Hexokinase regulates Mondo-mediated longevity via the PPP and organellar dynamics

Raymond Laboy[1,2], Marjana Ndoci[1], Maximilian Vonolfen[1,2], Eugen Ballhysa[1,2], Shamsh

Tabrez Syed[1], Tim Droth[1], Klara Schilling[1,2], Anna Löhrke[1], Ilian Atanassov[1], Adam Antebi[1,2*]

1 Department of Molecular Genetics of Ageing, Max Planck Institute for Biology of Ageing,

Cologne, Germany

2 Cologne Excellence Cluster on Cellular Stress Responses in Aging-Associated Diseases

(CECAD), University of Cologne, Germany

*For correspondence: aantebi@age.mpg.de

Abstract

The transcriptional complex Mondo/Max-like, MML-1/MXL-2, acts as a convergent

transcriptional regulatory output of multiple longevity pathways in *Caenorhabditis elegans*.

These transcription factors coordinate nutrient sensing with carbohydrate and lipid metabolism

across the evolutionary spectrum. While most studies have focused on the downstream outputs,

little is known about the upstream inputs that regulate these transcription factors in a live

organism. Here, we found that knockdown of various glucose metabolic enzymes decreases

MML-1 localization in the nucleus and identified two hexokinase isozymes, *hxk-1* and *hxk-2,*

as the most vigorous regulators of MML-1 function. Upon hexokinase knockdown, MML-1

redistributes to mitochondria and lipid droplets (LD) and concomitantly, transcriptional targets

are downregulated and germline longevity is abolished. Further, we found that *hxk-1* regulates

MML-1 through mitochondrial β-oxidation, while *hxk-2* regulates MML-1 by modulating the

pentose phosphate pathway (PPP) and its coordinated association with lipid droplets. Similarly,

inhibition of the PPP rescues mammalian MondoA nuclear translocation and transcriptional

function upon starvation. These studies reveal how metabolic signals and organellar

communication regulate a key convergent metabolic transcription factor to promote longevity.

Key words: MondoA/ChREBP, MML-1, lipid droplet, metabolism, aging, transcription

Introduction

Aging is a complex multifactorial process associated with organismal homeostasis demise and an increased risk of age-related diseases. One key aspect of aging is the dysregulation of gene expression and metabolism (Fischer et al., 2022). Many transcription factors that regulate metabolic pathways have been shown to control lifespan in the evolutionary spectrum (Clancy et al., 2001; Green et al., 2021; Lapierre et al., 2013; Selman et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2008). Changes in the activity of specific transcription factors have been shown to impact gene expression patterns and alter metabolic processes, leading to a decline in cellular function and an increased risk of age-related diseases (Benhamed et al., 2012; Carroll et al., 2015; Denechaud et al., 2008; Du & Zheng, 2021; Tong et al., 2009). Thus, understanding the interplay between metabolism and transcriptional regulation is crucial for gaining insight into the mechanisms underlying aging and developing novel strategies for promoting healthy aging and reducing the risk of age-related diseases.

MondoA and the Carbohydrate Response Element Binding Protein (ChREBP) are paralogue transcription factors that work in heterodimeric complexes with Max-like protein X (Mlx) and have been identified as key regulators of glucose metabolism and energy homeostasis. These transcription factors recognize and bind hexanucleotide tandem sequences (CANNTG) in the promoter regions called Enhancer box (E-box) sequences (Massari & Murre, 2000) of various genes involved in glucose uptake, utilization, and storage (Billin et al., 2000; Cha-Molstad et al., 2009; Sans et al., 2006; Stoltzman et al., 2008; Yamashita et al., 2001). In addition to their role in glucose metabolism, MondoA/ChREBP have also been shown to play a role in regulating lipid metabolism and cellular stress response (Iizuka et al., 2006; Ishii et al., 2004; Ma et al., 2006). Studies have suggested that changes in MondoA/ChREBP activity with age may contribute to age-related metabolic dysfunction, leading to a decline in glucose tolerance and increased risk of type 2 diabetes and obesity (Ghasemi et al., 2015; Iizuka et al., 2006; Richards et al., 2017; Yamamoto-Imoto et al., 2022).

In *Caenorhabditis elegans,* the transcriptional complex formed by MML-1 (MondoA/ChREBP homolog) and MXL-2 (Mlx homolog) is part of an integrated helix-loop-helix (HLH) network required for lifespan extension in diverse longevity pathways (Johnson et al., 2014; Nakamura et al., 2016). However, it is still unknown how these transcription factors integrate multiple upstream signals to regulate lifespan. In this work, we describe how metabolic inputs regulate MML-1 subcellular localization and function. We found that HXK-1 and HXK-2 regulate MML-1 cellular distribution and are required for germline longevity through the regulation of mitochondrial β-oxidation and the pentose phosphate pathway (PPP),

respectively. Moreover, inhibition of MML-1 nuclear translocation results in the relocalization

of this transcription factor to mitochondria associated with lipid droplets (LD). This study

provides key insights into how glucose and lipid metabolism directly impact transcriptional

regulation and aging.

Results

Hexokinases are required for MML-1 subcellular localization and longevity

MondoA reportedly responds to glucose 6-phosphate (G6P) and other hexose

phosphate sugars in cultured cells by translocating to the nucleus and regulating the expression

of its downstream targets (Stoltzman et al., 2008, 2011). Nevertheless, little is known about the

regulation of MondoA in an organism-wide setting, and most subsequent work has focused on

the molecular mechanisms downstream of this transcription factor. Hence, we decided to

investigate how MML-1 is regulated by upstream glucose metabolism in *C. elegans*. To address

this, we performed a targeted RNA interference (RNAi)-based screen on genes encoding

enzymes involved in glucose metabolism. Overall, we found a preponderance of decreased

intestinal MML-1 nuclear localization when knocking down such genes (**Figure 1A-B,**

Supplementary Table S1). Knockdown of most of the enzymes involved in glycolysis as well

as the pyruvate dehydrogenase complex, which links glycolysis to the tricarboxylic acid (TCA)

cycle via acetyl-CoA, decreased accumulation of nuclear MML-1 (**Supplementary Table S1**).

Interestingly, whereas most enzymes in the TCA cycle also decreased nuclear MML-1,

inhibition of the oxoglutarate dehydrogenase complex (OGDC) subunits *ogdh-1* and *dld-1* and

the succinyl-CoA synthase (SCS) *suca-1* and *sucg-1* subunits increased MML-1 nuclear

localization. We also observed that knockdown of enzymes involved in the oxidative and

non-oxidative branches of the pentose phosphate pathway (PPP), phosphogluconate

dehydrogenase (PGDH) *T25B9.9* and transketolase (TKT) *tkt-1* genes, respectively, triggered

a strong increase in MML-1 nuclear accumulation (**Figure 1A-B**). Taken together, these data

suggest that overall changes in glucose metabolism regulate MML-1 and that this transcription

factor may sense the divergence of G6P to different branches of this network.

Our screen revealed that hexokinase knockdown had the most potent effect in

decreasing MML-1 nuclear localization. This enzyme is involved in the first step of glucose

metabolism, phosphorylating glucose to G6P, and is a critical mediator of cellular metabolism.

Among the three *C. elegans* hexokinase genes, *hxk-1* and *hxk-2* more strongly affected MML-1

nuclear localization in two independent MML-1::GFP reporter strains (**Figure 1B,**

Supplementary Figure 1A). To test whether the phosphotransferase activity of hexokinase is

responsible for regulating MML-1 nuclear localization, we used two drugs to inhibit
hexokinases pharmacologically. 3-Bromopyruvate (3-BrP) is an alkylating agent and HKII
inhibitor, and 2-deoxy-glucose (2-DG) is an analog of glucose phosphorylated to 2-DG6P
which cannot be further metabolized, thus inhibiting hexokinase function. Supplementation of
both drugs significantly decreased MML-1 nuclear localization compared to control
(**Supplementary Figure 1B-C**), indicating that hexokinase activity is driving MML-1 nuclear
translocation. We also tested the specificity of RNAi knockdown by using strains where the
three endogenous hexokinase loci were tagged with mKate2. We used these strains to evaluate
the protein levels by Western blot and found that each RNAi was specific to each isozyme
(**Supplementary Figure 1D-E**). As glycolysis is essential during development, we measured
the size (area and length) of worms fed with hexokinase RNAi egg-on. *hxk-1i* and *hxk-2i*
displayed no significant change in worm growth, while *hxk-3i* treated animals were somewhat
smaller (**Supplementary Figure 1F-G**). To determine if our observations were due to a change
in food intake, we counted pharyngeal pumping rate but found no significant difference
compared to the control (**Supplementary Figure 1H**), nor did we see an effect on worm
motility compared to control (**Supplementary Figure 1I**). Moreover, hexokinase knockdown
did not affect the steady-state levels of *mml-1* mRNA (**Supplementary Figure 1J**). Taken
together, these data indicate that there is no RNAi cross-reactivity among the hexokinase
isozymes and that the effects on MML-1 nuclear localization are not due to a decrease in food
consumption or developmental phenotype.

MML-1 works in a transcriptional complex with MXL-2, and previous studies have
demonstrated that MML-1 and MXL-2 are required for lifespan extension in multiple longevity
pathways, including germline-less *glp-1(e2141)* mutant (Nakamura et al., 2016). Hence, we
tested whether hexokinases influenced MML-1 subcellular localization in this longevity model.
As expected, MML-1 nuclear localization was increased in *glp-1(e2141)* as reported previously
(Nakamura et al., 2016), and upon *hxk-1* and *hxk-2* knockdown, MML-1 nuclear localization
was abolished in *glp-1(e2141)* mutants (**Figure 1C-D**). Changes in MML-1 nuclear
localization would be expected to modulate its transcriptional activity. To test this idea, we
next analyzed the expression of downstream targets reportedly linked to gonadal longevity
(Nakamura et al., 2016). We observed decreased expression of *mdl-1*, *lgg-2*, *swt-1*, and *fat-5*
under *hxk-1i* and *hxk-2i,* but not under *hxk-3i* (**Figure 1E, Supplementary Figure 1K**),
consistent with decreased MML-1 transcriptional activity. Since hexokinase knockdown
decreases MML-1 nuclear localization in the *glp-1(e2141)* longevity model, we reasoned that
the lifespan might also be abolished. Accordingly, *hxk-1i* and *hxk-2i* significantly decreased

glp-1(e2141) but did not affect wildtype lifespan (**Figure 1F**). Taken together, these data

indicate that hexokinases are upstream regulators of MML-1 nuclear localization and

transcriptional function in germline-mediated longevity.

Next, we tested whether the effect of hexokinase knockdown on MML-1 nuclear

localization and longevity was shared by other longevity pathways. On the one hand, we

observed that in *isp-1(qm150)* mutants, a model for mitochondrial longevity, *hxk-1* and *hxk-2*

knockdown decreased MML-1 nuclear localization and abolished lifespan extension (**Figure**

1G-H). On the other hand, while *mml-1* was required for the insulin signaling *daf-2(e1370)*

mutant longevity, *hxk-1* and *hxk-2* knockdown did not alter MML-1 nuclear localization nor

suppress the lifespan in this background (**Supplementary Figure 1L-M**). Further, we found

that MML-1 nuclear localization was increased in *raga-1(ok701)* mutants, a model for

mTORC1 longevity, and *mml-1* was required for lifespan extension (**Supplementary Figure**

1N-O). However, *hxk-1* and *hxk-2* knockdown did not suppress *raga-1(ok701)* longevity

(**Supplementary Figure 1P**). Collectively, these data suggest that while MML-1 acts as a

convergent factor in these four longevity pathways, it only requires HXK-1 and HXK-2 for

germline and mitochondrial longevity, but not for insulin and mTOR longevity.

C. elegans hexokinases are differentially expressed

Mammals harbor four hexokinases that differ in tissue expression, subcellular

localization, and affinity to glucose and G6P. However, knowledge of the nematode's isozymes

is limited. We used the hexokinase tagged with mKate2 strains to investigate the tissue-specific

expression and subcellular localization of the different isozymes by confocal microscopy. We

found that HXK-1 was expressed in the cytosol of neurons, pharynx, gonadal sheath, and

coelomocytes (**Figure 2A**). HXK-2 had a reticular expression pattern in neurons, muscle,

intestine, and hypodermis (**Figure 2B**). HXK-3 signal was diffused and highly expressed in

the pharynx, muscle, hypodermis, and intestine (**Supplementary Figure 2A**).

Human HKI and HKII have been shown to bind reversibly to the mitochondria (Sui &

Wilson, 1997). Binding depends on an intrinsic hydrophobic N-terminal sequence critical for

inserting into the outer mitochondrial membrane (Pastorino et al., 2002). Due to the reticular

expression pattern, HXK-2 was a plausible candidate to be mitochondrially localized. To

corroborate this idea, we crossed the HXK-2::mKate2 strain with a mitochondrial reporter that

expresses GFP with a mitochondrial targeting sequence under the body wall muscle promoter

myo-3. Indeed, we observed that full-length HXK-2 strongly co-localized with mitochondria

(**Figure 2C**). We also generated an HXK-2 mutant that lacks the first ten amino acids after the

initiator methionine (d10 HXK-2) and found that mitochondrial localization was abolished

entirely (**Figure 2C**). In summary, we found that hexokinases are differentially expressed in

C. elegans and identified HXK-2 as the worm mitochondrial hexokinase.

Hexokinase knockdown increases MML-1 mitochondrial localization

Since we observed that *mml-1* mRNA levels were unaffected by *hxk* knockdown and

saw a decrease in MML-1 nuclear localization upon hexokinase knockdown, we wondered

whether MML-1 might re-localize to another subcellular compartment. First, we crossed the

MML-1::GFP reporter strain with two compartmental markers and examined colocalization by

confocal microscopy. We looked at the lysosome/endosome reporter strain LMP-1::mKate2

but saw no evident colocalization in intestinal cells upon *hxk-2* knockdown or control

conditions (**Supplementary Figure 2B-C**). We had previously shown that MML-1 localizes

with mitochondria in the hypodermis (Nakamura et al., 2016); however, mitochondrial

subcellular localization in other tissues had not been examined. Hence, we crossed the

MML-1::GFP strain with the mitochondrial reporter TOMM-20::mCherry under the intestinal

promoter *ges-1p* and confirmed that MML-1 localized with mitochondria in the intestine

(**Figure 2D-E**). Under normal conditions, around 60-80% of the total MML-1 is nuclear, and

15% co-localizes with mitochondria. Interestingly, MML-1 mitochondrial localization was

increased to ~62% of total MML-1 upon *hxk-2i* (**Figure 2F**). Taken together, our data indicate

that upon *hxk-2* knockdown, MML-1 is excluded from the nucleus and re-localizes to a subset

population of mitochondria.

Inhibition of mitochondrial β-oxidation rescues MML-1 nuclear localization under hxk-1i

Many genes that regulate MML-1 localization are involved in mitochondrial

metabolism, such as OGDC and SCS, and inhibiting these complexes could activate stress

response pathways. Hence, we assessed whether MML-1 nuclear localization was associated

with the activation of mitochondrial stress response and oxidative stress. First, we observed

increased expression of *hsp-6::GFP*, a reporter for mitochondrial stress, upon knockdown of

mitochondrial components *ogdh-1*, *sucl-1*, and *sucl-2* as well as in control worms treated with

antimycin A (AA), a complex III inhibitor (**Supplementary Figure 2D**). However, inducing

mitochondrial stress with AA was not sufficient to affect MML-1 nuclear localization under

control conditions and *hxk-2* knockdown (**Supplementary Figure 2E**). Next, we wanted to

test whether an increase in oxidative stress affects MML-1 nuclear localization. We exposed

worms to the ROS-generating compound paraquat and observed induction of the oxidative

reporter *gst-4p::*GFP (**Supplementary Figure 2F**); however, we did not see any effect on

MML-1 nuclear localization at the concentrations tested (**Supplementary Figure 2G**). Taken

together, these data indicate that MML-1 regulation by glucose metabolism genes is

independent of mitochondrial and oxidative stress.

Hexokinase downregulation might be expected to cause a reduction in the reliance on

glycolysis and an increase in fatty acid metabolism as fuel for cellular maintenance (**Figure**

2G). Mitochondrial β-oxidation is an important pathway that generates acetyl-CoA for the

TCA cycle through the catabolism of fatty acids to produce reductants and energy. Hence, we

sought to investigate whether decreasing fatty acid oxidation could affect MML-1 nuclear

localization upon hexokinase knockdown. First, we measured the neutral lipid content by

feeding the worms with the labeled fatty acid C1-BODIPY-C12 and found increased total lipid

storage under hexokinase knockdown in the wildtype and *glp-1(e2141)* backgrounds

(**Supplementary Figure 2H**). Next, we measured the oxygen consumption rate (OCR) upon

hexokinase knockdown under basal conditions and with etomoxir supplementation, a

mitochondrial β-oxidation inhibitor that acts on the carnitine palmitoyltransferase (CPT).

Inhibition of the CPT decreases acyl-CoA import to mitochondria and changes in OCR are a

correlative measure of mitochondrial β-oxidation of fatty acids (Ramachandran et al., 2019).

We found no difference in basal OCR under *hxk-1*, *hxk-2*, and *mml-1* knockdown in the

wildtype background (**Figure 2H**). *glp-1(e2141)* animals showed decreased basal OCR

compared to wildtype, whereas *hxk-1* and *mml-1* knockdown significantly increased the basal

OCR compared to *glp-1(e2141)* (**Figure 2H**). Interestingly, we saw a greater percentage of

OCR reduction upon adding etomoxir under *hxk-1* knockdown in wildtype and under *hxk-1*,

hxk-2, and *mml-1* knockdown in *glp-1(e2141)* (**Figure 2I**), indicating higher mitochondrial

β-oxidation levels. We confirmed this result using the transcriptional reporter *acs-2p*::GFP, a

mitochondrial acyl-CoA synthase that is induced and required for fatty acid β-oxidation in *C.*

elegans (Van Gilst et al., 2005), and found increased expression upon *hxk-1* and *hxk-2*

knockdown (**Supplementary Figure 2I**).

We next wondered whether this increase in fatty acid oxidation was responsible for

decreased MML-1 nuclear localization under hexokinase knockdown. First, we performed a

double knockdown of *hxk-1* or *hxk-2* combined with *acs-2*. We found that MML-1 nuclear

localization was rescued upon *acs-2i* under *hxk-1* knockdown (**Figure 2J**). Interestingly, *acs-2i*

did not rescue MML-1 nuclear localization under *hxk-2* knockdown. We also

pharmacologically inhibited fatty acid oxidation by supplementing etomoxir and again saw the
rescue of MML-1 nuclear localization under *hxk-1* knockdown but no effect upon *hxk-2*
knockdown (**Figure 2K**). These data suggest that HXK-1 normally promotes MML-1 nuclear
localization by decreasing mitochondrial β-oxidation and reveal that the two hexokinases might
regulate MML-1 nuclear localization through somewhat independent pathways.
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hxk-2 regulates MML-1 function through increased PPP
G6P can be diverted as a substrate for metabolic pathways other than glycolysis. Thus,
we wanted to test whether MML-1 could sense other branches of glucose metabolism. From
our RNAi screen, we observed increased MML-1 nuclear localization upon knockdown of two
enzymes from the PPP, *T25B9.9* and *tkt-1* (**Figure 1A-B**). The PPP is a cytosolic metabolic
pathway involved in the interconversion of 3 to 7-carbon sugars that generate precursors for
the biosynthesis of lipids, amino acids, and nucleotides (**Figure 3A**). It also maintains redox
homeostasis through NADPH production. To further address these findings, we tested the
effect of pharmacological inhibition PPP on MML-1 nuclear localization using
6-aminonicotinamide (6-AN), which is a competitive inhibitor of the G6P dehydrogenase
(G6DH) and phosphogluconate dehydrogenase (6PGD). These two enzymes generate NADPH
in the PPP. In agreement with our previous results, we observed increased MML-1 nuclear
localization after supplementation of 1 mM of 6-AN (**Figure 3B**). Moreover, we found that
hxk-2i, but not *hxk-1i*, significantly increased the NADPH levels (**Figure 3C**). Additionally,
we found that *hxk-2i* had increased TKT-1 enzymatic activity compared to the control (**Figure
3D**). These data suggest that inhibition of the mitochondrial hexokinase enhances the PPP.
Next, we sought to test the epistatic interaction of hexokinase and PPP knockdown on
MML-1 nuclear localization. For these experiments, we performed double RNAi of *hxk-1* and
hxk-2 in combination with the 6PGD *T25B9.9* and transketolase *tkt-1*. Interestingly, knocking
down these enzymes rescued MML-1 nuclear localization under *hxk-2i* (**Figure 3E-F**) but did
not rescue the localization under *hxk-1i* (**Supplementary Figure 3A**). To evaluate MML-1
function, we measured its transcriptional readouts and found that knocking down the PPP under
hxk-2i rescued the expression of *lgg-2*, *mdl-1*, *swt-1*, and *fat-5* (**Figure 3G, Supplementary
Figure 3B-D**); however, it had no effect under *hxk-1i* (**Supplementary Figure 3E-H**).
Moreover, we observed lower levels of G6P upon double knockdown of hexokinases with
T25B9.9 and *tkt-1* compared to control (**Figure 3H, Supplementary Figure 3I**). Taken
together, these data suggest that the PPP activity is increased upon knockdown of the

mitochondrial hexokinase HXK-2, and inhibiting the PPP is sufficient to rescue MML-1

function independent of G6P levels.

Finally, we asked whether reducing the PPP could impact *glp-1(e2141)* lifespan upon

hxk-2 knockdown. Inhibition of the PPP has been reported to extend the lifespan in *C. elegans*

by activating the mitochondrial UPR^{mt} (Bennett et al., 2017). As reported previously, we found

a significant lifespan extension upon *tkt-1* knockdown in wildtype (**Figure 3I**). Moreover,

knockdown of the PPP in the *glp-1(e2141)* background had no additive effect on longevity,

suggesting that *glp-1* and *tkt-1i* may share common mechanisms in extending lifespan.

Consistent with our data, knockdown of *T25B9.9* and *tkt-1* rescued *glp-1(e2141)* longevity

upon *hxk-2i* (**Figure 3I, Supplementary Figure 3J**). Collectively, these data indicate that an

increase in the PPP under *hxk-2* knockdown suppresses MML-1 function, and reducing PPP

restores longer life, placing PPP epistatically downstream of *hxk-2*.

MML-1 interactome uncovers potential regulators of its function and localization

Given the mitochondrial localization of MML-1 and possibly other organelles, we

decided to identify potential MML-1 binding partners to better understand its subcellular

distribution. We used CRISPR/Cas9 to tag the endogenous MML-1 locus with a 3xFLAG tag.

MML-1::3xFLAG was immunoprecipitated from whole-worm lysates and potential interactors

were identified by mass spectrometry(**Supplementary Table S3**). We detected ca.1600 to

2000 different proteins from three biological replicates and observed that the biological

replicates clustered together (**Supplementary Figure 4A-B**). We detected several proteins in

the immunoprecipitation (IP), including MXL-2, an established MML-1 binding partner

(Pickett et al., 2007), and vitellogenins VIT-1, VIT-3, and VIT-4, which are highly abundant

yolk proteins (**Figure 4A**). Analysis of the top 50 co-enriched candidates in MML-1 IPs

revealed enrichment for nuclear and mitochondrial proteins (**Supplementary Figure 4C**). We

also found multiple enriched proteins from different organelles, including lipid droplets (LD).

Mitochondria and LD dynamically interact in highly active metabolic tissues, and it has

been shown that mitochondria associated with LD have specific metabolic behavior compared

to cytosolic mitochondria (*e.g.*, different dynamics, motility, and capacity to burn

carbohydrates and lipids) (Gordaliza-Alaguero et al., 2019; Rambold et al., 2015). LD are

organelles involved in multiple roles serving as nutrient reservoirs and participating in

signaling pathways, and their biogenesis or degradation is tightly coupled to carbohydrate

metabolism (**Figure 4B**). Interestingly, PLIN-1, one of the most abundant LD proteins, was

co-enriched in MML-1 IP (**Figure 4A**). Hence, we wanted to test whether MML-1 localized to

these organelles. First, we used LipiBlue, a dye to specifically visualize LD *in vivo* (Tatenaka et al., 2019), and found that all LipiBlue stained structures were positive with the LD resident proteins DHS-3::GFP and PLIN-1::mCherry (**Supplementary Figure 4D-F**), indicating that this dye could be used as a reliable method for visualization of LD in *C. elegans*.

Next, we examined LipiBlue-stained animals co-expressing MML-1::GFP and TOMM-20::mCherry and saw that MML-1 localized with LipiBlue-positive structures (**Figure 4C**). Interestingly, we observed that MML-1 appeared localized to mitochondria associated with LD (**Figure 4C-D**). Moreover, this colocalization was significantly increased upon *hxk-2* knockdown (**Figure 4E**). Inhibition of transaldolase and enzymes from the PPP have been shown to activate a fasting-like response by increasing lipolysis and enhancing the breakdown of LD (Bennett et al., 2017), including higher expression of the adipose triglyceride lipase ATGL-1 (**Supplementary Figure 4G**). Therefore, we wondered whether the LD size correlates with MML-1 nuclear localization. We knocked down *hxk-2* and *tkt-1* to decrease and increase MML-1 nuclear localization, respectively. We observed a significant reduction in diameter and the total amount of LDs upon knockdown of *tkt-1*, while *hxk-2i* did not have an effect (**Figure 4F, Supplementary Figure 4H).** Double knockdown of *hxk-2* and *tkt-1*, however, resulted in smaller and fewer LDs than the control. Collectively, these data suggest that MML-1 can localize with a specific subpopulation of mitochondria associated with LD and that inhibition of the PPP can rescue MML-1 nuclear localization upon *hxk-2i* correlated with decreasing LD size.

To test whether LDs directly regulated MML-1 localization, we knocked down *dgat-2* and *atgl-1*, two enzymes involved in LD metabolism. DGAT-2 is a diacylglycerol (DAG) transferase that promotes LD droplet expansion, while ATGL-1 is a rate-limiting enzyme in LD breakdown (**Figure 4B**). First, we measured the neutral lipid composition and found that *atgl-1i* increased lipid levels while *dgat-2i* worms did not show significant changes under *ad libitum* conditions (**Supplementary Figure 4I**). Next, we tested MML-1 nuclear localization and observed that *dgat-2i* increased MML-1 nuclear localization while *atgl-1i* resulted in decreased levels of nuclear MML-1 (**Figure 4G**). Finally, we did an epistatic analysis of LD metabolism and the PPP and found that MML-1 nuclear localization in *atgl-1i* was rescued upon *tkt-1* knockdown (**Figure 4H**), thus, suggesting that LD metabolism is upstream or parallel to the PPP in MML-1 regulation.

The PPP regulates MondoA function in mammalian cells

We next asked whether the PPP regulation of MML-1 we observed in *C. elegans* was

conserved in mammals. Specifically, we wanted to determine whether inhibition of the PPP is

sufficient to induce MondoA translocation to the nucleus under contrasting conditions where

MondoA is mostly cytosolic (starvation media) or split between the nucleus and cytoplasm

(high-glucose growing media). To test this, we cultured the HEK293T cells in high-glucose

media with 6-AN and subsequently transferred the cells to either high-glucose media or

starvation media (**Supplementary Figure 5A**). First, we observed decreased NADPH/NADP+

ratio in cells treated with 6-AN and under starvation conditions (**Supplementary Figure 5B**).

Next, we found that in both conditions, MondoA nuclear localization was increased upon

inhibition of the PPP (**Figure 5A-B**), while there was no evident regulation of MondoA at the

transcript level (**Figure 5C**). Consistent with MondoA increased nuclear localization, we

observed increased expression of two of the best-described downstream targets of MondoA,

TXNIP and *ARRDC4* (**Figure 5D, Supplementary Figure 5C**). These findings indicate that

the PPP also regulates mammalian MondoA localization and transcriptional function.

Discussion

Nutrient sensing pathways and metabolism play a central role in modulating aging by

establishing metabolic states of resilience and survival. Although much work has focused on

identifying mediators of these processes, we still know little about how organisms coordinate

feedback loops of metabolic pathways and transcriptional responses to establish such states.

Here, we present novel mechanisms of carbohydrate and lipid metabolism regulating the

transcription factor MML-1/Mondo. We observed that MML-1 senses multiple steps of glucose

metabolism and found that hexokinases regulate MML-1 function through different

mechanisms in *C. elegans*. On the one hand, we found that under *hxk-2* knockdown, MML-1

re-localizes to mitochondria and LD, abolishing the longevity of germline-less worms and

mutants with reduced mitochondrial function. Moreover, we could rescue MML-1 function by

decreasing the PPP independent of the G6P levels. On the other hand, we found that *hxk-1*

knockdown decreased MML-1 function by upregulating mitochondrial β-oxidation. Thus, we

found two metabolic branches that converge on MML-1 to trigger a transcriptional response

and regulate longevity. We note that while MML-1 is required in four different longevity

models, namely *glp-1,isp-1, daf-2,* and *raga-1, hxk-1* and *hxk-2* were required only for *glp-1*

and *isp-1* mediated longevity. Presumably, the signal transduction wiring is different in *raga-1*

and *daf-2*, or their inputs into MML-1 work downstream or in parallel to the hexokinases.

MondoA and ChREBP transcription factors have well-established central roles in
glucose metabolism (Ma et al., 2006; Sans et al., 2006; Stoltzman et al., 2008; Yamashita et
al., 2001), but whether and how glucose metabolic circuits affect Mondo regulation in a whole
animal model is little explored. By performing a systematic RNAi-based targeted screen of
enzymes involved in glucose anabolism and catabolism, we found that MML-1 senses multiple
steps of glucose metabolism in the worm. Among the genes tested, we found MML-1 nuclear
localization to be broadly sensitive to the downregulation of glycolytic enzymes, and the
knockdown of hexokinase had the most profound effect. Hexokinase carries out the first step
in glucose metabolism, the phosphorylation of glucose to form G6P, which can be shunted to
multiple metabolic pathways, including glycolysis, the PPP, glycogenesis, and trehalose
production. Our findings are consistent with previous work in cultured cells showing that
MondoA localization is regulated by HKII, which is thought to stimulate nuclear localization
via the production of G6P (Sans et al., 2006). Additionally, MondoA senses other
phosphorylated hexoses, including allose and 3-*O*-methylglucose (Stoltzman et al., 2011).

Consistent with our genetic findings above, pharmacological inhibition of glycolysis
by supplementation with 3-BrP and 2-DG suppressed MML-1 nuclear localization. In contrast
to MML-1, MondoA has been shown to accumulate in the nucleus upon 2-DG in rat L6 cells
(Stoltzman et al., 2008). A possible explanation for this difference is that our treatment
represents a chronic exposure to 2-DG from development until adulthood, while the
experiments in cells may reflect an acute response. Overall, 2-DG has been used as a glycolytic
inhibitor because it can be phosphorylated by hexokinase to 2-DG 6-phosphate; however, it
cannot be further metabolized in glycolysis. Further evidence shows that 2-DG not only
functions as a catabolic inhibitor but can also be directed to the PPP or other pathways (Chi et
al., 1987; Ralser et al., 2008). Moreover, low concentrations of 2-DG have been shown to
extend lifespan by restricting glucose metabolism, while higher concentrations of 2-DG and
glucose shortened the lifespan in worms (Schulz et al., 2007, Lee et al., 2009), suggesting a
threshold for the benefits of glucose metabolism inhibition in lifespan.

Additionally, we found an important link between glycolysis and pyruvate metabolism
regulating MML-1 localization. Under aerobic conditions, pyruvate is imported to the
mitochondria and converted to acetyl-CoA to generate ATP and other reducing molecules. We
found that downregulation of the mitochondrial pyruvate carrier *mpc-1* and the pyruvate
dehydrogenase complex (**Supplementary Table S1**) also decreased MML-1 nuclear
localization and function. Further, we found MPC-1 enriched in the MML-1 interactome.

Interestingly, loss of *MPC1* in yeast has been shown to accumulate pyruvate, lower TCA cycle
intermediates, and reduce chronological aging (Bricker et al., 2012; Orlandi et al., 2014). *MPC1*
similarly regulates the disposition of glycolytic and TCA intermediates in flies and mammals
(Bricker et al., 2012). Pyruvate can also enter the TCA cycle through pyruvate carboxylase
PYC-1, which converts pyruvate to oxaloacetate. However, knockdown of *pyc-1* did not affect
MML-1 localization (**Supplementary Table S1**), suggesting that MML-1 may sense pyruvate
metabolism mainly through oxidative decarboxylation of acetyl-CoA.
We also found that MML-1 responds strongly to alterations in the TCA cycle. The TCA
cycle allows organisms to oxidize carbohydrates, fatty acids, and amino acids to provide energy
and intermediates for the biosynthesis of macromolecules. Interestingly, the knockdown of two
subunits of the OGDC, *ogdh-1* and *dld-1*, increased MML-1 nuclear localization. The OGDC
is a rate-limiting enzyme within the mitochondrial TCA cycle that decarboxylates
2-oxoglutarate to succinyl-CoA. It has been shown previously that supplementation of
2-oxoglutarate and knockdown of *ogdh-1* extends lifespan through inhibition of ATP synthase,
decreasing oxygen consumption, and increasing autophagy in an mTOR-dependent manner
(Chin et al., 2014). Whether MML-1 is required for this lifespan extension has yet to be
explored. Conceivably, the mitochondrial localization of MML-1 could help sense
2-oxoglutarate levels, and the accumulation of this metabolite could signal translocation to the
nucleus. Moreover, glutamine can be converted to glutamate and subsequently to
2-oxoglutarate during glutaminolysis and represents an important mechanism to replenish the
TCA cycle under different metabolic challenges. In this case, OGDC plays a pivotal role in
channeling anaplerotic reactions into the TCA cycle from glutamine and glutamate and other
amino acids that can ultimately be converted to 2-oxoglutarate (*i.e.*, histidine, proline, and
arginine) (Owen et al., 2002). Interestingly, increased glutamine-dependent anaplerosis has
been shown to regulate MondoA activity in BxPC-3 cells (Kaadige et al., 2009), though the
molecular mechanism remains unclear. Whether glutamine, glutamate supplementation, or
knockdown of glutamate dehydrogenase can regulate MML-1 nuclear localization remains to
be determined.
On the other hand, the TCA cycle can operate in reverse to restore TCA intermediate
levels (Dalziel & Londesborough, 1968). Increased levels of 2-oxoglutarate due to inhibition
of OGDC, or glutamine anaplerosis, can undergo reductive carboxylation by isocitrate
dehydrogenase to produce isocitrate. After that, aconitase can convert isocitrate to citrate,
which can be exported out of the mitochondria for *de novo* lipogenesis. MML-1 could help
orchestrate the metabolic rewiring of the TCA cycle with the fatty acid metabolism

transcriptional response. Notably, ChREBP has been shown to regulate many lipogenic
enzymes, including acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC), the fatty acid synthase (FAS), and
ATP-citrate lyase (ACLY) (Ishii et al., 2004; Postic et al., 2007). Accordingly, the MML-1
transcriptome shows clear regulation of several fatty acid metabolic enzymes (Nakamura et al.,
2016).

We observed that PPP pathway enzymes strongly influenced MML-1 nuclear
localization and function. The PPP is a cytosolic pathway involved in the interconversion of
sugars to generate precursors for the biosynthesis of lipids, amino acids, and nucleotides and
maintain redox homeostasis. We found that knockdown of PPP components, PGDH *T25B9.9*
and transketolase *tkt-1*, enhanced MML-1 nuclear localization, increased the transcription of
MML-1 target genes, and restored longevity to *glp-1(e2141)* animals under *hxk-2i*. The PPP is
the primary source of NADPH, which plays a vital role in many cellular processes, including
fatty acid, nucleotide, neurotransmitter, and cholesterol metabolism, and works as an essential
reducing agent (Ju et al., 2020). We found that pharmacological inhibition with 6-AN of the
two enzymes producing NADPH in the PPP increased MML-1 nuclear localization. We also
found increased levels of NADPH and lower levels of G6P under *hxk-2* knockdown.
Importantly, these observations suggest that residual G6P may be diverted to the PPP under
low mitochondrial hexokinase and further imply that metabolites other than G6P could regulate
MML-1 nuclear localization. What this other metabolite could be remains elusive, but a
simplifying notion is that MML-1 nuclear localization is promoted by intermediates in the
glycolysis or the PPP. Blocking entry into the PPP or TCA might be expected to accumulate
such metabolites and promote Mondo nuclear localization. Conversely, depletion of these
metabolites would disrupt Mondo nuclear localization and activity.

Another possibility is that Mondo organellar distribution is regulated at another scale.
Notably, a major output of the PPP and NADPH metabolism is the production of lipids.
Interestingly, we found that under *tkt-1* knockdown, fat levels decreased, and LDs were smaller
in diameter, suggesting that a reduction in LDs could signal MML-1 to translocate to the
nucleus. Consistently, transaldolase *tald-1* knockdown has been shown to increase lifespan and
decrease intestinal fat levels in the worm through increased activity of adipose triglyceride
lipase ATGL-1 (Bennett et al., 2017). This enzyme is involved in the metabolism of LD under
starvation to mobilize stored fats for energy production (Lee et al., 2014).

Interestingly, we found that although both HXK-1 and HXK-2 positively regulate
MML-1 function, they do so through different mechanisms **(Figure 5E)**. We observed that
inhibiting mitochondrial fatty acid β-oxidation is sufficient to rescue MML-1 nuclear

localization under *hxk-1* knockdown, but not *hxk-2* knockdown. Conversely, decreasing the

PPP rescued MML-1 localization under *hxk-2* knockdown independent of the G6P levels, but

not *hxk-1* knockdown. How both hexokinases activate different metabolic pathways to regulate

MML-1 remains unknown and could work at multiple levels.

First, there is evidence that differences in the subcellular location of hexokinases may

result in the compartmentalization of glucose metabolism, with the channeling of G6P to

different pathways (John et al., 2011; Wilson, 2003). Mitochondrial hexokinase has preferential

access to ATP generated in the mitochondria and provides efficient glycolysis coupling with

further pyruvate oxidation by the TCA cycle and oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS).

Furthermore, mammalian HKI and HKII have a dynamic localization, shuttling between the

mitochondrial outer membrane and the cytoplasm (John et al., 2011). Both mammalian

hexokinases have been reported to reversibly bind to mitochondria through their N-terminal

sequence (Roberts et al., 2014) and via their interaction with VDAC1 (Lindén et al., 1982).

This dual localization allows the cell to adapt to different metabolic requirements and maintain

energetic balance. Under high levels of G6P, HKII shuttles from the mitochondria to the

cytoplasm, causing cells to use glycogen as an energy source (John et al., 2011). The

subcellular localization also plays other significant roles in different signaling pathways. For

example, mitochondria-bound hexokinase has anti-apoptotic effects (Gottlob et al., 2001), and

increased N-acetylglucosamine upon pathogen exposure releases hexokinase from the

mitochondria and activates innate immune responses (Wolf et al., 2016). Here we found that

C. elegans HXK-2 is associated with mitochondria and that this localization is abolished by

deleting the first ten amino acids. However, we saw no effect upon *vdac-1* knockdown nor

dynamic localization of HXK-2 between mitochondria and cytosol (data not shown). Taken

together, these observations suggest that the nematode has dedicated mitochondrial (HXK-2)

and cytosolic (HXK-1 and HXK-3) hexokinases.

We also found differences in the tissue expression of the different hexokinase isozymes

of the nematode: HXK-1 was mainly found in the pharynx, neurons, gonadal sheath, and

coelomocytes, while HXK-2 was present in the hypodermis, body wall muscle, and intestine.

Consistently, RNAseq data from different tissues in *C. elegans* shows that *hxk-2* is the main

isozyme in the body wall muscle and intestine (Hutter & Suh, 2016). At the same time, *hxk-1*

is the main one expressed in pharyngeal muscle and neurons. This differential distribution

could explain how *hxk-1* and *hxk-2* differentially regulate MML-1 through β-oxidation and

PPP pathways. Notably, we scored MML-1 nuclear localization in the intestine in our

experiments, where *hxk-2* but not *hxk-1* is expressed. In the future, it will be important to see
whether *hxk-1* cell autonomously impacts *mml-1* nuclear localization within the same tissue,
such as the pharynx.

In any case, our observation that HXK-1 affects intestinal MML-1 nuclear localization
suggests cell non-autonomous signaling. What might be the nature of such cell non-
autonomous signaling? One possibility is the sterol hormone signaling pathway, which acts in
somatic reproductive tissue to regulate *glp-1(e2141)* longevity. Decreasing the activity of the
nuclear hormone receptor DAF-12, or its ligands dafachronic acids, abolishes the longevity of
germline-less worms (Gerisch et al., 2001; Yamawaki et al., 2010). Interestingly, carbohydrate
metabolism directly impacts the production of dafachronic acids as NADPH is required for the
last step of dafachronic acid biosynthesis by DAF-9 (Motola et al., 2006; Penkov et al., 2015).
Furthermore, DAF-9 is expressed in the somatic gonad (spermatheca) and XXX neurons in
adult animals (Gerisch & Antebi, 2004). Conceivably, hexokinase downregulation could affect
the production of NADPH and dafachronic acids regulating DAF-12 activity, thereby affecting
MML-1 function. It will be interesting to see whether dafachronic acid supplementation can
rescue MML-1 nuclear localization upon *hxk-1i* or *hxk-2i*.

The nervous system also plays a crucial role in integrating metabolic status and
systemic responses in a cell non-autonomous manner (Mutlu et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019).
Inhibition of the mTOR signaling pathway has been shown to extend lifespan across the
evolutionary spectrum (Kennedy & Lamming, 2016), and recent work has shown that restoring
*raga-1/*RagA or *rsks-1/*S6K in the nervous system is enough to entirely suppress the lifespan
extension conferred by mutation of these mTOR signaling factors (Zhang et al., 2019). In cells,
HKII has been shown to shuttle from the mitochondria and directly interact with mTOR under
glucose deprivation and inhibit its function resulting in an induction of autophagy (Roberts et
al., 2014). This interaction is dependent on the mTOR signaling (TOS) motif present in HKII
required for binding to Raptor. Interestingly, this TOS motif (KDIDI) is conserved in the
nematode HXK-1; however, HXK-2 and HXK-3 lack this sequence. Our finding that *raga-1*
mutants are epistatic to hexokinase knockdown for life span extension is consistent with a role
of mTOR signaling downstream of hexokinase. It would be interesting to study whether the
interaction between hexokinase and mTOR is conserved in *C. elegans* and whether decreasing
the main neuronal hexokinase (HXK-1) would result in mTOR-dependent inhibition of MML-
1.

Proteins tend to co-localize near their substrates to maximize specificity and regulate
signaling pathways. In particular, MondoA was first reported to be associated with the

mitochondria outer membrane in primary human SkMC cells through protein-protein
interaction (Sans et al., 2006). We have previously shown that this localization is conserved in
C. elegans (Nakamura et al., 2016). Mitochondria-bound MondoA has been proposed to have
preferential access to newly synthesized G6P from HKII to coordinate metabolism and
transcriptional response (Wilde et al., 2019). However, the identity of the mitochondrial factor
tethering MondoA at the mitochondria remains unknown.

Interestingly, our proteomics analysis of MML-1 immunoprecipitation showed
enrichment with proteins from different cellular compartments, including mitochondria, ER,
LD, and nucleolus, suggesting an important role of Mondo in integrating diverse organellar
signals. Localization to mitochondria was particularly conspicuous. Multiple nuclear
transcription factors are localized in the mitochondria, although dissecting their nuclear and
mitochondrial function is challenging (Leigh-Brown et al., 2010). On the one hand, nuclear
transcription factors have been shown to directly bind the mitochondrial genome to regulate
transcription, such as the cAMP response element-binding (CREB) protein (Marinov et al.,
2014). Interestingly, *mml-1(ok849)* loss-of-function mutants showed a decrease in all 12
mitochondrial-encoded genes compared to wildtype (Nakamura et al., 2016). However, this
could be indirect by regulating the mitochondrial transcription factor TFAM or mitochondrial
biogenesis (Li et al., 2005). On the other hand, transcription factors like p53 have been shown
to translocate to the mitochondrial outer membrane under apoptotic signals to interact with
Bcl-2 and promote membrane permeabilization and apoptosis (Marchenko et al., 2007). Future
studies will help elucidate whether MML-1/MondoA mitochondrial localization regulates
other cellular processes independent of its nuclear transcription function.

LD represents the main lipid storage in cells to balance metabolism and energy
demands. These organelles are essential for many signaling pathways and are required for
survival during fasting by mobilizing lipids for energy production. In *C. elegans,* LDs are
mainly localized in the intestine and hypodermis and are composed almost exclusively of TAG
(Vrablik et al., 2015). We found PLIN-1, one of the most abundant LD proteins, enriched in
the MML-1 interactome. Interestingly, we found that MML-1 colocalizes with LD *in vivo* in
the intestine. MondoA was previously seen in large-scale proteomics associated with LD
(Krahmer et al., 2018). It was shown that MondoA and Mlx localized with LD through
amphipathic helices in the C-terminus in SUM159 cells (Mejhert et al., 2020). The researchers
proposed a model in which MondoA/Mlx colocalization with LD inhibits its transcriptional
activity limiting glucose-dependent transcription. Work by Brunet and colleagues suggest that
MUFA intercalation into LD and peroxisomes somehow promotes longevity, though

downstream transcription factors are little explored (Papsdorf et al., 2023). Mitochondria and
LD physically interact with one another to regulate metabolism (Boutant et al., 2017). As
MondoA has also been shown to localize with mitochondria, it would be interesting to
understand the role of this organelle in regulating MondoA's association with LD. Although
the proteins involved in these contact sites are just beginning to be uncovered, both
PLIN1/PLIN-1 and ACSL1/ACS-13 have been proposed to tether mitochondria and LD
(Gordaliza-Alaguero et al., 2019).

Mitochondria bound to LD facilitate the coordination of TAG metabolism and fatty
acid oxidation. For example, lipases (*e.g.*, ATGL) in the LDs break down TAG to release free
fatty acids that can be activated in the mitochondria outer membrane by ACSL1 to fatty
acyl-CoA. This acyl-CoA can be imported into the mitochondria for β-oxidation. We propose
a model **(Figure 5E)** in which MML-1 interacts with specific mitochondria associated with LD
to orchestrate a transcriptional response depending on fuel utilization. Under normal
conditions, glucose stimulates MML-1 translocation to the nucleus to activate the transcription
of glycolytic enzymes. In contrast, upon blockage of glycolysis (*e.g.,* hexokinase knockdown),
the cell utilizes fatty acids to produce ATP, re-localizing and inhibiting MML-1 at the
mitochondria associated with LD.

Materials and Methods

Worm growth and RNAi treatment

C. elegans worm strains were grown and maintained on nematode growth medium
(NGM) plates seeded with *E. coli* OP50 strain as the primary food source. Worms were grown
at 20 °C unless stated otherwise. *glp-1(e2141)* strains were maintained at 15 °C. All worm
strains are listed in **Supplementary Table S4**. Worms were synchronized by 4 to 6 h egg lays
at 20 °C. For experiments including *glp-1(e2141)*, egg lays were performed at 15 °C, and the
eggs were upshifted to 25 °C for 52 to 56 h to induce the germline-less phenotype. After *glp-1*
induction, worms were downshifted to 20 °C until the day of analysis or collection.

The NGM media for RNAi knockdown was supplemented with 1 mM isopropyl
β-1-D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) and 100 μg mL^{-1} ampicillin. The plates were seeded with
the RNAi-expressing *E. coli* HT115 (DE3) strain transformed with the L4440 vector from the
Ahringer and Vidal libraries (Kamath & Ahringer, 2003; Rual et al., 2004), or cloned for this
work. Bacteria containing luciferase RNAi cloned into the L4440 vector were used as controls.
Worms were grown on RNAi plates egg-on in all the experiments.

Cell culture experiments

HEK293T cells were maintained in DMEM medium 4.5 g/L D-glucose (Gibco)

supplemented with 10% FBS (Gibco). For blocking the PPP, cells were supplemented with 16

and 100 μM 6-AN for 24 to 48 h. After, cells were washed and added fresh DMEM medium

or transferred to starvation media (NaCl 140 mM, $CaCl_2$ 1 mM, $MgCl_2$ 1 mM, HEPES pH 7.4

20 mM, BSA 1%) for 6 h. Cells were collected for immunofluorescence, RNA extraction, and

metabolite quantification.

For addressing MondoA localization, cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for

15 min at room temperature. Following fixation, the samples were washed 3 times with 500

μL DPBS, followed by 500 μL of methanol 99% for 5 min at -20 °C, and washed twice with

500 μL of DPBS and three times with TBST 1X. Cells were blocked with 10% goat serum

diluted in DPBS for 1 h at room temperature. Cells were incubated with 200 μL of the Anti-

MondoA antibody (Bethyl Laboratories, A303-195A) 1:500 diluted in goat serum overnight at

4 °C. Next, cells were washed 3 times with DPBS containing Triton x-100 (PBST) and similarly

incubated with 200 μL of Alexa-488 secondary antibody (Invitrogen, A21206) 1:500 diluted

in the goat serum at room temperature and covered in aluminum foil for 2 h. After washing 3

times with 500 μL of PBST, the samples were covered with a mounting medium containing

DAPI. The cells were cured for 24 h at room temperature in the dark and then stored at 4 °C.

Demographic analysis

Lifespan analyses were conducted by synchronizing worms by egg lay. All animals

were kept at 20 °C egg on, or transferred to 20 °C on day one of adulthood for the experiments

including *glp-1(e2141)*. More than 120 worms were used per strain/condition with 20-30

worms per 6 cm plate. Worms were transferred every other day to fresh plates until they

stopped laying eggs and scored every time they were transferred. Animals with internal

hatching and vulva protrusions were censored from the analysis. All lifespans were performed

by blinding the genotypes/RNAi. Demographic parameters like mean, median, and maximum

lifespan were calculated and plotted using GraphPad Prism 9 software.

Oxygen consumption rate measurements

Oxygen consumption rates (OCR) measurements in *C. elegans* were based on

(Koopman et al., 2016). Worms were synchronized by egg lay. 10 to 15 adult worms were

transferred to a Seahorse XF96 Cell Culture Microplate (Agilent) with 200 µL of M9 buffer.

OCR was measured using the Seahorse XFe96 Analyzer (Agilent). To measure mitochondrial

fatty acid β-oxidation, basal oxygen consumption was measured followed by injection of

etomoxir (final well concentration 500 µM) and finally injection of sodium azide (final well

concentration 40 mM), all measured five times. OCR was normalized to the number of worms

with at least six technical replicates.

Body measurements, pharyngeal pumping rates, and motility assay

Worms were imaged or recorded using the Leica stereo microscope MDG41 equipped

with Leica DFC3000G monochrome camera with a 6.3X magnification. For measuring the

body length and area, >20 worms were transferred to a drop of sodium azide 50 mM, imaged,

and analyzed in Fiji imaging software. To measure the pharyngeal pumping rates, worms were

transferred to a new plate, acclimated on the plates without a lid for 10 min, and then recorded

for 30 s. Worm motility was assessed by placing >20 worms in a drop of M9 buffer and

recorded for 30 s using the Leica M80 Binocular Microscope equipped with the Leica MC170

HD camera. Videos were analyzed to count the thrashing of each worm.

Molecular cloning

Plasmids were constructed by classical cloning or Gibson Assembly. Restriction

enzymes from NEB were used according to the manufacturer's instructions. Custom primers

were designed with SnapGene v.5.3.2 and NEBuilder Assembly Tool v.2.5.4 (**Supplementary**

Table S5). For classical cloning, digested plasmids and amplicons were ligated using the T4

DNA Ligase according to the manufacturer's instructions (New England Biolabs). For Gibson

Assembly, digested plasmid and amplicon were assembled using NEBuilder HiFi DNA

Assembly Master Mix (New England Biolabs) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Plasmids were transformed into *E. coli* DH5α (Life Technologies) strain using the heat shock

protocol and plated on LB media supplemented with ampicillin.

RNA extraction and RT-qPCR

Worms were synchronized by egg lay for 4 h and collected once they reached the young

adult stage in 15 mL conical tubes. The worm pellet was subjected to 4 cycles of freeze and

thaw with liquid nitrogen and a water bath at ~37 °C. To lyse the worms, 200 µL of 1.0 mm

Zirconia/Silica beads (FisherScientific) were added and transferred to the TissueLyser LT

(Qiagen) for 30 min, full speed at 4 °C. Samples were incubated for 5 min at RT. After, 200

μL chloroform was added and centrifuged at 12,000 g for 15 min at 4 °C. The top aqueous

phase was transferred to a new 1.5 mL tube and mixed with 200 μL of ethanol. The RNA

purification was performed using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. The concentration and purity of the RNA samples were quantified

using the NanoPhotometer NP80 spectrophotometer (Implen).

cDNA was prepared after extracting total RNA from young adult worms or cell extracts

using the iScript cDNA Synthesis Kit (BioRad) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Primers, cDNA, and Power SYBR Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems) were transferred

to a 384-well plate using the JANUS automated workstation (PerkinElmer) with four technical

replicates per genotype/gene. The reaction was quantified using the ViiA 7 Real-Time PCR

system machine (Applied Biosystems). *cdc-42* was used as an endogenous control for the

quantification. The complete primer sequences are in **Supplementary Table S5**.

Oxidative stress assay

Worms were grown on NGM plates until day 1 adults and then transferred to NGM

supplemented with paraquat at 15 and 35 mM for 6 h. As control, we used the CL2166 strain

that contains the transcriptional reporter *gst-4p*::GFP. MML-1::GFP nuclear localization was

measured in the intestine.

Protein extraction and Western blot analysis

Worms were harvested from a mixed population or synchronized by egg lay or

bleaching with M9 buffer and washed three times. The worm pellet was snap-frozen in liquid

nitrogen and stored at -80 °C until extraction. The pellet was resuspended in liquid lysis buffer

supplemented with cOmplete ULTRA EDTA-free protease inhibitors (Roche) and PhosSTOP

phosphatase inhibitors (Roche) and sonicated with Bioruptor Plus (Diagenode S.A.) coupled

to Minichiller 300 (Huber) for 15 cycles of 30 sec sonication, 30 sec rest at 4 °C. The total

protein extract was cleared by spinning down at 20,817 g for 10 min at 4 °C. Supernatant was

transferred to a new tube, and protein was quantified using Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit

(ThermoFisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Equal amounts of

protein were mixed with 4X loading sample buffer containing DTT 50 mM and boiled at 95

°C for 10 min. Samples were loaded onto an SDS-PAGE PERCENTAGE gel (BioRad), and

proteins were then transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane (BioRad) using the Trans-Blot

Turbo Transfer System (BioRad). Membranes were blocked for 1 h at RT with 5% milk in

TBST. Primary and secondary antibodies were diluted in 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in

TBST and incubated for 2-18 h at 4 °C. Antibodies: RFP Tag Polyclonal Antibody 1:1000

(ThermoFisher Scientific, R10367), Monoclonal ANTI-FLAG M2, Clone M2 1:1000 (Sigma

Aldrich, F1804), Anti-beta Actin Antibody 1:1000 (Abcam, Ab8224), Anti-rabbit IgG (H+L)

1:5000 (Invitrogen, G21234), Anti-mouse IgG 1:5000 (Invitrogen, G21040), Rabbit Anti-

Mouse IgG (Ligh Chain Specific) (D3V2A) mAB (HRP Conjugate) 1:5000 (CST, 58802). The

membranes were washed three times with TBST for 10 min at RT in-between incubation with

the antibodies and after the secondary. The signals were detected using Western Lightning

Plus-ECL, Enhanced Chemiluminescence Substrate (PerkinElmer), and imaged in the

ChemiDoc MP Imaging System with Image Lab software (BioRad).

Immunoprecipitation

Worms were collected from a mixed population from twenty 10 cm plates, transferred

into 15 mL conical tubes with M9 buffer, and washed three times. Worms were snap-frozen in

liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C until extraction. The worm pellet was resuspended in lysis

buffer supplemented with cOmplete ULTRA EDTA-free protease inhibitors (Roche) and

PhosSTOP phosphatase inhibitors (Roche). Worms were sonicated with Bioruptor Plus

(Diagenode S.A.) coupled to Minichiller 300 (Huber) for 30 cycles of 30 sec sonication, 30 sec

rest at 4 °C. The total extract was cleared by spinning down at 20,817 g for 15 min at 4 °C.

Supernatant was transferred to a new tube, and protein was quantified using Pierce BCA

Protein Assay Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

The Anti-FLAG M2 magnetic beads (Sigma) were resuspended and equilibrated with

TBST buffer. A total of 7 mg of total protein extract in 800 µL was mixed with the magnetic

beads and incubated overnight at 4 °C. The next day, the supernatant was removed and stored

for WB analysis. The beads were washed 3 times with 1 mL of cold washing buffer #1

(Tris/HCl, pH 7.4 20 mM, NaCl 300 mM, EDTA 1 mM, NP-50 0.5%), and 3 times with 1 mL

of cold washing buffer #2 (Tris/HCl, pH 7.4 20 mM, NaCl 300 mM, EDTA 1 mM). In the last

wash, 500 µL of washing buffer #2 was added, and 100 µL were stored for WB analysis.

To elute samples for mass spectrometry, 100 µL of elution buffer (Trypsin 5 ng/µL,

Tris/HCl, pH 7.5 50 mM, Tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine (TCEP) 1 mM, Chloroacetamide

(CAA) 5 mM) were added and incubated 30 min at RT. The supernatant was transferred to a

new 0.5 mL tube and incubated overnight at 37 °C. The next day, formic acid was added to a

final concentration of 1% to stop the digestion. Peptides were stored at -20 °C until purification.

The peptides were cleaned and purified with StageTip. A 30 µg C18-SD tip was

hydrated with 200 µL of methanol, followed by 200 µL of 40% acetonitrile (ACN)/0.1% formic

acid (FA). 200 µL of 0.1% FA were added to equilibrate the C18-SD. The digested peptides

were dissolved in 0.1% FA and added to the C18-SD and washed once with 0.1% FA. To elute

the peptides, 80 µL of 40% ACN/0.1% FA was added, and elutes were collected in 0.5 µL

tubes and dried in centrifugal vacuum Concentrator Plus (Eppendorf) for 45 min at 45 °C.

LC-MS/MS analysis

Peptides were separated on a 25 cm, 75 µm internal diameter PicoFrit analytical column

(New Objective) packed with 1.9 µm ReproSil-Pur 120 C18-AQ media (Dr. Maisch) using an

EASY-nLC 1200 (ThermoFisher Scientific). The column was maintained at 50 °C. Buffer A

and B were 0.1% FA in water and 0.1% FA in 80% CAN, respectively. Peptides were separated

on a segmented gradient from 6 to 31% buffer B for 57 min and from 31 to 44% buffer B for

5 min at 250 nl/min. Eluting peptides were analyzed on an Orbitrap Fusion Tribrid mass

spectrometer (ThermoFisher Scientific). Peptide precursor m/z measurements were carried out

at 60,000 resolution in the 350 to 1,500 m/z range. The most intense precursors with charge

states from 2 to 7 were selected for HCD fragmentation using 27% normalized collision energy.

The cycle time was set to 1 sec. The m/z values of the peptide fragments were measured at a

resolution of 50,000 using an AGC target of 2e5 and 86 ms maximum injection time. Upon

fragmentation, precursors were put on a dynamic exclusion list for 45 sec.

The raw data were analyzed with MaxQuant v.1.6.1.0 (Cox & Mann, 2008). Peptide

fragmentation spectra were searched against the canonical and isoform sequences of the *C.*

elegans reference proteome (proteome ID UP000001940, downloaded December 2018 from

UniProt). Methionine oxidation and protein N-terminal acetylation were set as variable

modifications; cysteine carbamidomethylation was set as fixed modification. The digestion

parameters were set to "specific" and "Trypsin/P". The minimum number of peptides and razor

peptides for protein identification was 1; the minimum number of unique peptides was 0.

Protein identification was performed at a peptide spectrum match and protein false discovery

rate of 0.01. The "second peptide" option was on. Successful identification was transferred

between the different raw files using the "Match between runs" option. Label-free

quantification (LFQ) (Cox et al., 2014) was performed using an LFQ minimum ratio count of

2. LFQ intensities were filtered for at least two valid values in at least one group and imputed

from a normal distribution with a width of 0.3 and a downshift of 1.8. Differential expression

analysis was performed using *limma* package v.3.34.9 (Ritchie et al., 2015) in R v.3.4.3 (R

Core Team, 2017).

G6P and NADP⁺/NADPH measurements and TKT activity assay

G6P and NADP$^+$/NADPH were measured from total worm extracts or cell extracts

using the Glucose-6-Phosphate Assay Kit (Sigma MAK014) and the NADP/NADPH-Glo

Assay (Promega G9081), respectively, following the manufacturer's instructions. The

Transketolase Activity Assay Kit (Fluorometric) (Sigma MAK420) was used to measure TKT

activity in worm extracts following the manufacturer's instructions. Samples were normalized

to total protein concentration.

glp-1(e2141) strains were used to avoid signals from the germline. Briefly, worms were

synchronized as mentioned previously, collected in a 15 mL conical tube, and washed three

times with M9 buffer. Worms were snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and sonicated using the

Bioruptor Plus (Diagenode S.A.) coupled to Minichiller 300 (Huber) for 15 cycles of 30 sec

sonication, 30 sec rest at 4 °C. Worms' extracts were cleared by centrifugation at 20,817 g for

15 min at 4 °C. Samples were always kept on ice. As mentioned previously, part of the samples

was used to quantify protein, and the rest was used to quantify the metabolites.

For G6P colorimetric detection, samples were run in technical duplicates in a 96-well

plate. The standard curve was made using the G6P Standard solution provided by diluting with

ddH$_2$O to generate 0 (blank), 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 nmol/well standards. Samples were combined

with the reaction mix in each well and mixed for 30 min at RT, protecting the plate from the

light. The absorbance was measured at 450 nm using the POLARstar OMEGA Plate Reader

with Luminescence (BGM Labtech). For the analysis, all samples were corrected for the

background. The standard curve was generated with the appropriate values obtained by the

standards mentioned previously, and the amount of G6P in each sample was calculated with

the standard curve. Values were normalized to protein levels.

For the NADP$^+$/NADPH bioluminescent assay, samples were run in technical

duplicates in a 96-well plate. 50 μL of worm lysis in M9 buffer were incubated with 50 μL

base solution with 1% DTAB. Samples were split into two: one to measure NADP$^+$ and the

other to measure NADPH. Samples were incubated with or without 25 μL 0.4 N of HCl to

measure NADP$^+$ or NADPH, respectively, at 60 °C for 15 min, and then the plate was

equilibrated for 10 min at RT. Next, 25 µL of Trizma base were added to each well of acid-

treated samples to neutralize the acid and 50 µL of HCl/Trizma solution to each well of base-

treated samples. An equal amount of the NADP/NADPH-Glo Detection Reagent was added to

each well and mixed at RT for 30 min by protecting the plate from the light. The luminescence

was recorded using the POLARstar OMEGA Plate Reader with Luminescence (BGM

Labtech). Samples were corrected to background luminescence. The relative luminescent units

were standardized to the protein concentration.

Brightfield and fluorescent imaging

Brightfield and fluorescent images with higher resolution were acquired using the Zeiss

Axio Imager Z1 Fluorescent Microscope equipped with the Digital Microscope Camera Axio

Cam Mono 506 and the IcC5 true color camera. For fluorescent microscopy, the microscope

used a Colibri 7 LED Light Source and the filters sets GFP (Set 38 HE), TR (Set 45), and TL.

The software used was Zeiss Zen v2.3.69.1017. Brightfield and fluorescent images were also

acquired with the Leica stereo microscope MDG41 equipped with Leica DFC3000G

monochrome camera. The microscope was equipped with the Leica EL6000 external light

source. The software used was the Leica Application Suite X v3.7.5.24914.

All dyes were added to the bacterial lawn, incubated egg on, and protected from the

light until the day of imaging. Final solutions were made by diluting in M9 buffer. LipiBlue

(Dojindo) was resuspended in 100 µL of DMSO to make a 100 µM stock. The final

concentration used was 1 µM. C1-BODIPY-C12 500/510 (ThermoFisher Scientific) was

dissolved in DMSO to make a 5 mM stock. The final concentration used was 1 µM. Worms

were mounted on a slide with a 5% agarose pad using sodium azide 50 mM. Levamisole 2 mM

was used as an anesthetic to image mitochondria.

Nuclear localization of MML-1::GFP was quantified in intestinal cells from day one

adult worms. Worms anesthetized with sodium azide 40 mM. At least, 20 worms were imaged

per genotype/condition. Quantification of the transcription factor nuclear localization was

performed by manually selecting each nucleus and calculating the pixel intensity per area. The

same area was used to calculate the cytosolic and background signal. Values were corrected by

background subtraction. Nuclear localization was calculated by dividing the nuclear signal

from the cytosolic signal.

Confocal Imaging

Confocal images were acquired with Leica TCS SP8 confocal microscope equipped

with a white light laser and a 63X 1.4 NA oil objective. The microscope was also equipped

with HyD detectors for fluorescent images and a PMT detector for the bright field. The LAS

X Life Science software was used to acquire images and 3D reconstruction. When multiple

fluorescent proteins or dyes were imaged, sequential scanning was used to reduce the bleed-

through of the signal from one channel to another. All images used for colocalization analysis

were deconvoluted with the installed LIGHTNING package to optimize the images and reduce

background noise.

Statistical analysis and software

The results are presented as mean + SD or SEM, as the figure legends indicate. The

number of biological replicates is shown in the figure legends as "N", while the number of

worms is presented as "n". Before comparing groups, the data were tested for Gaussian

distribution using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test with Dallal-Wilkinson-Lilliefor p-

value. For normally distributed data, unpaired t-test with Welch's correction or one-way

ANOVA with Brown-Forsythe and Welch's corrections were calculated in GraphPad Prism 9

(GraphPad software). For lifespan analysis, p-values were calculated using Log-rank (Mantel-

Cox) test. Statistical data from all the lifespans are included in **Supplementary Table S2**.

Statistical significance for qPCR experiments was calculated with two-tailed t-test. For

colocalization analysis, Costes' randomization was performed to determine statistical

significance. Significance levels are ns = not significant $p>0.05$, * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, ***

$p<0.001$, **** $p<0.0001$.

Image analysis was performed using open-source Fiji package software. Additional

JACoP (Bolte & Cordelières, 2006) plugin was used for colocalization analysis. Densitometry

analyses were performed using GelAnalyzer v.19.1. Graphs were generated in GraphPad Prism

9 and using custom R scripts.

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Authors contributions

A.A. and R.L. designed the experiments and wrote the manuscript. R.L. performed most
of the experiments. M.N. established and performed the MondoA localization upon PPP
inhibition in cell culture, M.V. acquired and processed the samples for proteomics and repeated
biological replicates, E.B. measured the NADPH/NADP$^+$ levels in mammalian cells, I.A.
performed proteomics.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figures

Figure 1. Hexokinases are required for germline longevity through the regulation of MML-1 localization and function. A. Screening for MML-1 regulators upon knockdown of glucose metabolism enzymes. For clarity, we only mapped the candidate genes involved in

glycolysis, TCA cycle, and PPP. See **Supplementary Table S1** for a complete list of genes

tested. MML-1::GFP (dhIs989) nuclear localization was measured in intestinal cells of day one

adult worms grown in the RNAi egg-on. Each circle represents one gene encoding an isozyme

or subunit of the complex. Circles are color-coded to indicate the increase (red) or decrease

(blue) of MML-1::GFP nuclear localization upon knockdown of the enzymes compared to

internal *luci* controls. DHAP, dihydroxyacetone phosphate; PEP, phosphoenolpyruvate; TCA

cycle, tricarboxylic acid cycle; PPP, pentose phosphate pathway. **B.** Quantification of MML-1

nuclear localization upon knockdown of glucose metabolism genes. Only genes that

statistically affected MML-1 nuclear localization compared to the internal *luci* control are

depicted ($p<0.05$; N≥2). **C-D.** Representative images (**C**) and quantification (**D**) of MML-1

nuclear localization in wildtype and the germline-less *glp-1(e2141)* longevity background upon

knockdown of *luci* (control), *hxk-1i*, *hxk-2i*, and *mml-1i*. MML-1::GFP was quantified in nuclei

from intestinal cells (white arrows) in day one adult worms (N=3). Scale bars, 10 μm. **E.**

Relative mRNA levels of MML-1 downstream target *mdl-1* in young adult worms measured

by qPCR (N=3). **F.** Lifespans of wildtype and *glp-1(e2141)* upon *hxk-1* and *hxk-2* knockdown.

Lifespans for *hxk-1* and *hxk-2* knockdown were performed in the same experiment and plotted

separately for clarity; therefore, control lifespans are shared between plots. **G.** Quantification

of MML-1 nuclear localization in wildtype and *isp-1(qm150)* mutants upon *luci*, *hxk-1i*, and

hxk-2i in day one adult worms (N=3). **H.** Lifespan of wildtype and *isp-1(qm150)* upon *hxk-1*

and *hxk-2* knockdown (N=2). Statistical significance was calculated with *t*-test in **A** and **B,**

one-way ANOVA in **D** and **G**, two-tailed *t*-test in **E**, and Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test in **F** and

H. **D** and **G** bars represent mean ± SD, and **E** bars represent mean ± SEM.

Supplementary Figure 1. Hexokinases regulate MML-1 nuclear localization and transcriptional function. A. MML-1 nuclear localization in the fosmid line wgIs198 was quantified in intestinal cells of day one adult worms using upon *hxk-1* and *hxk-2* knockdown (N=3). **B**. Quantification of MML-1 nuclear localization in intestinal cells of day one adult wildtype and *glp-1(e2141)* worms supplemented with the glycolytic inhibitor 3-bromopyruvate (3-BrP) 5, 10, and 20 mM egg-on (N=2). **C**. Quantification of MML-1 nuclear localization in intestinal cells of day one adult *glp-1(e2141)* worms supplemented with the glycolytic inhibitor 2-deoxy-glucose (2-DG) 50 mM egg-on (N=2). **D-E.** Representative Western blot (**D**) and densitometry analysis (**E**) of hexokinases basal levels under *hxk-1i*, *hxk-2i*, *hxk-3i*, and *mml-1i*. Protein levels were normalized to actin as a loading control (N=3). **F-H.** Measurements of body size area (**F**), length (**G**), and pharyngeal pumping rate (**H**) of day one adult worms grown under hexokinase knockdown (N=3). **I**. Motility assay of day one adult worms grown under hexokinase knockdown (N=2). **J.** Relative *mml-1* mRNA levels under hexokinase knockdown measured by qPCR (N=3). **K.** Relative mRNA expression of MML-1 downstream targets *lgg-2*, *swt-1*, and *fat-5* measured by qPCR (N=3). **L.** Quantification of MML-1 nuclear localization in wildtype and *daf-2(e1370)* mutants upon *luci*, *hxk-1i*, and *hxk-2i* in day one adult worms (N=3). **M.** Lifespan of wildtype and *daf-2(e1370)* upon *hxk-1* and *hxk-2* knockdown (N=2). **N.** Quantification of MML-1 nuclear localization in wildtype and *raga-1(ok701)* mutants in day one adult worms (N=3). **O.** Lifespan of wildtype, *raga-1(ok701)*, *mml-1(ok849)* and *raga-1 mml-1* double mutant (N=3). **P.** Lifespan of wildtype and *raga-1(ok701)* upon *hxk-1* and *hxk-2* knockdown (N=3). Statistical significance was calculated with *t*-test in **C** and **N**, one-way ANOVA in **A-B** and **E-L**, and Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test in **M** and **O-P**. **A-C**, **F-J**, **L**, and **N** bars represent mean ± SD, and **E** and **K** bars represent mean ± SEM.

Figure 2. Enhanced mitochondrial β-oxidation suppresses MML-1 nuclear localization upon *hxk-1* knockdown. A-B. Tissue expression of HXK-1::mKate2 (**A**) and HXK-2::mKate2 (**B**) isozymes. The primary tissues are identified with arrows. Scale bars, 20 μm. **C.** Colocalization of mitochondrial reporter *myo-3p*::mitoGFP with full-length HXK-2::mKate2 and d10 HXK-2::mKate2 lacking the first ten residues of the N-terminus. Scale bars, 10 μm. **D.** Representative confocal images of day one adult worms expressing MML-1::GFP and the mitochondrial reporter *ges-1p*::TOMM-20::mCherry under *luci* and *hxk-2i*. Scale bars, 10 μm. **E.** Intensity plot of the region of interest (ROI) from *hxk-2i* (**D**). **F.** Colocalization of MML-1::GFP and TOMM-20::mCherry in *luci* and *hxk-2i*. The colocalization analysis was

calculated with the thresholded Mander's colocalization coefficients tM1 (GFP channel) and

tM2 (mCherry channel) (N=3). **G.** When glycolysis is reduced, cells rely on fatty acids for

energy production. Free fatty acids are activated to acyl-CoA and transported to the

mitochondria through the CPT in the mitochondrial outer membrane. The acyl-CoA is then

metabolized to generate acetyl-CoA that can enter the TCA cycle to produce energy. MPC,

mitochondrial pyruvate carrier; CPT, carnitine palmitoyltransferase. **H-I.** Oxygen consumption

rate (OCR) under basal conditions (**H**) and after the addition of the mitochondrial β-oxidation

inhibitor etomoxir (**I**). Mitochondrial β-oxidation is calculated as the percentage of decreased

OCR after the injection of etomoxir (N=3). **J.** MML-1 nuclear localization of day one adult

worms grown with double knockdown of *hxk-1* or *hxk-2* combined *acs-2i* (N=3). **K.** MML-1

nuclear localization of day one adult worms grown upon *hxk-1* and *hxk-2* knockdown with

supplementation of etomoxir 100 μM egg-on (N=3). Statistical significance was calculated

with *t*-test in **F**, and one-way ANOVA in **H-K**. **F** and **J-K** bars represent mean ± SD, **H-I** bars

represent mean ± SEM.

Supplementary Figure 2. MML-1 regulation by glucose metabolism is independent of

mitochondrial and oxidative stress response. A. Localization of HXK-3::mKate2 isozyme.

The primary tissues are identified with arrows. Scale bars, 20 μm. **B.** Representative confocal

images of day one adult worms expressing MML-1::GFP and the lysosome/endosome reporter

LMP-1::mKate2 under *luci* and *hxk-2i*. Scale bars, 10 μm. **C.** Intensity plots of the ROIs from

B (n>10 MML-1 positive puncta per worm). **D.** Quantification of mitochondrial stress response

hsp-6p::GFP transcriptional reporter upon knockdown of candidate genes regulating MML-1

nuclear localization. Worms were imaged on day one of adulthood. As a positive control for

induction of mitochondrial stress, worms were supplemented with antimycin A (AA) 10 μg/mL

for 24 h before imaging (N=3). **E.** Quantification of MML-1::GFP nuclear localization of

worms grown under *luci* and *hxk-2i* supplemented with AA at the L4 stage, and nuclear

localization was measured after 24 h (N=3). **F.** Quantification of day one adult worms

expressing *gst-4p*::GFP transcriptional reporter exposed to paraquat for 6 h (N=3). **G.**

Quantification of MML-1::GFP nuclear localization of day one adult worms exposed to

paraquat for 6 h (N=3). **H.** Neutral lipid content was measured on day one of adulthood by
feeding worms with C1-BODIPY-C12 egg-on (N=3). **I.** Quantification of day one adult worms
expressing the transcriptional reporter *acs-2p*::GFP under hexokinase knockdown (N=3).
Statistical significance was calculated with one-way ANOVA in **D-G**. **D-G** bars represent
mean ± SD.

Figure 3. HXK-2 regulates MML-1 localization and function through inhibition of the
PPP. A. The PPP is a cytosolic pathway that metabolizes G6P to produce NADPH and ribose-
5P, and interconverts 3 to 7 carbon sugars. 6-Aminonicotinamide (6-AN) is a PPP inhibitor
that acts on the NADPH-producing enzymes GSPD-1 and T25B9.9. **B.** Quantification of
MML-1 nuclear localization of day one adult worms supplemented with 500 μM and 1 mM of
6-AN egg-on (N=3). **C.** Quantification of NADP$^+$ and NADPH levels in day one adult
glp-1(e2141) worms grown under hexokinase knockdown. *T25B9.9i* was used as a control.
Metabolite levels were normalized to total protein concentration (N=3). **D.** Transketolase
enzymatic activity assay in day one adult *glp-1(e2141)* worms grown under hexokinase
knockdown. *tkt-1i* was used as a control. Activity levels were normalized to total protein
concentration (N=3). **E-F.** Representative images (**E**) and quantification (**F**) of MML-1 nuclear

localization of day one adult worms upon double knockdown of *hxk-2* with the PPP enzymes

T25B9.9 and *tkt-1* (N=3). Scale bars, 20 μm. **G.** Relative mRNA levels of MML-1 downstream

target *mdl-1* in young adult worms upon double knockdown of *hxk-2* in combination with

enzymes of the PPP measured by qPCR (N=3). **H.** Quantification of G6P levels relative to total

protein measured in day one adult *glp-1(e2141)* upon double knockdown of *hxk-2* in

combination with enzymes of the PPP (N=4). **I.** Lifespan analysis of *glp-1(e2141)* with *hxk-2i*

and *tkt-1i* single and double knockdowns. Lifespan was performed in the same experiment as

Supplementary Figure 3J; therefore, control lifespans are shared between plots (N=3).

Statistical significance was calculated with a one-way ANOVA test in **B-D** and **F-H**, and Log-

rank (Mantel-Cox) test in **I**. **B** and **F** bars represent mean ± SD, **C-D** and **G-H** bars represent

mean ± SEM.

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Supplementary Figure 3. HXK-1 and HXK-2 regulate MML-1 through parallel or
independent pathways. A. MML-1 nuclear localization of day one adult worms upon double
knockdown of *hxk-1* with enzymes of the PPP (N=3). **B-D.** Relative mRNA levels of MML-1
downstream targets *lgg-2* (**B**), *swt-1* (**C**), and *fat-5* (**D**) in young adult worms with double
knockdown of *hxk-2* with enzymes of the PPP measured by qPCR (N=3). **E-H.** Relative mRNA
levels of MML-1 downstream targets *mdl-1* (**E**), *lgg-2* (**F**), *swt-1* (**G**), and *fat-5* (**H**) in young
adult worms with double knockdown of *hxk-1* with enzymes of the PPP measured by qPCR
(N=3). **I**. Quantification of G6P levels relative to total protein measured in day one adult
glp-1(e2141) worms grown under *hxk-1i* in combination with enzymes from the PPP (N=4). **J.**
Lifespan analysis of *glp-1(e2141)* with *hxk-2i* and *T25B9.9i* single and double knockdowns.
Lifespan was performed in the same experiment as **Figure 3I**; therefore, control lifespans are
shared between plots (N=3). Statistical significance was calculated with a one-way ANOVA
test in **A-I**, and Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test in **J**. **A** bars represent mean ± SD, **B-I** bars
represent mean ± SEM.

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Figure 4. *hxk-2* knockdown increases MML-1 colocalization with LD. A. Anti-FLAG immunoprecipitation (IP) from whole-worm lysates of animals expressing MML-1 endogenously tagged with 3xFLAG in wildtype background. IP was analyzed by mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). The 25 top candidates co-enriched with MML-1 compared to non-transgenic wildtype control are shown as log FC, including MML-1 (blue) and its established binding partner MXL-2 (red). **B.** Crosstalk between glycolysis, PPP, and lipid droplet (LD) metabolism. On the one hand, LD expansion is favored by increased fatty acid synthesis and subsequent formation of triacylglycerol (TAG) by the diacylglycerol acetyltransferase DGAT-2. On the other hand, LD consumption releases free fatty acids from TAG by the rate-limiting lipase ATGL-1. **C.** Confocal microscopy of day one adult worms expressing MML-1::GFP and the mitochondrial reporter TOMM-20::mCherry stained with the LD dye LipiBlue under *luci* and *hxk-2i* (N=3). Scale bars, 10 μm. **D.** Intensity plot of the region of interest (ROI) from *hxk-2i* (**C**). **E.** Colocalization of MML-1::GFP and LD in *luci* and *hxk-2i*. The colocalization analysis was calculated with the thresholded Mander's colocalization coefficients tM1 (GFP channel) and tM2 (LipiBlue channel) (N=3). **F.** Quantification of LD diameter in day one adult worms expressing the LD reporter PLIN-1::mCherry upon knockdown of *hxk-2* and *tkt-1* (N=3). **G.** Quantification of MML-1 nuclear localization under knockdown of the LD metabolic enzymes *dgat-2* and *atg-1* (N=3). **H.** Quantification of MML-1 nuclear localization upon double knockdown of *tkt-1* and *atgl-1* (N=3). Statistical significance was calculated with a one-way ANOVA test in **E-H**. **E-H** bars represent mean ± SD.

Supplementary Figure 4. MML-1 interactome is enriched with proteins from different

organelles. A. Quantified proteins in each biological replicate of wildtype and *mml-1::3xFLAG*

anti-FLAG immunoprecipitation (IP). **B**. Principal component analysis (PCA) with each

biological replicate of the genotypes from proteomics. **C.** Top candidates co-enriched in

MML-1::FLAG IP grouped by predicted subcellular localization (uniport.org). **D.**

Representative images of day one adult worms expressing the LD proteins DHS-3::GFP and

PLIN-1::mCherry reporters grown with the LD dye LipiBlue egg-on. Scale bars, 10 μm. **E-F.**

Intensity plots of the marked ROI from **D** showing DHS-3::GFP (**E**) and PLIN-1::mCherry (**F**)

colocalization with LipiBlue. **G.** Expression of the ATGL-1::GFP translational reporter

measured on day one adult worms grown under *T25B9.9* and *tkt-1* RNAi egg-on (N=3). **H.**

Quantification of LD reporter PLIN-1::mCherry intensity in day one adult worms upon

knockdown of *hxk-2* and *tkt-1* (N=3). **I.** Quantification of neutral lipid content in day one adult

worms supplemented with C1-BODIPY-C12 egg-on under *dgat-2* and *atgl-1* knockdown

(N=3). Statistical significance was calculated with a one-way ANOVA test in **G-I**. **G-I** bars

represent mean ± SD.

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Figure 5. MondoA localization and transcriptional function is regulated by PPP in HEK293T cells. A. Immunofluorescence of MondoA in HEK293T cells under high glucose media (HG) and starvation (S) conditions supplemented with the PPP inhibitor 6-aminonicotinamide (6-AN) 100 μM. Scale bars, 20 μm. **B.** Quantification of MondoA nuclear localization in HEK293T cells treated with 6-AN 16 and 100 μM under HG and S conditions (N=3). **C.** Relative mRNA levels of *MondoA* in HEK293T cells treated with 6-AN 16 and 100 μM under HG and S conditions measured by qPCR (N=3). **D.** Relative mRNA levels of MondoA downstream target *TXNIP* in HEK293T cells treated with 6-AN 16 and 100 μM under HG and S conditions measured by qPCR (N=3). Statistical significance was calculated with one-way ANOVA in **B-D**. **B** bars represent mean ± SD, **C-D** bars represent mean ± SEM. **E.** Working model of MML-1 regulation by hexokinases. MML-1 is positively regulated by HXK-1 and HXK-2 through different downstream mechanisms. Inhibition of the mitochondrial β-oxidation rescues MML-1 nuclear localization upon *hxk-1i*, while decreasing enzymes from the PPP rescues MML-1 localization upon *hxk-2i*. These upstream mechanisms regulate MML-1 subcellular localization between LD-mitochondria and the nucleus, which is required for the lifespan extension mediated by germ-line loss. PPP, pentose phosphate pathway; LD, lipid droplet.

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Supplementary Figure 5. Inhibition of PPP NADPH-producing enzymes by 6-AN induces

MondoA downstream targets. **A.** Experimental design for inhibition of the PPP in HEK293T

cells. Cells were grown in high glucose media (HG) supplemented with 6-AN for 24 h, and

then the media was replaced with either HG or starvation (S) media for 6 h. Cells were collected

and used for immunostaining, RNA extraction, and metabolite quantification. **B.** Quantification

of NADP$^+$ and NADPH levels in HEK293T cells treated with 6-AN 16 and 100 μM under HG

and S conditions (N=3). **C.** Relative mRNA levels of MondoA downstream target *ARRDC4* in

HEK293T cells treated with 6-AN 16 and 100 μM under HG and S conditions measured by

qPCR (N=3). Statistical significance was calculated with one-way ANOVA in **B-C**. **B-C** bars

represent mean ± SEM.

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