduced thermotolerance of *hpk-1* null mutant animals (*Figure 1G*).

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* expression changes during normal aging.

hpk-1 mRNA expression increases in wild-type animals during normal aging between day

2 and 10 or adulthood (*Figure 2A*). 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 2B--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* and longevity-associated TFs are upregulated in shared subsets of neurons.

We next assessed whether any TFs showed patterns of spatial upregulation similar to the age-associated increase in expression of *hpk-1*, and then segregated those cell types into neuronal and non-neuronal subgroups. Seventy-one TFs were differentially upregulated 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 2B--figure supplement 2* and *Supplementary File 5*). Overall, twenty-six of these TFs have previously been implicated in longevity. There are ten TFs broadly upregulated with aging in the nervous system that overlap with *hpk-1* (significant differential expression 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, 15/37), *gei-3* (10/37), *skn-1* (NRF2, 10/37)*, and *hif-1* (hypoxia inducible factor 1, 10/37) (*Figure 2C*) (An and Blackwell, 2003; Chen et al., 2009; Fawcett et al., 2015; Kenyon et 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, 12 TFs exhibited an inverse correspondence, and were largely downregulated with aging in the same neurons where *hpk-1* is normally upregulated (significant differential expression in 9 or more neuronal clusters) (*Figure 2D*); 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

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

(A) Relative expression of *hpk-1* mRNA during normal aging, as measured by RT-qPCR. *T*-test analysis with *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$ and ****$P < 0.0001$. **(B)** 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). **(C, D)** 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 (C) and (D), 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). **(E)** Relative expression of *hpk-1, xbp-1, and gei-3* mRNA of day 11 adult animals, compared to day 1 and as measured by RT-qPCR. *T* test analysis with **$P < 0.01$ and ***$P < 0.001$. **(F)** Representative images of *hpk-1* expression within the nervous system of day 1 and 11 adult animals (*hpk-1p::mCherry; unc-47p::GFP*). See *Figure 7F* and Figure 7- *figure supplement 1A-C* for representative images of whole animals. (n≥5). **(G, H)** Functions and pathways associated with two or more of the TFs listed in (C) and (D), respectively. **(I)** *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 (C, D). See *Supplementary Files 4* for additional RT-qPCR details, and *5* and *6* for dataset.

We tested whether we could verify changes in age-associated gene expression for

several candidate longevity-associated transcription factors identified in the Aging Atlas

study. Age-synchronized wild-type animals at either day 1 or 11 of adulthood were

harvested and mRNA levels of *hpk-1, xbp-1* and *gei-3* were assessed. As expected, both

hpk-1 and *gei-1* were significantly induced in older animals, and conversely *xbp-1*

expression was decreased (*Figure 2E*)**.** We conclude that we can recapitulate results

obtained from the Aging Atlas study and confirm that longevity-associated TFs are

significantly differentially expressed during normal aging. Next we determined whether

hpk-1 expression is significantly induced within the *C. elegans* nervous system during

normal aging; we assessed age-associated changes neuronal *hpk-1* mRNA levels *in vivo*

(*hpk-1p::mCherry*). As expected, we find that *hpk-1* is significantly upregulated within

isolated *C. elegans* neurons during normal aging (*Figure 2F).*

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

corresponding positive age-associated fold-changes. Only six of these TFs have been

implicated in longevity: *fkh-9* (FOXG)*, sea-2, zfh-2* (ZFHX3) (Walter et al., 2011), *xbp-1,*

mdl-1, and *hlh-6* (achaete-scute family bHLH transcription factor 3) (*Figure 2--figure*

supplement 1).

Within neuronal cell-clusters, *hpk-1* and 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 2--figure supplement 3*)*.* TFs with age-associated increases

in expression in clusters overlapping 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 2C*). TFs with decreased expression in aging in *hpk-1*-upregulated neuronal cell

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

response (*Figure 2D*). Interestingly, when assessed at the level of individual time points

rather than "old" and "young" groups, we find that the age-associated up-regulation of

hpk-1 and expression changes of longevity-associated TFs does not necessarily occur in

a tightly-linked manner suggestive of a single upstream regulatory process (see Appendix

1). Rather, we posit *hpk-1* is induced within the nervous system along with key longevity

transcription factors during normal aging in response to accumulating stressors and

collapsing homeostatic mechanisms to mitigate the physiological effects of aging.

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 2--figure supplement 4, Supplementary File 6*). *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* (natriuretic peptide receptor 1, 38 cell-

clusters) (Li and van der Kooy, 2018; Shinkai et al., 2011; Tsunozaki et al., 2008). Only

14 kinases are downregulated in 10 or more cell-clusters. Conversely, 20 kinases are

upregulated in ten or more cell-clusters (*Figure 2--figure supplement 4*). In addition to

hpk-1 and *gcy-28*, five kinases previously linked to longevity are upregulated: *nipi-3* (a

Tribbles pseudokinase that 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) (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

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

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 7, 8 and 9* for details and additional trials.

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

(Hardaker et al., 2001; Omura et al., 2012). 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 10*).

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

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 |log₂ 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 –log₁₀ 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 10 and 11* for dataset and additional analysis.

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).

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).

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 11). 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 conclude 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 (Appendix 2).

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 a 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 ± 1 vs 12.5 ± 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 $61\% \pm 0.10$ of

neuronal *hpk-1* overexpressing animals were paralyzed compared to $81\% \pm 0.08$ 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 5--figure supplement 1*) (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≥21 for B and n≥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≥19 for D and n≥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≥18 for G and n≥23 for H). (**I** and **J**) Quantification of foci in muscle (I) and paralysis rate (J) in neuronal enhanced RNAi animals (n≥22 for I and n≥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 5- *figure supplement 2* for absolute values and statistical analysis. *T* test analysis with **P < 0.01 and ***P < 0.001. See *Supplementary Files 12, 2, and 13* 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 5--figure*

supplement 1C, D) or paralysis (*Figure 5--figure supplement 1E, 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--figure supplement 2*). 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,

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). (**L**) Expression of autophagy genes *atg-18* and *bec-1* via RT-qPCR in *rab-3p::HPK-1* animals compared to non-transgenic controls. *T*-test analysis with *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 and ****P < 0.0001. See *Supplementary Files 4, 14 and 15* for details and additional trials.

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

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). We tested whether neuronal overexpression of *hpk-1* is sufficient to

induce autophagy gene expression, and found that increased neuronal overexpression

induces expression of *atg-18* (WD repeat domain, phosphoinositide interacting 2) and

bec-1 (Beclin 1) (*Figure 6L*). Thus, increased HPK-1 activity within the nervous system is

sufficient to induce basal levels of autophagy both cell-intrinsically and non-

autonomously, which we posit occurs through increased autophagy gene expression to

extend 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 7--figure supplement 1*). While it is possible that *hpk-1*

overexpression in these neuronal subtypes failed to reach a threshold effect, these results

suggest 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

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 12 and 13* for details and additional trials.

(*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--figure supplement 2*),

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

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

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

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

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

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). (J) Relative change in number of puncta in seam cells of *unc-47p::hpk-1* animals expressing *lgg-1p::GFP::LGG-1/Atg8*, compared to non-transgenic controls after indicated gene inactivation (n≥28) for all conditions); see Figure 8- *figure supplement 1* for absolute values and statistical analysis. *T* test analysis with *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01 and ****P < 0.0001. See *Supplementary Files 1, 3, and 15* for details and additional trials.

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

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

HPK-1 regulates autophagy gene expression and across diverse species HIPK

family members directly regulate transcription factors (Sardina et al., 2023), therefore we

sought to identify transcription factors essential for HPK-1 overexpression within

GABAergic neurons to induce autophagy. *pha-4* (FOXA), *mxl-2* (MLX), *hlh-30* (TFEB),

daf-16 (FOXO) and *hsf-1* are all required in specific contexts for the induction of

autophagy, and longevity (Hansen et al., 2008; Kumsta et al., 2017; Lapierre et al., 2013;

Lapierre et al., 2015; Nakamura et al., 2016; O'Rourke and Ruvkun, 2013). Furthermore,

we previously found that *hsf-1, mxl-2, or pha-4* are all necessary for the increased lifespan

conferred by *hpk-1* overexpression throughout the soma (Das et al., 2017). Using feeding

based RNAi, we found that *hpk-1* overexpression in GABAergic neurons still significantly

induced autophagosomes in seam cells after loss of *hsf-1* or *pha-4* (*Figure 8J*); thus HPK-

1 induction of autophagy is independent of *hsf-1* and *pha-4* and suggests the *pha-4*

requirement for HPK-1 mediated longevity is independent of autophagy gene regulation

(at least in hypodermal seam cells). In contrast, after inactivation of *mxl*-2, *hlh-30* or *daf-*

16, GABAergic overexpression of *hpk-1* failed to significantly increase autophagosomes

(*Figure 8J*); thus HPK-1 mediated induction of autophagy requires *mxl-2*, *hlh-30*, and *daf-*

16. We were puzzled to find that the average number of autophagosome in control

animals (i.e., lacking *hpk-1* overexpression) varied after gene inactivation (*Figure 8--*

figure supplement 1A)*.* To rigorously test whether *hpk-1* overexpression required *hlh-30*

for the induction of autophagosomes, we crossed the *hlh-30* null mutation into animals

overexpressing *hpk-1* within GABAergic neurons (*unc-47p::hpk-1;hlh-30(tm1978);lgg-*

1p::GFP::LGG-1; we find that *hlh-30* is required for the induction of autophagosomes in

seam cells when *hpk-1* is overexpressed in GABAergic neurons (*Figure 8--figure*

supplement 1B).

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 8--figure supplement 2*). 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

induced 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 transcriptional regulator that mitigates

aging. We posit this response is activated in the nervous system during normal aging in

wild-type animals to mitigate increasing stress and the breakdown of homeostatic

mechanisms within 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

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. The MXL-2, HLH-30 (TFEB), and DAF-16 (FOXO) transcription factors are all required for hypodermal induction of autophagy in response to increased HPK-1 activity in GABAergic neurons. 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.

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. Mis-differentiation 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 protein is stabilized after heat shock, *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) (*Figure 9B*).

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 8--figure supplement 2*).

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*).

A growing number of longevity-associated transcription factors have been linked

to autophagy, including *pha-4* (FOXA), *mxl-2* (MLX), *hlh-30* (TFEB), *daf-16* (FOXO) and

hsf-1 (Hansen et al., 2008; Kumsta et al., 2017; Lapierre et al., 2013; Lapierre et al., 2015;

Nakamura et al., 2016; O'Rourke and Ruvkun, 2013). We find that *hlh-30, daf-16,* and

hlh-30 are all required for the induction of autophagosomes when *hpk-1* is overexpressed

in GABAergic neurons. We posit these transcription factors respond within the distal

hypodermal seam cells in response to a neuronal signal initiated by HPK-1, as neurons

are largely refractory to RNAi. However, this does not preclude cell intrinsic neuronal

interactions; future refined spatial genetic analysis will be required to definitively decipher

the precise tissues of action. DAF-16 and HLH-30 have previously been shown to function

in combination to promote stress resistance and longevity (Lin et al., 2018). Analogously,

the MML-1::MXL-2 complex and HLH-30 activate each other and are downstream

effectors of longevity after TORC1 inhibition (*mml-1* encodes the MondoA/ChREBP

ortholog, an obligate interactor with MXL-2) (Nakamura et al., 2016). Based on our

discovery that all three of these longevity-associated transcription factors are essential

for GABAergic HPK-1 activity to induce autophagy, it is tempting to speculate HPK-1 acts

as a key mediator of pro-longevity signaling after TORC1 inhibition through coordinated

activation of MML-1::MXL-2, HLH-30, and DAF-16 (*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

Reagent type (species) or resource	Designation	Source or Reference	Identifiers	Additional Information
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	N2	N2 (CGCM)		*Wild type*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS392	EK273		*hpk-1(pk1393) X*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS543	This paper	*artEx41*	*artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS609	This paper	*artEx43*	*artEx43 [myo-3p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS614	This paper	*artEx48*	*artEx48 [dpy-7p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS627	This paper	*artEx52*	*artEx52 [ges-1p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS420	This paper	*artEx41*	*hpk-1(pk1393) X; artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS602	CZ13799	*juIs76*	*juIs76 [unc-25p::GFP + lin-15(+)] II*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS608	This paper	*juIs76*	*hpk-1(pk1393); juIs76 [unc-25p::GFP + lin-15(+)] II*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS752	This paper	*artEx41*	*artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]; hpk-1(pk1393); juIs76 [unc-25p::GFP + lin-15(+)] II*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS832	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx58*	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; artEx58 [rab-3p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS833	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx59*	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; artEx59 [rab-3p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 2*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS834	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx60*	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; artEx60 [rab-3p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 3*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS835	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx61*	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; artEx61 [rab-3p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 4*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS744	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx75*	*artEx75 (rab-3p::hpk-1(K176A) + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry); rmIs132 [Punc-54::Q35::YFP] I line 1*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS748	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx79*	*artEx79 (rab-3p::hpk-1(D272N) + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry); rmIs132 [Punc-54::Q35::YFP] I line 1*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS562	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx41*	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 5*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS563	This paper	*rmIs110; artEx41*	*rmIs110 [F25B3.3p::Q40::YFP]; artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS837	This paper	*rmIs110; artEx92*	*rmIs110 [F25B3.3p::Q40::YFP]; artEx92 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 2*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS838	This paper	*rmIs110; artEx93*	*rmIs110 [F25B3.3p::Q40::YFP]; artEx93 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 3*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS839	This paper	*rmIs110; artEx94*	*rmIs110 [F25B3.3p::Q40::YFP]; artEx94 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 4*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS214	HC196		*sid-1(qt9) V*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS265	TU3401	*uIs69*	*sid-1(pk3321)V; uIs69 [unc-119p::sid-1; myo-2p::mCherry]V*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS540	This paper	*rmIs132; uIs69*	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; sid-1(pk3321)V; uIs69[unc-119p::sid-1; myo-2p::mCherry]V*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS541	This paper	*rmIs110; uIS69*	*rmIs110 [F25B3.3p::Q40::YFP]; sid-1(pk3321)V; uIs69[unc-119p::sid-1; myo-2p::mCherry]V*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS713	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx41*	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; artEx41(rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]; unc-31(e169)V*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS810	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx41*	*rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I; artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]; unc-13(e51)I*

genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS84	TJ375	*gpIs1*	*gpIs1 [hsp-16.2p::GFP] IV*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS397	This paper	*gpIs1; artEx35*	*gpIs1 [hsp-16.2p::GFP]; artEx35 [sur-5p::hpk-1::CFP +pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS399	This paper	*gpIs1; artEx33*	*gpIs1 [hsp-16.2p::GFP]; artEx33 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP +pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS715	This paper	*artEx41; sqIs24*	*artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]; sqIs24 [rgef-1p::GFP::lgg-1 + unc-122p::RFP]*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS716	This paper	*artEx41; sqIs13*	*artEx41 [rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)]; sqIs13 [lgg-1p::GFP::lgg-1 + odr-1p::RFP]*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS682	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx62*	*artEx62 [tph-1p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS683	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx63*	*artEx63 [tph-1p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 2; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS685	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx65*	*artEx65 [unc-47p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS686	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx66*	*artEx66 [unc-47p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 2; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS691	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx71*	*artEx71 [eat-4p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS692	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx72*	*artEx72 [eat-4p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 2; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS693	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx73*	*artEx73 [cat-2p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS694	This paper	*rmIs132; artEx74*	*artEx74 [cat-2p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 2; rmIs132 [unc-54p::Q35::YFP] I*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS809	This paper	*sqIs13; artEx62*	*artEx62 [tph-1p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1; sqIs13 [lgg-1p::GFP::lgg-1 + odr-1p::RFP]*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS794	This paper	*sqIs13; artEx65*	*artEx65 [unc-47p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1; sqIs13 [lgg-1p::GFP::lgg-1 + odr-1p::RFP]*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS709	This paper	*artEx62*	*artEx62 [tph-1p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS710	This paper	*artEx65*	*artEx65 [unc-47p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS888	This paper	*aetEx99*	*artEx99 [unc-47p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 2*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS816	This paper	*sqIs13; artEx41*	*artEx41(rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry); sqIs13 [lgg-1p::GFP::lgg-1 + unc-122p::RFP]; unc-30(ok613)*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS872	This paper	*sqIs13; artEx41*	*artEx41(rab-3p::hpk-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry); sqIs13 [lgg-1p::GFP::lgg-1 + unc-122p::RFP]; tph-1(mg280)*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS836	This paper	*artEx91*	*artEx91 [hpk-1p::GFP + tph-1p::mCherry] line 1*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS757	This paper	*artEx87*	*artEx87 [hpk-1p::mCherry + unc-47p::GFP] line 1*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS001	CB1370		*daf-2(e1370)*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS022	GR1309		*daf-2(e1370); daf-16(mgDf47)*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS495	CL6264	*uIs60*	*uIs60 [unc-119p::YFP + unc119p::sid-1]; eri-1(mg366)*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS817	This paper	*uIs60; artIs1*	*artIs1 [sur-5p::HPK-1::CFP + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::m-cherry)]; uIs60 [unc-119p::YFP + unc119p::sid-1]; eri-1(mg366)*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS488	This paper		*mxl-2(tm1516)*
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	AVS1000	This paper	*sqIs13; artEx65*	*artEx65 [unc-47p::hpk-1 + pCFJ90 (myo-2p::mCherry)] line 1; sqIs13 [lgg-1p::GFP::lgg-1 + odr-1p::RFP]; hlh-30(tm1978)*
Recombinant DNA reagent	pAVS1	This paper	plasmid	*rab-3p, hpk-1* cDNA, pPD95.75 backbone
Recombinant DNA reagent	pAVS2	This paper	plasmid	*dyp-7p, hpk-1* cDNA, pPD95.75 backbone

Recombinant DNA reagent	pAVS3	This paper	plasmid	*myo-3p, hpk-1* cDNA, pPD95.75 backbone
Recombinant DNA reagent	pAVS4	This paper	plasmid	*cat-2p, hpk-1* cDNA, pPD95.75 backbone
Recombinant DNA reagent	pAVS5	This paper	plasmid	*eat-4p, hpk-1* cDNA, pPD95.75 backbone
Recombinant DNA reagent	pAVS6	This paper	plasmid	*tph-1p, hpk-1* cDNA, pPD95.75 backbone
Recombinant DNA reagent	pAVS7	This paper	plasmid	*unc-47p, hpk-1* cDNA, pPD95.75 backbone
Recombinant DNA reagent	pAVS8	This paper	plasmid	*rab-3p, hpk-1(K176A)*, derived from pAVS1
Recombinant DNA reagent	pAVS9	This paper	plasmid	*rab-3p, hpk-1(D272N)*, derived from pAVS1
Recombinant DNA reagent	pPD95.75	Addgene	Plasmid #1494	
Sequence-based reagent	*atg-18F*	This paper	PCR primer	5'-ACTTGAGAAAACGGAAGGTGTT
Sequence-based reagent	*atg-18R*	This paper	PCR primer	5'-TGATAGCATCGAACCATCCA
Sequence-based reagent	*cdc-42F*	This paper	PCR primer	5'-AGCCATTCTGGCCGCTCTCG
Sequence-based reagent	*cdc-42R*	This paper	PCR primer	5'-GCAACCGCTTCTCGTTTGGC
Sequence-based reagent	*bec-1F*	This paper	PCR primer	5'-TTTTGTTGAAAGAGCTCAAGGA
Sequence-based reagent	*bec-1R*	This paper	PCR primer	5'-CAACCAGTGAATCAGCATGAA
Sequence-based reagent	*hpk-1F*	This paper	PCR primer	5'-AGTATGCACAGCTCCATCAC
Sequence-based reagent	*hpk-1R*	This paper	PCR primer	5'-CCATTATTGGGACCGGAACA
Sequence-based reagent	*xbp-1F*	This paper	PCR primer	5'-TGCCTTTGAATCAGCAGTGG
Sequence-based reagent	*xbp-1R*	This paper	PCR primer	5'-ACCGTCTGCTCCTTCCTCAATG
Sequence-based reagent	*gei-3F*	This paper	PCR primer	5'-AAGTCCGAGTCGCTGAACAC
Sequence-based reagent	*gei-3R*	This paper	PCR primer	5'- ATGCCTGAATGCTGACGCTC
Chemical compound, drug	isopropylthiogalactoside (IPTG)	GoldBio	I2481c-100	
Chemical compound, drug	TRIzol reagent	Life Technologies	Catalog: 15596026	
Chemical compound, drug	FUdR	Fisher/Alfa Aesar	CAS 50-91-9	
Chemical compound, drug	Aldicarb	Fluka analytical	# 33386	
Chemical compound, drug	serotonin (5-HT)	Sigma	H9623-100mg	
Commercial assay kit	QuikChange II XL Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit	Agilent	Catalog #200521	
Commercial assay kit	RNeasy Plus Mini Kit	Qiagen	Cat. No.:74034	
Commercial assay kit	cDNA synthesis kit	BioRad	#1708890	
Commercial assay kit	PerfeCTa SYBR green FastMix	Quantabio	# 101414-276	
Commercial assay kit	TruSeq Stranded mRNA	Illumina		
Software, algorithm	Prism	GraphPad	version 7	

Software, algorithm	AxioVision		v4.8.2.0	
Software, algorithm	FastQC	Andrews, 2010		
Software, algorithm	Trimmomatic	Bolger et al., 2014		
Software, algorithm	STAR 2.4.2a	Dobin et al., 2013		
Software, algorithm	featureCounts	Liao et al., 2014	version 1.4.6-p5	
Software, algorithm	RSEM	Li and Dewey, 2011		
Software, algorithm	R statistical software environment	Team, 2013	version 4.0.2	
Software, algorithm	DESeq2	Love et al., 2014		
Software, algorithm	GOSeq	Young et al., 2010		
Software, algorithm	MuDataSeurat	Hao et al., 2021		

C. elegans **strains and details**

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

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

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

764 study are listed in the Key Resources Table.

Generation of transgenic strains

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

was amplified and cloned under control of 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). In

brief, promoter sequences were subcloned from existing plasmids into the *Prab-3p::hpk-*

1 plasmid. To create kinase domain point mutations *K176A* and *D272N*, the *Prab-3p::hpk-*

1 plasmid was used and mutations were performed with a QuikChange II XL Site-Directed

Mutagenesis Kit (Agilent).

776 All the assembled plasmids were validated by sequencing prior to microinjection. These

777 constructs were injected at 5 ng/ml together with *myo-2p::mCherry* at 5 ng/ml as co-

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

779 **RNAi feeding**

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

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

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

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

784 5 mM isopropylthiogalactoside (IPTG) to induce dsRNA expression overnight at room

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

786 subsequent BLAST analysis to confirm their identity.

787 **RT-qPCR analysis**

788 For measurement of gene induction, animals were synchronized and grown at 20°C, then

789 isolated at the specified age. For time course of *hpk-1* mRNA upregulation, animals were

790 harvested at specified time points (D2, D4, D6, D8 and D10). For *hpk-1* mRNA regulation

791 at D11 of adulthood, animals were synchronized, grown at 20°C and harvested at D1 and

792 D11 of adulthood. For autophagy genes upregulation, animals were synchronized, grown

793 at 20°C and harvested at D1 of adulthood. After harvesting animals, RNA extraction was

794 followed by using TRIzol reagent (Life Technologies) followed by RNeasy Plus Mini Kit

795 (Qiagen). RNA concentration was measured using a Nanodrop, and RNA preparations

796 were reverse transcribed into cDNA using the BioRad cDNA synthesis kit (#1708890) as

797 per manufacturer's protocol. Quantitative real time PCR was performed using PerfeCTa

798 SYBR green FastMix (Quantabio) with three technical replicates for each condition.

Primer sets with at least one primer spanning the exon were used to amplify the gene of

interest. *cdc-42* mRNA levels were used for normalization. Fold change in mRNA levels

was determined using ΔΔ Ct method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001). Primer sequences

can be found in the Key Resources Table.

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 µM. 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 8--figure supplement*

2), 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 1F*, 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).

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.

Normalized single-cell aging time-course gene expression was obtained by

processing raw counts in the H5AD file from the Aging Atlas resource website

(http://c.elegans.aging.atlas.research.calicolabs.com/data). Briefly, the H5AD data from

SCANPy was read in and converted into a Seurat object with MuDataSeurat

(https://github.com/PMBio/MuDataSeurat) (Hao et al., 2021). SCTransform, as

implemented in Seurat, was used to normalize raw counts for library size differences,

yielding log-scale normalized expression values for each cell that were used for further

analysis.

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 (*Figure 2-*

-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. While single-cell RNA-Seq is a powerful approach already, well-documented

challenges remain with respect to consistency in cell captures and differentiating

biological noise from technical artifacts such as "drop-outs" from low numbers of average

reads per cell (Hwang et al., 2018, 2021; Ke et al., 2022; Nayak and Hasija, 2021)(refs).

We attempted to identify gene-gene correlations within cell clusters across individual ages

based on the *C. elegans* Aging Atlas dataset and found that inconsistency in the number

of cells per cluster across timepoints limits our ability to identify many robust and

significant associations- such variability is likely technical in nature, as it is not globally

consistent across cell clusters for a given timepoint. In most cases, when aggregated into

"young" and "old" sample groups, as was done for differential expression analysis in the

original Aging Atlas analysis (Roux et al., 2022) the groups represent comparable

numbers of total cells for most clusters. The trends we have observed at the level of

individual time-points indicate that the age-associated up-regulation of *hpk-1* does not

always occur at the same time point across cell clusters and is not necessarily tightly

linked to the upregulation of longevity-associated transcription factors in the same cluster

(*Appendix 1 Figure 1*). Thus, the age-associated upregulation of pro-longevity factors in

many cell clusters may not be due to a highly coordinated regulatory process, but rather

1027   a distributed response to accumulating local stress or damage. More work will be

1028   necessary to resolve if such late-life expression changes indeed contribute to

1029   maintenance of wild-type lifespan and healthspan, and the mechanism of the changes

1030   thereof (e.g., increased transcription, down-regulation of miRNA targeting, epigenetic

1031   changes) and the factors that mediate these changes.

1032
Appendix 1--Figure 1. *hpk-1* **and longevity-associated transcription factors are up-**
regulated in overlapping cell-clusters, but timing of the age-associated changes
varies between cell clusters.
Per-age expression summary for cell clusters with four or more differentially expressed
longevity-associated transcription factors, of the 48 cell clusters in which *hpk-1* is
upregulated in old vs young animals. Each sub-plot shows log-scale normalized scRNA-
Seq expression (mean and SEM) for the indicated cluster. Only genes which were
significantly differentially expressed in the cluster are shown (old vs young animals, up-
or down-regulated). Primary data for this analysis was generated in the *C. elegans* Aging
Atlas (Roux et al., 2022).

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Appendix 2. 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 glutamate

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, or the peer-review file. RNA-Seq data for *hpk-1(pk1393)*

and N2 is available from GEO, accession GSE220744. Data analysis scripts have been

deposited at: https://github.com/samuelsonlab-urmc/hpk1_manuscript_2023.

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1120   **Video 1. HPK-1 functions within the nervous system to regulates healthspan.**
1121   Video of wild-type, *hpk-1(pk1393)* null animals, and *hpk-1* null animals with neuronal
1122   expression of *hpk-1* (*rab-3p::HPK-1*). Videos were generated from consecutive images
1123   taken approximately every 15 minutes over the course of the animals lifespan using the
1124   Lifespan Machine method (Stroustrup et al., 2013).

Figure 2--Figure Supplement 1. During normal aging *hpk-1* is differentially expressed along with transcription factors in cell clusters corresponding to tissues 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 5 and 6* for dataset.

Figure 2--Figure Supplement 2. *Hpk-1 and all transcription factors differentially expressed in overlapping cell clusters within the C. elegans nervous system 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 5 and 6* for dataset.

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Figure 2--Figure Supplement 3. *hpk-1* **is broadly co-expressed with longevity-associated transcription factors 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).

Figure 2--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 5 and 6* for dataset.

Figure 5--Figure Supplement 1. 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$48 for E and n$\geq$30 for

1247   F). *T* test analysis was performed between transgenic and non-transgenic animals at every
1248   time point. See *Supplementary Files 12 and 13* for details.

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Figure 5--Figure Supplement 2. 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 12* for details.

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Figure 7--Figure Supplement 1. *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 12 and 13* for details and additional trials.

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Figure 7--Figure Supplement 2. ***Hpk-1* is expressed in GABAergic and serotonergic neurons.** Representative fluorescent micrographs of day 1 adult animals co-expressing *hpk-1p::mCherry* and *unc-47p::GFP* **(A-C)**; and *hpk-1p::GFP* and *tph-1p::mCherry* **(D-F)**.
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Figure 8--Figure Supplement 1. HLH-30 (TFEB), MXL-2 (Mlx), and DAF-16 (FoxO) are
required for HPK-1 mediated induction of autophagy.
(A) Quantification of puncta in seam cells of *unc-47p::hpk-1* and non-transgenic control
animals expressing *lgg-1p::GFP::LGG-1/Atg8* after either RNAi treatment with empty
vector (ev), *hsf-1*, *mxl-2, pha-4, hlh-30,* or *daf-16* (n≥28). *T* test analysis with ****P <
0.0001. **(B)** Quantification of puncta in seam cells of *unc-47p::hpk-1* and non-transgenic
control animals expressing *lgg-1p::GFP::LGG-1/Atg8* in otherwise wild-type or *hlh-*
30(tm1978) mutant animals at L4 (left) or day 1 of adulthood (right) (n≥57). *T* test analysis
with ****P < 0.0001. See *Supplementary File 15* for details and additional trials.
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Figure 8--Figure Supplement 2. *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.

Supplementary File 1. *Lazaro-Pena SF01 Lifespan assays.xlsx.* Trials, data, strains, genotypes, number of animals, and statistics for lifespan data presented in Figures 1a-d, f, 8b,f, and 8-S2.

Supplementary File 2. *Lazaro-Pena SF02 Body bends assays.xlsx.* Experimental data, strains, genotypes, number of animals and statistical analysis for data presented in Figures 1e, and 5c,e.

Supplementary File 3. *Lazaro-Pena SF03 Thermotolerance assays.xlsx.* Trials, data, analysis, strains, genotypes, number of animals, and statistics for thermotolerance data presented in Figures 1g, and 8a,e.

Supplementary File 4. *Lazaro-Pena SF04 RT-qPCR assays.xlsx.* Trials, data, analysis, strains, genotypes, RNAi conditions, and statistics for RT-qPCR expression analysis presented in Figures 2a,e, and 6l.

Supplementary File 5. *Lazaro-Pena SF05 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, 2-S1, 2-S2, and 2-S4.

Supplementary File 6. *Lazaro-Pena SF06 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, 2-S1, 2-S2, and 2-S4.

Supplementary File 7. *Lazaro-Pena SF07 Neurodegeneration assay.xlsx.* Experimental data, strains, genotypes, number of animals/cells, age and statistical analysis for data presented in Figures 3b-d.

Supplementary File 8. *Lazaro-Pena SF08 Aldicarb assay.xlsx.* Experimental data, strains, genotypes, number of animals, hours on aldicarb and statistical analysis for data presented in Figure 3e.

1343 **Supplementary File 9.** *Lazaro-Pena SF09 Serotonin assay.xlsx.* Experimental data,
1344 strains, genotypes, number of animals, minutes on 5-HT and statistical analysis for data
1345 presented in Figure 3f.
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Supplementary File 10. *Lazaro-Pena SF10 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.
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Supplementary File 11. *Lazaro-Pena SF11 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.
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1366 **Supplementary File 12.** *Lazaro-Pena SF12 Polyglutamine assays.xlsx.* Trials, data,
1367 analysis, strains, genotypes, number of animals, age and statistical analysis of
1368 polyglutamine foci formation data presented in Figures 5b,d,g,i,l, 7a,c, 5-S1c,d, -S6a,b,
1369 and 7 -S1a,c.
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1371 **Supplementary File 13.** *Lazaro-Pena SF13 Paralysis assays.xlsx.* Trials, data,
1372 analysis, strains, genotypes, number of animals, age and statistical analysis of data for
1373 paralysis onset in animals expressing *polyQ::YFP* presented in Figures 5h,j, 7b,d, 5-
1374 S1e,f, and 7-S1b,d.
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1376 **Supplementary File 14.** *Lazaro-Pena SF14 Induction of molecular chaperone.xlsx.*
1377 Trials, fluorescent quantification, analysis, strains, genotypes, number of animals, heat
1378 shock conditions, and statistical analysis of data presented in Figure 6c,e.
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1380 **Supplementary File 15.** *Lazaro-Pena SF15 Induction of autophagosomes.xlsx.*
1381 Trials, autophagosome quantification, analysis, strains, genotypes, number of cells, age
1382 and statistical analysis of data presented in Figures 6g,i,k, 8d,h,l,j, and 8-S1.
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