Prohibitin depletion suppresses mitochondrial, lipogenic and autophagic defects of SGK-1 mutant extending lifespan; implication of autophagy and the UPRmt.

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Aging is a complex and multifactorial process influenced by different pathways interacting in a not completely defined manner. Mitochondrial prohibitins (PHBs) are strongly evolutionarily conserved proteins with a peculiar effect on lifespan. While their depletion shortens lifespan of wild type animals, it enhances longevity of a plethora of metabolically compromised mutants, including target of rapamycin complex 2 (TORC2) mutants *sgk-1* and *rict-1*. Intriguingly, TORC2 mutants induce the mitochondrial unfolded protein response (UPR^{mt}), while reducing the strong UPR^{mt} elicited by PHB depletion. To understand this inverse correlation between lifespan and activation of the UPR^{mt}, we studied the interaction of TORC2 signaling with mitochondrial quality control mechanisms including mitophagy, the UPR^{mt} and autophagy. Our data revealed that *sgk-1* mutants have increased mitochondrial size, respiration rate and ROS production, phenotypes suppressed by PHB depletion. A transcription factor RNAi screen identified lipid and sterol homeostasis as UPR^{mt} modulators in *sgk-1* mutants. In accordance, *sgk-1(ok538)* show impaired lipogenesis, yolk formation and autophagy flux, plausibly due to altered organelle contacts. Remarkably, all these features are suppressed by PHB depletion. Lifespan analysis showed that autophagy and the UPR^{mt}, but not mitophagy, are required for the enhanced longevity caused by PHB depletion in *sgk-1* mutants. Because the UPR^{mt} transcription factor ATFS-1 activates autophagy, we hypothesize that UPR^{mt} induction upon PHB depletion extends lifespan of *sgk-1* mutants through autophagy. Our results strongly suggest that PHB depletion suppresses the autophagy defects of *sgk-1* mutants by altering membrane lipid composition at ER-mitochondria contact sites, where TORC2 localizes.

Introduction

Mitochondrial function, nutrient signalling and autophagy regulate aging across phyla. However, the exact mechanisms and how they interact to modulate lifespan remain still elusive. The mitochondrial prohibitin (PHB) complex is a strongly evolutionarily conserved ring-like macromolecular structure [1, 2]. While deletion of PHB does not cause any observable growth phenotype in the unicellular yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* [3], in *Caenorhabditis elegans* the PHB complex is required for embryonic development and its postembryonic depletion leads to morphological abnormalities in the somatic gonad and sterility [4]. Prohibitins have been implicated in several age-related diseases [5, 6] and are involved in mitochondrial morphogenesis and maintenance of mitochondrial membranes by acting as chaperones [7] and scaffolds [8]. Recently, PHB-2 has been described essential for Parkin mediated mitophagy [9].

PHB depletion perturbs mitochondrial homeostasis causing an induction of the mitochondrial unfolded protein response, UPR^{mt} [10-12], and has an opposing effect on lifespan depending on the genetic background. Loss of PHB by RNAi shortens lifespan in wild type worms, whereas it increases lifespan in different metabolically compromised backgrounds such as mutants of the Insulin/IGF-1 signalling (IIS) pathway or mutants with compromised mitochondrial function or fat metabolism [13]. In particular, PHB depletion increases lifespan of the already long-lived *daf-2(e1370)* mutants, where the induction of the UPR^{mt} is reduced [14]. Through analysing known kinases acting downstream of the insulin receptor DAF-2 [15], we found that loss of function of SGK-1 recapitulates the enhanced longevity and the reduced UPR^{mt} activation observed upon PHB depletion in *daf-2* mutants [14]. SGK-1 belongs to the AGC kinase family and is the sole *C. elegans* homologue of the mammalian Serum- and Glucocorticoid-inducible Kinase. Its expression is induced upon diverse stimuli, including overload of calcium [16],

heat shock, oxidative or osmotic stress [17-19], besides of glucocorticoids, cytokines and

growth factors [20, 21]. Its activation is dependent on PI3K and has been involved in

response to oxidative stress and DNA damage, among others [22]. In addition of acting

in the IIS pathway, SGK-1 regulates aging and mitochondrial homeostasis through a

parallel pathway, as part of TORC2 (Target Of Rapamycin Complex 2), downstream of

RICT-1. Interestingly, *daf-2;sgk-1* double mutants show a further lifespan increment and

a further reduction of the UPR^mt upon PHB depletion [14].

Work in yeast has demonstrated that Ypk1, the yeast homologue of SGK-1, is the

relevant target of TORC2 involved in sphingolipid synthesis and ceramide signalling

having an essential role in lipid membrane homeostasis and affecting cell size and

growth rate [23-25]. Interestingly, TORC2-Ypk1 controls sphingolipid homeostasis by

sensing and regulating ROS [26]. Moreover, TORC2-Ypk1 regulates autophagy upon

amino acid starvation [27] and modulates the autophagy flux by controlling mitochondrial

respiration and calcium signalling [28, 29], although the molecular mechanism remains

unknown. In worms, SGK-1 regulates development, fat metabolism, stress responses

and lifespan in a complex and controversial manner, partially explained by the different

alleles under study and the different growing conditions [14, 15, 30-36].

To better understand how SGK-1 regulates lifespan and mitochondrial function, we

explored the interaction between PHB and SGK-1. Our results show that long-lived *sgk-*

1(ok538) mutants have altered mitochondrial structure and function, phenotypes that are

suppressed by PHB depletion. We further examined the interaction of SGK-1 with

mitochondrial quality control mechanisms, the UPR^mt and mitophagy, both activated in

sgk-1 and *phb-1* deficient animals. While SGK-1 protein levels increased upon inhibition

of the UPR^mt and mitophagy in otherwise wild type animals, in the absence of the PHB

complex, SGK-1 expression levels increased upon inhibition of the UPR^mt, but not

mitophagy. A transcription factor RNAi screen identified membrane lipid homeostasis as

a mechanism implicated in the maintenance of mitochondrial function by SGK-1. In

agreement with that, electron microscopy analysis showed defects in organelle

membrane contact sites in *sgk-1* mutants, leading to defective lipogenesis and

lipoprotein production and a blockage of the autophagic flux. Remarkably, these

phenotypes are suppressed by PHB depletion. Further, lifespan analyses showed that

autophagy and the UPR^{mt} are required for the enhanced longevity of *sgk-1* mutants upon

PHB depletion, while mitophagy is not. Surprisingly, inhibition of mitophagy extends the

lifespan of *sgk-1* mutants and PHB deficient worms. We discuss our observations in light

of the conserved role of TORC2 in lipid membrane biology and the proposed role of the

PHB complex and TORC2 at mitochondria-associated endoplasmic reticulum (ER)

membranes (MAM).

Results

sgk-1 mutants have altered mitochondrial structure and function, which are

suppressed by prohibitin depletion

In *C. elegans*, loss of function of SGK-1 causes a delay in development [33] as well as

reduced brood and body size [31]. These phenotypes are consistent with phenotypes

observed in mitochondrial mutants [37] and mitochondrial fragmentation has been

reported upon *sgk-1* depletion in muscle [38] and intestine [35]. In addition, worms

lacking the TORC2 component RICT-1 or the downstream kinase SGK-1, have an

induced mitochondrial unfolded protein response (UPR^{mt}) [14]. Here, we analyzed

whether mitophagy, another mitochondrial quality control mechanism, might be activated

in *sgk-1* deletion mutants. For this purpose, we used a mitophagy reporter based on

PINK-1 protein [39], a serine threonine protein kinase that, when mitochondria are

depolarized, accumulates in the outer mitochondrial membrane and targets mitochondria

for selective autophagy [40, 41]. We observed that depletion of *sgk-1* increased PINK-1

protein levels (Figure 1A). Additionally, we show that inducing mitochondrial stress via

depletion of *phb-1* or *atfs-1,* the key UPR^{mt} regulator, had similar effects, increasing

PINK-1 protein levels (Figure 1A). This observation further suggests that *sgk*-1 mutants

suffer from mitochondrial stress.

To better define the mitochondrial defect of *sgk-1* deletion mutants we performed

transmission electron microscopy (TEM) analysis. We observed swollen and bigger

mitochondria in *sgk-1* mutants as compared to wild type worms in all tissues analyzed

(hypodermis, muscle and intestine) at both, day one and day five of adulthood (Figure

1B and Figure S1, respectively). No obvious mitochondrial fragmentation or severe

cristae defects in the intestine could be observed in the TEM sections analyzed, as

previously described [35].

While shortening lifespan of otherwise wild type animals, PHB depletion extends lifespan

of TORC2 mutants, *rict-1* and *sgk-1*, as it does with other mitochondrial mutants [13, 14].

To better understand this interaction, we measured mitochondrial performance in *sgk-1*

mutants in the presence and absence of the PHB complex, during aging (Figures 1C-F

and Figure S2). Mitochondrial respiration is recognized as an indicator of mitochondrial

health and its measurement at the level of oxidative phosphorylation has emerged as a

proxy for mitochondrial dysfunction [42]. At the young adult stage, *sgk-1* mutants showed

a dramatic increase in basal oxygen consumption rate (OCR) compared to wild type

worms (Figures 1C and 1D), consistent with the previous finding that mammalian

mTORC2/rictor knockdown leads to an increase in mitochondrial respiration in

mammalian cells [43]. The increased respiration rate of *sgk-1* mutants was suppressed

by PHB depletion. Lack of PHB also reduced the OCR of wild type worms (Figures 1C

and 1D). At day 6 of adulthood, the OCR was generally reduced (Supplementary figure

S2b) as already described [44], except for *phb-1(RNAi)* worms. While wild type and *sgk-*

1 mutants had a similar respiration rate, PHB depletion increased the OCR in both

backgrounds (Figure S2A and S2B). This suggests that mitochondrial function declines with age in wild type animals but this decline occurs at a higher rate in *sgk-1* mutants, whereas in PHB depleted worms, where already at the young adult stage respiration is compromised, it remains relatively constant.

In concordance with a higher basal respiration, at the young adult stage *sgk-1* mutants had a higher maximal respiratory capacity compared to wild type worms, which was fully suppressed by PHB depletion. PHB depletion also reduced the maximal respiratory capacity of wild type worms (Figure 1D). The spare capacity or reserve capacity is the difference between maximal and basal OCR and it is defined as the amount of oxygen that is available for cells under stress or increased energy demands. *sgk-1* mutants showed reduced spare respiratory capacity, as the difference between maximal and basal OCR was diminished compared to wild type animals. Additionally, depletion of *phb-1* reduced the spare capacity in both backgrounds (Figure 1D). By calculating the oxygen consumption linked to ATP production, derived from inhibiting ATP synthase with oligomycin, we observed an increased ATP-linked OCR in *sgk-1* mutants (Figure 1E), which may correspond to a higher energy demand. Differently, *phb-1(RNAi)* reduced the ATP-linked OCR (Figure 1E) both in otherwise wild type worms as well as in *sgk-1* mutants, suggesting a severe damage in the oxidative phosphorylation system. Again, depletion of the PHB complex reversed *sgk-1* mutants' phenotypes, bringing ATP-linked OCR to wild-type levels (Figure 1E). The O_2 consumed after sodium azide (NaN_3) injection corresponds to the respiration caused by other cellular processes than oxidative phosphorylation, such as non-mitochondrial NADPH oxidases or reactive oxygen species production. Interestingly, *sgk-1* mutants showed an increased non-mitochondrial respiration compared to wild type at the young adult stage, which was suppressed by PHB depletion. Lack of PHB also reduced non-mitochondrial respiration in wild type worms (Figure 1F).

Mitochondrial respiration is the most relevant source of cellular ROS. We thus evaluated ROS levels in *sgk-1* mutants in the presence and absence of the PHB complex. We measured ROS formation at the young adult stage using the dye H2-DCFDA (Figure 1G). In agreement with the observed increment in both, mitochondrial and non-mitochondrial respiration, *sgk-1* mutants showed dramatically elevated ROS levels in comparison to wild type worms, as previously published in other organisms [26, 45]. Depletion of *phb-1* increased ROS levels in wild type worms (Figure 1G and [13]). However, depletion of *phb-1* reduced ROS levels in *sgk-1* mutants (Figure 1G). Since H2-DCFDA measures mostly cytosolic ROS, these results indicate that *sgk-1* mutants have high levels of cytosolic ROS that are reduced upon *phb-1* depletion. Nevertheless, even if we were not able to measure mitochondrial ROS levels, PHB depletion has been shown to increase mitochondrial basal ROS production [46] and the increment of mitochondrial ROS extends lifespan of mitochondrial mutants with high levels of cytoplasmic ROS [47]. We then wondered whether the enhancement of lifespan upon *phb-1* depletion in *sgk-1* mutants may be due to an increment of specifically mitochondrial ROS levels. Lack of the cytosolic enzyme, *sod-1*, did not affect lifespan of wild type worms, while lack of the mitochondrial superoxide dismutase, *sod-2*, increased wild type lifespan (Figure S2C, Table S1 and [48, 49]). Interestingly, lack of *sod-1* reduced lifespan of *sgk-1* mutants, indicating that increased cytosolic ROS is detrimental for *sgk-1* lifespan, while depletion of *sod-2*, increased lifespan of *sgk-1* mutants (Figure S2D, Table S1), similar to mitochondrial mutants [47]. In order to test if mitochondrial ROS generation upon PHB depletion extends lifespan of *sgk-1* mutants, we treated animals with the antioxidant N-acetyl-cysteine (NAC). NAC did not affect the lifespan of wild type worms or *sgk-1* mutants, while it shortened that of *phb-1* depleted animals, both in wild type and in *sgk-1* mutant backgrounds (Figure S2E and S2F, Table S1). Therefore, we cannot conclude that ROS is responsible for the lifespan extension conferred by PHB depletion to *sgk-1* mutants.

197 Finally, we wondered whether depletion of the PHB complex would suppress the

198 increased mitochondrial size observed in *sgk-1* mutants. TEM analysis of muscle

199 mitochondria showed that *phb-1* depletion drastically reduced mitochondrial size in *sgk-*

200 *1* mutants, and resulted in mitochondrial fragmentation as it happens in otherwise wild

201 type worms [4] (Figure 1H and Figure S3).

202 SGK-1 protein levels differentially respond to mitochondrial quality control

203 mechanisms, UPR^{mt} and mitophagy, upon PHB depletion.

Our results suggest that TORC2/SGK-1 regulates mitochondrial performance as *sgk-1*

loss of function mutants have altered mitochondrial size and respiration, induced UPR^{mt}

and induced mitophagy. To further analyze the role of SGK-1 in mitochondrial

homeostasis we investigated how different mitochondrial perturbations affect SGK-1

protein levels during aging. Under basal conditions, SGK-1 protein expression levels

decreased during aging, from day 1 to day 10 (Figure 2A). Under strong mitochondrial

stress, such as PHB depletion or paraquat (PQ) treatment, SGK-1 levels were lower at

day 1 compared to control animals. At the end of the reproductive period (day 5), the

difference in the expression levels between control and *phb-1(RNAi)* treated worms was

eliminated, while the expression of SGK-1 upon PQ treatment was higher relative to the

control. However, in aged worms (day 10), SGK-1 expression levels increased upon

mitochondrial perturbation (Figure 2A). We then tested how SGK-1 protein levels

respond to mitochondrial quality control mechanisms. Inhibition of the UPR^{mt} by *atfs-*

1(RNAi) and inhibition of mitophagy by *pink-1(RNAi)* increased SGK-1 protein levels

relative to control at all times tested (Figure 2B). These results show that expression of

SGK-1 responds to mitochondrial perturbations and is regulated in a different manner

during the reproductive period than during aging, depending on the severity of

mitochondrial dysfunction.

Because the UPR^{mt} and mitophagy are particularly active under mitochondrial stress, we

next studied the impact of depleting each mitochondrial quality control mechanism on

SGK-1 protein levels under severe mitochondrial stress. In PHB-depleted worms, while

inhibiting the UPR^{mt} increased SGK-1 protein levels at day 1, day 5 and day 10, inhibiting

mitophagy only increased SGK-1 protein levels at day 1 (Figure 2C). In addition, we

pharmacologically induced mitochondrial stress with PQ. In this case, inhibition of

mitophagy did not influence SGK-1 expression, whereas inhibition of the UPR^{mt} caused

a dramatic increase of SGK-1 levels at day 5 and day 10 (Figure 2D). Moreover, the

observed reduction of SGK-1 expression during aging was abolished, as revealed by the

continuous increment in SGK-1 protein levels from day 1 to day 10 (Figure 2D). These

results show that under situations of strong mitochondrial stress the UPR^{mt} is more

relevant than mitophagy in the regulation of SGK-1 expression levels.

The high SGK-1 levels observed upon UPR^{mt} inhibition in situations of strong

mitochondrial stress during aging, could be related to the role of ATFS-1 in autophagy

induction. Autophagy is one of the compensatory pathways induced to protect cells from

severe mitochondrial defects [50] and has been suggested as a cytoprotective

mechanism implicated in the lifespan extension of *sgk-1* mutants upon prohibitin

depletion [14]. Thus, in the absence of ATFS-1, SGK-1 might be more necessary to keep

an efficient autophagy flux, as it has been previously proposed [28, 29]. Supporting this

hypothesis depleting genes involved in different steps of autophagy, such as initiation,

unc-51(RNAi) or nucleation, *bec-1(RNAi)*, increased SGK-1 protein levels, although the

increment was only significant at day 5 (Figure S4).

A transcription factor RNAi screen identifies membrane sterols and lipid

homeostasis as modulators of the UPR^{mt} in TORC2/SGK-1 mutant.

We reasoned that transcription factors whose depletion reduce the induction of the

UPR^mt in *sgk-1* mutants might be implicated in the activation of different pro-survival

pathways responsible for the long lifespan conferred by PHB depletion to TORC2

mutants [14]. Several transcription factors have been involved in the maintenance of

mitochondrial homeostasis and lifespan, including DAF-16, SKN-1, HIF-1 and HSF-1

[34, 40, 51-58]. Moreover, the UPR^mt promotes longevity by activating HIF-1, DAF-16

and SKN-1 [58]. We checked the involvement of these transcription factors in the

activation of the UPR^mt in *sgk-1* mutants and the essential TORC2 component *rict-1*.

Lack of DAF-16 further induced the mitochondrial stress in wild type animals (Figure 3A).

However, in *rict-1* mutant depletion of all the transcription factors enhanced the UPR^mt

(Figure S5), while only HIF-1 depletion did in *sgk-1* mutants (Figure 3A). This suggests

that TORC2 deficiency modulates the UPR^mt through additional kinases apart from *sgk-*

1. Nevertheless, depletion of none of the transcription factors tested inhibited the

expression of *hsp-6,* suggesting that different mechanisms are implicated in the UPR^mt

in TORC2/SGK-1 mutants.

With the aim of understanding the mechanism by which SGK-1 might regulate

mitochondrial function, and possibly aging, we performed an RNAi screen. We knocked-

down 836 transcription factors of the *C. elegans* genome and quantified the expression

of the mitochondrial stress response reporter. We found 20 genes whose depletion

reduced the expression of P*hsp-6*::GFP in *sgk-1* mutants (FC < 0.6) (Figure 3B). HIF-1

depletion did not increase P*hsp-6*::GFP (average FC 1.067) in our screen as when

assayed on plate (Figure 3A). One possible explanation is that liquid growing conditions

are energetically more demanding, metabolism is altered and the UPR^mt might be

differentially regulated [59]. We reasoned that transcription factors that genetically

interact with *sgk-1* should further reduce worm size. Because *hsp-6* expression

increases through development, we focused on those transcription factors that when

depleted reduced both the UPR^mt and size of *sgk-1* mutants (Figure 3C).

Interestingly, 2 of these candidates, *lin-40* and *ceh-20*, are involved in endocytic traffic

[60]. SGK-1 has been reported to be involved in endocytosis and membrane trafficking

in different models [61-64] which supports the validity of the screen.

Additionally, we identified several nuclear hormone receptors (NHRs), a family of ligand-

regulated transcription factors that are activated by steroid hormones, and that play vital

roles in the regulation of metabolism, reproduction, and development. Among them,

NHR-8, a nuclear hormone receptor that regulates cholesterol levels, fatty acid

desaturation and apolipoprotein production [65]. NHR-8 is required for dietary restriction-

mediated lifespan extension in *C. elegans* [66, 67] but also normal lifespan [65].

Cholesterol is essential for hormone signaling, membrane structure and dynamics and

general fat metabolism. Also related with cholesterol is SBP-1, the homologue of sterol

regulatory element binding protein SREBP-1. SREBPs are required to produce

cholesterol [68] and regulate the expression of lipogenic genes across phyla [69, 70].

Interestingly, mammalian mTORC2 activates lipogenesis through SREBP-1 in the liver

[71]. Similarly, in *C. elegans,* SBP-1 acts downstream of TOR and IIS pathways and it is

involved in determination of adult lifespan. Depletion of *sbp-1* does not affect lifespan of

wild type animals, but suppresses the increment of lifespan caused by pharmaceutical

inhibition of TGF-β and IIS signaling [72].

In sum, we identified transcription factors involved in sterol metabolism, lipogenesis and

lipid membrane biology, whose depletion further reduced the size of *sgk-1* mutants

(Figure 3C), indicating a genetic interaction in *C. elegans*. Combining mutations in genes

that perturb the same process should enhance the observed phenotypes. Loss of

function of SGK-1 reduces worm size, slows down development [31, 33] and induces the

UPRmt [14]. Depletion of both, NHR-8 and SBP-1, exacerbated the phenotypes of *sgk-1*

mutants at the young adult stage, further reducing worm size and inducing the UPRmt

(Figure 3D). As reported, SBP-1 depletion reduced the size of wild type animals [73] and

the same did depletion of NHR-8. However, while depletion of neither NHR-8 nor SBP-

1 affected development of wild type animals, it specifically slowed down the

developmental rate of *sgk-1* mutants (Figure S5B), indicating a synthetic interaction.

Moreover, depletion of both, NHR-8 and SBP-1, mimicked the induced UPR^{mt} observed

in *sgk-1* loss-of-function mutants (Figure 3D). Apart from sterol [24], ceramide and

sphingolipids are also key structural lipids of membranes that are regulated by

Ypk1/SGK-1 in yeast [23, 26, 74, 75] and regulate membrane trafficking in *C. elegans*

[76]. We targeted by RNAi *sptl-1,* a serine palmitoyl-CoA acyltransferase responsible for

the first committed step in *de novo* sphingolipid synthesis, and *cgt-3,* a ceramide

glucosyltransferase, previously shown to interact with SGK-1 [62]. Similar to NHR-8 and

SBP-1, depletion of SPTL-1 and CGT-3 induced the UPR^{mt} in otherwise wild type worms,

recapitulating the *sgk1* mutant phenotype (Figure S5C). As reported, *cgt-3* depletion

caused a very slow developmental phenotype in *sgk-1* mutants [62]. Depletion of *sptl-1*

caused a partial (30 to 50%) larval arrest in otherwise wild type animals, while 100% of

sgk-1 mutants arrested development at the L3 stage, indicating a synthetic lethal

interaction (Figure S5D). Not being at the same developmental stage, *hsp-6* expression

levels cannot be compared, nonetheless, depletion of *sptl-1* and *cgt-3* seemed to further

induced the UPR^{mt} in *sgk-1* mutants (Figure S5D). These results together, show that

defective lipogenesis and/or altered cholesterol and sphingolipid metabolism causes

mitochondrial proteotoxic stress and that the UPR^{mt} observed in *sgk-1* mutants could

reflect altered lipid and sterol homeostasis.

Lipogenesis and lipoprotein/yolk formation defects of *sgk-1* mutants are

suppressed by prohibitin depletion.

SREBPs are master regulators of lipogenesis and undergo sterol-regulated export from

the ER to the Golgi [77, 78] where proteases release the transcriptionally active portion

[68]. Also, transport of ceramide from the ER to the Golgi is a crucial step in sphingolipid

biosynthesis [79]. Both, in *C. elegans* and mammalian models, SREBPs are regulated

in response to altered membrane lipid ratios through ARF1 and GBF1 [80], which

function in vesicular trafficking, lipid homoeostasis and organelle dynamics [81]. In *C.*

elegans GBF-1 localizes in close proximity to the Golgi and the ER-exit sites and is

required for secretion and integrity of both organelles [82]. GFB-1 and SGK-1 physically

associate, being GBF-1 required for proper localization of SGK-1 near the basolateral

membrane of intestinal cells [62]. Interestingly, ARF1 and GBF1 play an evolutionarily

conserved role in ER-mitochondria contact site functionality and lack of GBF-1 causes a

similar increase in mitochondrial size as *sgk-1* deletion in *C. elegans* ([83] and Figure 1B

and S1).

Thus, we used TEM to explore whether TORC2/SGK-1 plays a role in ER contacts and

ER-mitochondria contact sites. We analyzed *sgk-1* mutants at the beginning of the

reproductive period (day 1 of adulthood) and at day 5 of adulthood. We observed

protruding structures from the endoplasmic reticulum, resembling exit sites, which were

not observed in wild type animals, where the ER appeared compacted (Figure 4A,

highlighted in Figure S6, and Figure S7). Lipid droplets emanate from the ER [84] and

production and secretion of lipoproteins are regulated via the ER-to-Golgi intermediary

compartment (ERGIC) [85]. Protruding ER exit sites (ERES) could reflect defective lipid

droplet formation and/or defective ER to Golgi or Golgi to ER secretion. TEM images

showed increased number of Golgi vesicles and increased size of the Golgi system in

sgk-1 mutants (Figure 4A, highlighted in Figure S6, and Supplementary figure S7). The

increased presence of ERES indicates impaired lipid droplet and lipoprotein biogenesis,

as evidenced by the reduced content of lipid and yolk observed in *sgk-1* mutants (Figure

4A)(also visible in Figure S1). This agrees with the role of SGK-1 in lipogenesis and

vitellogenesis in *C. elegans* [36, 86, 87]. Interaction of lipid droplets with yolk forming

particles and vacuoles also appeared altered at day 1 of adulthood and abnormal

myelinated structures were visible (Figure S7)(also visible in Figure S1). At day 5, the

number of ERES was reduced as compared to day 1 in *sgk-1* mutants, instead, small

ER-emanating lipid droplets and myelinated structures/defective autolysosomes

accumulate (Figure 4a)(also visible in Figure S1). These phenotypes could reflect

defective endomembrane biology in *sgk-1* mutants, in agreement with the proposed role

for *sgk-1* in membrane trafficking in *C. elegans* [62] and yeast [63, 88]. In addition, the

accumulation of ERES affects the proximity of ER membranes to mitochondria. In wild

type animals, the ER appeared compacted and close to mitochondria, while in *sgk-1*

mutants less ER was observed in contact with mitochondria in the intestine and in muscle

(Figure 4A and B, respectively and Figure S6). This phenotype agrees with the observed

localization of mTORC2 to mitochondria-associated ER membranes (MAM) and

defective MAM observed in liver-specific mTORC2/rictor KO mice [89].

These results support a key role of SGK-1 in membrane trafficking, plausibly through

affecting membrane lipid ratios and the formation of membrane contact sites, that could

explain all the observed phenotypes, defective mitochondrial function and defects on

lipid droplet and lipoprotein biogenesis. Since prohibitin depletion suppressed

mitochondrial defects of *sgk-1* mutants (Figure 1), we investigated if lack of the PHB

complex could suppress lipogenesis and yolk/lipoprotein accumulation. We analyzed

TEM sections at the beginning of the intestine, before and after the gonad turn, in 5 days

old animals (Figure 4C and Figure S8). *sgk-1* mutants were defective in lipid droplet

formation and vitellogenesis, as previously reported [36, 86]. In addition, little

accumulation of lipoprotein pools at the pseudocoelom was observed compared to wild

type and prohibitin depleted animals (Figure S8). Strikingly, depletion of the

mitochondrial PHB complex suppressed both, lipid droplet accumulation and yolk

production defects of *sgk-1* mutants (Figure 4C and Figure S8). Furthermore, *sgk-1*

mutants presented all described phenotypes in OP50, a different bacterial food source

(Figure S9). The phenotypes observed in OP50 bacteria included abnormal foci of

myelinated forms, defective lipid droplet formation and generally reduced lipid content

and yolk, as well as increased mitochondrial size.

Autophagosomes receive lipids from the ER, ERES, ERGIC, the Golgi apparatus, as

well as from mitochondria and ER-mitochondria contact sites [90]. Moreover, inhibition

of late stages of autophagy has been shown to prevent the conversion of intestinal lipids

into yolk and the accumulation of lipoprotein pools at the pseudocoelom [91]. Thus, our

TEM analysis strongly suggests that *sgk-1* mutants suffer from a blockage of the

autophagy flux.

Impaired autophagy flux of *sgk-1* mutants is suppressed by prohibitin

depletion.

SGK-1 has been shown to modulate autophagy both via induction and blockage of

autophagy [27-29, 35, 92, 93] and we observed an accumulation of abnormal

autophagosomes in *sgk-1* mutants (Figure 4A and Figure S7). Thus, we analyzed the

autophagic state in *sgk-1* mutants in the presence and in the absence of the PHB

complex.

With a view to quantify autophagy we used a strain carrying the intestinal autophagy

reporter P*nhx-2*::mCherry::LGG-1 [94] which shows a diffused cytoplasmic expression

pattern under basal conditions but under induced autophagy shows a punctate

expression pattern due to the recruitment of LGG-1 to the autophagosomes. We

classified the level of autophagy based on 5 different categories from very low (animals

with a completely diffused expression pattern) to very high (animals with big

aggregations of LGG-1 all along the intestine) (see Materials and Methods and Figure

S10A). We quantified autophagy immediately after the reproductive period (day 5), when

LGG-1 puncta are more obvious. *sgk-1* mutants showed an enhanced autophagy signal

compared to wild type animals (Figure 5A), as previously described in worms [35, 38].

While depletion of the PHB complex significantly increased LGG-1 puncta in otherwise

wild type worms, no additive effect was observed in *sgk-1* mutants upon *phb-1* depletion

(Figure 5A). We knocked down *unc-51,* an essential gene for autophagosome formation,

as a control to ensure the signal visualized in the transgenic line corresponds to

autophagy and not to mCherry aggregation. *unc-51(RNAi)* reduced the autophagic signal

under all tested conditions (Figure S10B).

To better analyze autophagy flux, we performed electron microscopy analysis at day 5

of adulthood at the beginning of the intestine (see materials and methods). Characteristic

structures of impaired autophagy flux observed in TEM images of *C. elegans* are

abnormal foci with myelinated membranes [95]. Myelinated forms including

multivesicular bodies, multilaminar bodies and myelinated membrane whorls were

clearly visible in *sgk-1(ok538)* mutants (Figure 5B). Quantification in the different

backgrounds (Figure 5B, bottom panel) showed that myelinated forms rarely appeared

in wild type and in *phb-1(RNAi)* treated worms, while they accumulated in *sgk-1* mutants.

Interestingly, the accumulation of myelinated forms in *sgk-1* mutants was suppressed

upon *phb-1(RNAi)* (Figure 5B). Altogether, the differences in LGG-1 expression pattern

and the accumulation of electro-dense particles, suggest that while autophagy is induced

in PHB depleted worms, both, induction of autophagy and an impairment in the

autophagic flux occurs in *sgk-1* mutants, as previously proposed in yeast [27-29].

We confirmed activation of autophagy in *sgk-1(ok538)* mutants by looking at the

subcellular localization of the transcription factor HLH-30/TFEB, a positive regulator of

autophagy, lysosome biogenesis and longevity [96, 97]. We observed increased nuclear

localization of HLH-30 in *sgk-1* mutants (Figure 5C). In order to confirm blockage of

autophagy in *sgk-1* mutants we pharmacologically suppressed autophagy adding

Bafilomycin A1 (BafA), an inhibitor of vacuolar type H^+-ATPases that prevents lysosomal

acidification causing a blockage of the autophagic flux [98]. Upon bafilomycin treatment,

wild type worms showed an increment of the signal (34% increment), which corresponds

to the accumulation of non-degraded autophagosomes (figure 5d). Although Bafilomycin

further increased the autophagy signal in *sgk-1* mutants (Figure 5D), this increment was

considerably lower than the one observed in wild type worms (11% vs 34%), showing a

partial blockage of the autophagic flux. To further confirm this blockage in *sgk-1* mutants

we used the dual-fluorescent protein reporter mCherry::GFP::LGG-1 that allows to

monitor autophagosomes (APs), double-membrane vesicles that engulf cytosolic cargo,

and autolysosomes (ALs), where degradation of cargo takes place after APs fuse with

lysosomes [99, 100] (Figure 5E). Under the acidic environment of ALs, GFP is quenched,

therefore, ALs appear as red punctae, while APs appear as yellow [green and red]

punctae. While in wild type animals most red puncta appeared also green, in *sgk-1*

mutants we found a large amount of only red and abnormal intestinal puncta (Figure 5E)

indicating an accumulation of ALs. The same was true for the hypodermis, where *sgk-1*

mutants presented more ALs than wild type worms (Figure S11A). Further demonstrating

a role of SGK-1 in maintaining the autophagic flux, we observed a completely diffused

expression pattern of intestinal mCherry::LGG-1 in worms overexpressing SGK-1 at day

5 of adulthood and suppression of the increased autophagosomes observed upon *phb-*

1 depletion (Figure S11B). Because autophagy is required for the conversion of intestinal

lipids into yolk, the suppression of abnormal autophagic structures upon PHB depletion

agree with the suppression of both, lipid droplet and yolk accumulation defects of *sgk-1*

mutants upon PHB depletion.

Autophagy and the UPR^mt, but not mitophagy, are required for the enhanced longevity of *sgk-1* mutants upon PHB depletion

We have shown that long-lived *sgk-1(ok538)* mutants and PHB depleted animals have

induced mitochondrial quality control mechanisms such as mitophagy and the UPR^{mt}

(Figure 1). Similarly, autophagy is induced in both *sgk-1* mutants and PHB depleted

animals, however, the autophagy defects of *sgk-1* mutants are suppressed by PHB

depletion (Figure 5). In addition, in the absence of the PHB complex, SGK-1 protein

levels increase upon inhibition of the UPR^{mt} but not inhibition of mitophagy (Figure 2).

Therefore, we investigated the requirement of autophagy as well as both mitochondrial

quality control mechanisms for the lifespan extension conferred by prohibitin depletion

to *sgk-1* mutants. Depletion of ATFS-1 did not affect lifespan of wild type animals (Figure

6A and Table S1) [101]. Surprisingly, even though prohibitin depleted worms and *sgk-*

1(ok538) have induced UPR^{mt}, inhibiting this process did not shorten their lifespan

(Figures 6A and 6B and Table S1). However, preventing the UPR^{mt} suppressed the

longevity of *sgk-1;phb-1(RNAi)* treated mutants down to wild type levels (Figure 6B and

Table S1). On the same direction, inhibiting autophagy by *unc-51(RNAi)* treatment did

not affect lifespan of *phb-1* depleted worms nor of *sgk-1(ok538)* mutants (Figures 6C,

6D and Table S1), while it shortened that of *sgk-1;phb-1(RNAi)* treated animals (Figure

6D and table S1), although to a lesser extent than inhibiting the UPR^{mt}. Treatment with

unc-51(RNAi) shortened the lifespan of wild type worms (Figure 6C, Table S1 and [102]).

Autophagy is divided in four different steps [103]: initiation, nucleation, elongation and

final fusion with lysosomes for lysis of the cargo. Likewise inhibition of initiation (*unc-*

51(RNAi)), inhibition of nucleation (*bec-1(RNAi)*) and inhibition of elongation (*atg-*

16(RNAi)) shortened lifespan of the *sgk-1;phb-1(RNAi)* treated mutants (Figure S12).

Therefore, we conclude that both mechanisms, autophagy and the UPR^{mt}, are required

for the enhanced longevity of *sgk-1(ok538)* mutants upon PHB depletion, plausibly

because the UPR^{mt} transcription factor is a positive regulator of autophagy.

We also assessed the requirement of mitophagy for the longevity of *sgk-1* mutants

caused by the absence of the mitochondrial PHB complex. Inhibition of mitophagy did

not affect lifespan of wild type worms (Figure 6E, Table S1 and [40]). Interestingly,

preventing mitophagy showed a beneficial effect on lifespan of PHB depleted worms and

sgk-1 mutants (Figure 6E, 6F and table S1). However, in the case of *sgk-1;phb-1(RNAi)*

treated worms inhibition of mitophagy did not affect lifespan in most of the cases (Figure

6F) and increased lifespan in one case (Table S1). It seems counterintuitive that

mitophagy inhibition could be beneficial for lifespan as damaged mitochondria would

accumulate. In fact, inhibition of mitophagy has been described as shortening lifespan

of long lived mitochondrial mutants as well as mutants of the insulin receptor *daf-2* [40].

Since in this study we carried out double RNAi experiments, we wondered whether this

discrepancy in lifespan phenotypes was due to the different experimental procedure. By

performing lifespan analysis in *daf-2(e1370)* mutants depleted of *pink-1* using diluted

RNAi (Figure S13A and Table S1), we conclude that the observed beneficial effects of

mitophagy inhibition were not due to the experimental procedure since in our hands *pink-*

1(RNAi) shortened lifespan of *daf-2(e1370),* as reported [40]. DAF-2 and SGK-1 act in

parallel pathways in the regulation of the UPR^{mt} and prohibitin-mediated longevity [14].

We, therefore, assayed the effect of inhibiting mitophagy in *daf-2;sgk-1* double mutants

and identified that depletion of PINK-1 further increased the lifespan of *daf-2;sgk-1*

double mutants (Figure S13B and Table S1), suggesting that loss of function of *sgk-1*

reverts the requirement of mitophagy for lifespan extension. Interestingly, depletion of

PINK-1 in *daf-2* mutants shortened lifespan and increased SGK-1 protein levels during

aging (Figure S13C). On the contrary, PHB-1 depletion, which increases *daf-2* mutants'

lifespan [13], reduced SGK-1 protein levels (Figure S13C).

We confirmed the beneficial effects of preventing mitophagy in *sgk-1* and *phb-1* deficient

backgrounds depleting DCT-1, a mitophagy receptor acting downstream of PINK-1 [40].

Lack of DCT-1 increased the lifespan of PHB depleted worms and *sgk-1* mutants (Figure

S13D, S13E and Table S1) without affecting the lifespan of wild type worms (Figure

S13D and Table S1), thus recapitulating *pink-1(RNAi)* phenotypes. However, in the case

of *sgk-1;phb-1(RNAi)* treated mutants, the role of *dct-1* was not clear, as it increased

lifespan in one out of two replicates (Figure S13E and Table S1). These results show

that mitophagy can be beneficial for lifespan under certain conditions, but detrimental in

certain pre-conditioned mutants such as *sgk-1* and PHB depleted worms. What

determines mitophagy being beneficial or detrimental deserves further investigation.

Altogether, our results show that autophagy and the UPR^{mt} are required for the lifespan

extension conferred by PHB depletion while *pink-1* mediated mitophagy is not. In

addition, in PHB depleted animals, inhibition of the UPR^{mt} results in a remarkable

increase of SGK-1 levels during aging, while mitophagy inhibition does not. To better

understand the differential requirement of both mitochondrial quality control

mechanisms, UPR^{mt} and mitophagy, for the lifespan extension of *sgk-1* mutants upon

PHB depletion, we examined their contribution to the observed pool of autophagosomes

in *sgk-1* mutants, PHB depleted animals, and *sgk-1;phb-1(RNAi)* treated mutants (Figure

6G). When treating worms with *atfs-1(RNAi)* we observed a reduction in the autophagic

signal under all tested conditions (Figure 6G), as expected since ATFS-1 regulates

directly the expression of LGG-1 [104]. Treatment with *pink-1(RNAi)* reduced the

accumulation of autophagosomes in *phb-1(RNAi)* and in *sgk-1* mutants, meaning that

the signal observed in *phb-1(RNAi)* and in *sgk-1* mutants corresponds partially to

mitophagy (Figure 6G), which agrees with the observed increase in PINK-1 protein in

phb-1(RNAi) and *sgk-1(RNAi)* treated worms (Figure 1A). However, inhibiting mitophagy

in *sgk-1;phb-1(RNAi)* did not significantly reduce the autophagosome pool (Figure 6G).

Therefore, it is tempting to speculate that the mechanism by which PHB depletion

extends *sgk-1* mutants lifespan is by inducing the UPR^{mt}, which in turn induces general

autophagy in a TORC2 independent manner.

Discussion

Depletion of PHB, a multimeric ring-like complex sitting in the inner mitochondrial

membrane induces the mitochondrial unfolded protein response (UPR^{mt}) and shortens

lifespan in wild type worms. However, lack of PHB further enhances the lifespan of a

deletion mutant of the nutrient and growth factor responsive kinase SGK-1, and the

activation of the UPR^{mt} is reduced [14]. In this work, we analyzed the interaction between

SGK-1 and the mitochondrial PHB complex. Our results strongly suggest that

mitochondrial, lipogenic and autophagic defects of *sgk-1* mutants are caused by

defective ER function and that PHB depletion suppresses them by altering membrane

lipid composition at ER-mitochondria contact sites, where TORC2 localizes, having

ultimately a beneficial outcome for lifespan.

mTORC2 and SGK-1 have previously been shown to regulate mitochondrial function by

maintaining mitochondria-associated ER membrane (MAM) integrity [89] and SGK-1 has

been reported to localize to mitochondria upon stress [17]. More recently, SGK-1 has

been shown to phosphorylate VDAC1 at the outer mitochondrial membrane, inducing its

degradation [35]. The data we present here supports a role for SGK-1 in MAM integrity.

By electron microscopy we described bigger mitochondria in *sgk-1* mutants compared to

wild type (Figure 1B). However, no obvious mitochondrial fragmentation or severe cristae

defects could be observed as previously described [35]. This might be due to different

growing conditions or the different alleles used. Although both predicted to be null alleles,

ok538 is a deletion mutant [15], while *mg455* is a nonsense mutation [31]. Nonsense

mutations have been recently shown to trigger compensatory mechanisms [105]. We

believe a more detailed analysis of the different TORC-2/SGK-1 alleles is required to

understand the different phenotypes observed. Similarly, and contrary to what has been

reported [35], we described that *sgk-1* mutants had a dramatic increase in oxygen

consumption and a very reduced reserve capacity (Figures 1C and 1D). A low reserve

capacity corresponds to the maximal usage of the mitochondrial capacity under normal

conditions, which can be due to mitochondrial defects that rescind the ability of the

mitochondria to function at their full potential, or to a continuous higher energy demand.

Yeast Ypk1 deficient cells have reduced mitochondrial membrane potential [26], which

could explain a higher oxygen consumption to build up a membrane potential. Our

observation is also consistent with the increased mitochondrial respiration rate observed

in mTORC2/rictor knockdown in mammalian cells [43]. Consistent with increased

respiration rate, *sgk-1* mutants had increased ROS levels (Figure 1G). Interestingly,

Ypk1 has been involved in both, maintenance and response to ROS levels [26]. Although

the molecular bases of the connection between ROS levels and TORC2/Ypk1 signaling

are unknown, a link with sphingolipids homeostasis has been proposed [26]. The authors

show that sphingolipids modulate suppression of ROS while sphingolipid depletion

activates Ypk1, via ROS signaling, that in turn functions as a positive regulator of

sphingolipid biosynthesis [26]. Sphingolipids are essential components of biological

membranes, that together with ceramides regulate intracellular trafficking, signaling and

stress responses. TORC2/Ypk1 activates sphingolipid and ceramide biosynthesis [23,

74]. Furthermore, sphingolipids levels modulate Ypk1 expression in a positive feedback

loop to respond to membrane stress [75] and to regulate cell growth [24, 25]. In *C.*

elegans SGK-1 has been proposed to regulate membrane trafficking through

sphingolipids [62]. We show here that depletion of *sptl-1* and *cgt-3*, key genes in the

synthesis of ceramides and sphingolipids, induced the UPR^mt as *sgk-1* deletion mutants

do (Figure S5C and [14]) and synthetically interact with *sgk-1* (Figure S5D and [62]).

Interestingly, in worms, sphingolipid biosynthesis has been previously related with the

UPR^{mt}, with phosphorylated sphingosine being required in mitochondria to activate the

UPR^{mt} [106]. Inhibition of sphingolipids biosynthesis reduces the induction of the UPR^{mt}

due to a lack of ceramide, since ceramide supplementation rescues *hsp-6* induction

[107]. Similarly, the PHB depletion-mediated UPR^{mt} induction is suppressed in *sgk-1*

mutants [14].

Further, our transcription factor RNAi screen uncovered the implication of membrane

sterol and lipid homeostasis in the UPR^{mt} induction triggered by SGK-1 deficiency (Figure

3B). Particularly interesting were NHR-8 and SBP-1/SREBP-1, considering the role of

Ypk1 in sphingolipid metabolism [23, 26, 74, 75] and membrane sterol distribution at

plasma membrane-endoplasmic reticulum contact sites [24]. Cholesterol and

sphingolipids are essential components of cell membranes and are essential for

membrane dynamics in the cell. Here we show that depletion of key transcription factors

involved in lipogenesis and cholesterol metabolism, NHR-8 and SBP-1 [65, 69, 70],

further enhance phenotypes associated to *sgk-1* mutants, including worm size reduction,

developmental delay, and induction of the UPR^{mt} (Figure 3D and S5). Similarly, impaired

vitellogenesis is also observed in both *nhr-8* and *sgk-1* mutants [36, 65, 87]. These

results show that altered lipogenesis or membrane cholesterol signaling contribute to

mitochondrial stress and might be common processes regulated by SGK-1, NHR-8 and

SBP-1. Mammalian mTORC2 activates lipogenesis through SREBP-1 in the liver [71].

Therefore, it is possible that deficiencies in building up cholesterol in *sgk-1* deficient

animals result in defective SREBP-1/SBP-1 activation. Moreover, cholesterol depletion

prevents SGK1 signaling in *Xenopus laevis* oocytes [108] and, in yeast, TORC2

signaling is regulated at membrane contact sites which facilitate the formation of

membrane domains composed of specialized lipids [109]. Our data, altogether, strongly

suggest that, also in *C. elegans*, SGK-1 plays a key role in membrane lipid composition

and sterol homeostasis and that organellar membrane contact sites could be modulated

by TORC2/SGK-1 to coordinate cellular stress responses.

Our TEM analysis showed that *sgk-1* mutants are defective in lipid droplet and

yolk/lipoprotein production, as well as pseudocelomic lipoprotein accumulation (Figure

4, S7 and S8) which is in concordance with the reduced lipid content and vitelogenesis

observed in *sgk-1* mutants [36, 86, 87] and with the regulation of lipogenesis by mTORC2

through SREBP1 [71]. Moreover, TORC2 in different systems has been linked to

functions in different membrane-contact sites (MCS) such as ER-plasma membrane [24]

and ER-mitochondria [89]. Our TEM analysis supports a role for SGK-1 in ER

homeostasis (Figure 4A and S6), in consonance with the induced UPR[ER] observed in

sgk-1(ok538) mutants [62]. In addition, we observed that the ER was not as close to

mitochondria as in wild type animals, with areas in muscle cells in which no ER was

observed (Figure 4B). In agreement, in mammalian systems, mTORC2 regulates

mitochondrial physiology [43] by localizing to mitochondria-associated ER membrane

[89]. Our study thus, indicates that SGK-1 plays a role in ER-mitochondria MCS that is

evolutionarily conserved. The ER consists of an elaborate network of membranes that

extends throughout the whole cell, making contacts with all organelles in the cell and the

plasma membrane [110]. Therefore, ER defects probably transcend to all important roles

of the ER in membrane biology, as we observed in *sgk-1* mutants. These include

defective lipid droplet formation and lipoprotein/yolk production. Interestingly, we showed

that mitochondrial PHB dysfunction suppresses defects in lipogenesis and

yolk/lipoprotein production (Figure 4c and S8).

Additionally, we observed accumulation of myelinated structures/defective

autolysosomes during aging (Figure 4A), which suggested a blockage of the autophagic

flux, plausibly due to defective endomembrane interactions, as autophagosomes receive

lipids from essentially all organelles and organellar-contact sites [90]. We confirmed both

induction and blockage of autophagy in *sgk-1* mutants by different means (Figure 5).

Importantly, we identified a blockage of the autophagy flux in the last phase of

autophagy, degradation of the cargo (Figure 5E). This agrees with yeast data where

Ypk1 mutants show induced autophagy [29] and reduced autophagy flux [28]. Thus,

blockage of autophagy is conserved in mTORC2/SGK-1 mutants, contrary to what has

been proposed [35]. Interestingly, depletion of PHB in *sgk-1* mutants reduced the

accumulation of myelinated forms, again making the phenotype similar to the wild type

situation (Figure 5B). This is in line with findings in yeast, where autophagy is restored

to wild-type levels in *ypk1* deleted *rho0* cells under amino acid-starvation conditions [28].

Moreover, in relation with lipid homeostasis, ceramide synthesis has been involved in

autophagy regulation and lifespan extension [111-113]. Inhibition of sphingolipids

synthesis increases lifespan [113]. More in particular, depletion of ceramide synthase

genes induces autophagy and increases lifespan [111, 112]. These phenotypes

resemble the effect of *sgk-1* deletion in PHB depleted animals; reduced UPR^{mt} induction

and increased lifespan [14].

We further showed that the UPR^{mt} and general autophagy, but not mitophagy, play an

important role in PHB depleted *sgk-1* mutants. Inhibition of the UPR^{mt}, but not mitophagy,

increase SGK-1 protein levels in PHB depleted animals (Figure 2C). Similarly, autophagy

and the UPR^{mt}, but not mitophagy, are required for the lifespan extension conferred by

PHB depletion to *sgk-1* mutants (Figure 6, S13D, S13E and Table S1). And finally, the

UPR^{mt}/ATFS-1, but not mitophagy, contribute to the pool of autophagosomes in PHB-

depleted *sgk-1* mutants (Figure 6G). We hypothesize that inhibition of the UPR^{mt} mimics

inhibition of autophagy because ATFS-1 is a positive regulator of autophagy [104]. We

speculate that the main function of SGK-1 is to keep organelle membrane dynamics,

therefore maintaining an efficient autophagic flux. PHB depletion suppresses membrane

defects of *sgk-1* mutants, making autophagy and the UPR^{mt} beneficial and essential for

lifespan. In line with this, the observed increase of SGK-1 protein levels upon

mitochondrial stress (Figure 2A and 2B) could reflect a need to increase the autophagy

flux to maintain a healthy mitochondrial population. The increase of SGK-1 protein levels

is more pronounced when strong mitochondrial stress (*phb-1* depletion or PQ treatment)

is combined with UPR^{mt} inhibition but not mitophagy inhibition (Figure 2C and 2D). We

hypothesize that in such conditions, inhibition of autophagy by inhibiting ATFS-1, further

increases the need of SGK-1 to keep an efficient autophagic flux. However, under strong

mitochondrial stress, inhibition of mitophagy does not affect SGK-1 levels plausibly

because mitophagy inhibition does not confer a further stress, instead it might be

beneficial to reduce mitochondrial clearance when mitochondria are severely damaged

and biogenesis is impaired. In fact, mitophagy is detrimental for both, PHB and *sgk-1*

single mutants (Figures 6E, 6F and Table S1), while autophagy and the UPR^{mt} are not

relevant (Figure 6B, 6D and Table S1). Under highly energetically demanding conditions,

such as the reproductive period, severely damaged mitochondria (PHB depleted or PQ

treated) results in reduced SGK-1 levels probably to reduce the autophagic flux in order

to increase the mitochondrial population or to prevent the accumulation of defective

membranes that cannot efficiently contribute to autophagy. Further supporting a role for

SGK-1 in keeping the autophagic flux, inhibition of autophagy also results in increased

SGK-1 protein levels (Figure S4).

Elucidating the molecular mechanism of how lack of the PHB complex suppresses all

sgk-1 mutants' deficiencies such as mitochondrial dysfunction, increased mitochondrial

size and cytosolic ROS, lipogenesis and yolk production defects and autophagy

blockage, deserves further investigation. But many observations suggest that ER-

mitochondria associated ER membranes, MAM, might be at play. MAM has been

proposed as a hub for mTORC2-Akt signaling [114] and TORC2/SGK1 plays a

conserved role in sphingolipid and ceramide biosynthesis [23, 25, 74, 75]. The main

function of MAM is to facilitate the transfer of lipids and calcium between the two

organelles [115, 116]. MAM also mediates ER homeostasis and lipid biosynthesis by

harboring chaperones and several key lipid synthesis enzymes [117, 118], including

synthesis and maturation of cholesterol, phospholipids and sphingolipids [119-122].

Besides, MAM of rat liver contains highly active sphingolipid-specific

glycosyltransferases [123], and ceramide metabolism has been proposed to occur at

mitochondria as well as at MAM [124]. The PHB complex affects membrane lipid

composition and genetically interacts with proteins involved in ER-mitochondria

communication. PHB has been proposed to play a key role as membrane organizer since

it affects the distribution of cardiolipin and phosphatidylethanolamine [3, 125, 126]. In

addition, lack of PHB in MEFs affects lipid metabolism and cholesterol biosynthesis

[127]. Moreover, PHB proteins have been genetically linked to the mitochondrial inner

membrane organizing system (MINOS) and to ER-mitochondria encountered structures

(ERMES) complexes in synthetic lethal screens in yeast, forming part of a large ER-

mitochondria organizing network, ERMIONE [125, 128, 129]. On the other hand, PHB

has been related with sphingosine metabolism as it interacts with sphigosine-1-

phosphate in mice mitochondria [130].

In the future, it will be important to decipher the role of SGK-1 at MAM and MCS at the

molecular level and the mechanism by which PHB depletion suppresses *sgk-1* defects.

It seems plausible that PHB deficiency could alter membrane lipid composition in a

favorable manner for *sgk-1* mutants. In that direction, it would be relevant to test if

sphingolipid metabolism, lipogenesis and lipoprotein production are required for the

lifespan increase that PHB depletion confers to *sgk-1* mutants.

Materials and Methods

***C. elegans* strains and maintenance**

The *C. elegans* strains used in this study were: N2 (wild type); MRS486: *sgk-1(ok538)X*

(3x outcrossed from BR4774, in total 11x outcrossed to N2 from the CGC strain VC345;

MRS88: *daf-2(e1370)III;* MRS68: *daf-2(e1370)III;sgk-1(ok538)X;* MRS386: *byEx[Psgk-*

*1::*SGK-1*::*GFP *+ rol-6(su1006)* (1x outcrossed from BR2773 [15])*;* MRS38: *daf-*

*2(e1370)III;byEx[Psgk-1::*SGK-1::GFP *+ rol-6(su1006)];* VK1093: *vkEx1093[Pnhx-*

*2::*mCherry::LGG1]; MRS92: *sgk-1(ok538)X;vkEx1093[Pnhx-2::*mCherry::LGG1];

MRS112: *byEx[Psgk-1::*SGK-1::GFP *+ rol-6(su1006)];* *vkEx1093[Pnhx-*

*2::*mCherry::LGG1]; SJ4100: *zcIs13[Phsp-6::*GFP*]V;* MRS19: *sgk-*

*1(ok538)X;zcIs13[Phsp-6::*GFP*]V;* MRS63: *rict-1(ft7)II;zcIs13[Phsp-6::*GFP*]V;* BR4006:

*pink-1(tm1779)II;byEx655[Ppink-1::*PINK-1::GFP *+ Pmyo-2::*mCherry + herring sperm

DNA]; MAH215: *sqIs11[Plgg-1::*mCherry::GFP::LGG-1 *+ rol-6(su1006)];* MRS555: *sgk-*

*1(ok538)X;sqIs11[Plgg-1::*mCherry::GFP::LGG-1 *+ rol-6(su1006)];* MAH240:

*sqIs17[Phlh-30::*HLH-30::GFP *+ rol-6(su1006)];* MRS558: *sgk-1(ok538)X;sqIs17[Phlh-*

*30::*HLH-30::GFP *+ rol-6(su1006)];* MRS505: *sod-1(tm776)II* (2x outcrossed to N2);

MRS516: *sod-1(tm776)II;sgk-1(ok538)X*; MRS504: *sod-2(gk257)I* (2x outcrossed to N2);

MRS510: *sod-2(gk257)I;sgk-1(ok538)X*.

Unless otherwise stated, we cultured the worms according to standard methods [131].

We maintained nematodes at 20°C on nematode growth media (NGM) agar plates

seeded with live *Escherichia coli* OP50 (obtained from the CGC).

RNAi assays on plates

For RNAi experiments worms were placed on NGM plates, supplemented with 25 μg/ml

carbenicillin (Sigma-Aldrich) and 10 μg/ml nystatin (Sigma-Aldrich), seeded with HT115

(DE3) *Escherichia coli* bacteria (deficient for RNase-E) transformed with empty vector

(control) or the required target gene RNAi construct. Each bacterial strain was

inoculated, from an overnight pre-inoculum, in LB (ampicillin (100 μg/ml) (Sigma-Aldrich)

and tetracycline (15 μg/ml) (Sigma-Aldrich). The overnight culture was diluted (1:10) and

grown in a shaking incubator at 37°C for 3 hours, until it reached an OD_{600} of around 1.5.

Then, in order to induce the dsRNA expression, we added IPTG (final concentration: 1

mM) (Sigma-Aldrich) to the bacterial culture and we harvested the bacterial culture after

2 hours of incubation at 37°C by centrifugation (8 min at 6000×g, 4°C). Following, we

washed the pellets with S Basal and harvested them again. Finally, we re-suspended

bacterial pellets to a final concentration of 30 g/l in complete S Medium. Bacterial stocks

were kept at 4°C up to 4 days before being used. For all the RNAi treatments, bacterial

stocks were mixed in a proportion of 1:1 before seeding the plates.

A semi-synchronous embryo population was grown on plates seeded with the

appropriate RNAi bacterial clone at 20°C until the desired stage (young adult, day 1, day

5 or day 10 of adulthood). During the egg-laying period, we transferred worms every day

and every 2 days thereafter.

To pharmacologically induce a strong mitochondrial stress, we transferred L3 to fresh

RNAi plates containing 0.25 mM Paraquat (Sigma-Aldrich).

Imaging

On the day of imaging, worms were anesthetized with 10 mM Levamisole (Sigma-

Aldrich) or with a mixture of 10 mM Levamisole and 5 mM NaN_3 (Sigma-Aldrich) for

confocal imaging and mounted on 2% agarose pads. P*pink-1::*PINK-1::GFP, P*nhx-*

*2::*mCherry::LGG1 and P*sgk-1::*SGK-1::GFP reporter were observed using the AxioCam

MRm camera on a Zeiss ApoTome Microscope; P*lgg-1*::mCherry::GFP::LGG-1 reporter

was imaged with a confocal Nikon A1R equipped with a Plan Apo VC 60x/1.4 objective

and P*hsp-6::*GFP animals were visualized with a Leica M205 Stereoscope equipped with

a Plan Apo 5.0x/0.50 LWD objective and a ORCA-Flash4.0 LT Hamamatsu digital

camera.

Image analysis was performed using the ImageJ software. Emission intensity was

measured on greyscale images with a pixel depth of 16 bits. At least two independent

assays were carried out and the combined data was analyzed using the GraphPad Prism

software (version 5.0a).

Electron microscopy

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) of *C. elegans* was carried out as described

[132] with small modifications. Adult worms, at day 1 or 5, were immersed in 0.8%

glutaraldehyde + 0.8% osmium tetroxide in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer, pH7.4.

Carefully, under a dissecting scope, we cut the animals with a scalp at the posterior end

of the intestine, removing the tail, and kept the samples for 1 hour on ice under dark

conditions to allow complete penetration of the fixing solution. We washed the worms

three times with 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer and fixed them over night at 4°C in 2%

osmium tetroxide in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer; the entire procedure was performed

on ice. On the next day, we washed the worms three times with 0.1 M sodium cacodylate

buffer on ice and finally embedded the worms in small cubes of 1% agarose. We then

dehydrated the samples by incubating them in 50%, 70% and 90% ethanol for 10

minutes each, followed by 3 washes of 10 minutes each in 100% ethanol, at room

temperature. Next, we incubated the samples in a 50:50 ethanol/propylene oxide

solution for 15 minutes followed by 2 incubations of 15 minutes each in 100% propylene

oxide. We then infiltrated the samples on a rotator or with an embedding machine for 2

hours in a 3:1 ratio of propylene oxide to resin and next for 2 hours in a 1:3 ratio of

propylene oxide to 3 resin. Following, we incubated the samples overnight in 100% resin

and the next day changed to fresh 100% resin for 4 hours. We finally arranged the

samples in a flat embedding mold and cured them at 60°C for 2 days.

We cut the worms at the level of the first intestinal cells, immediately before and after the

gonad turn, specifically at 175 μm, 185 μm, 250 μm and 350 μm from the mouth.

For myelinated forms quantification, we analyzed 12 areas of 56 μm² per condition and

counted together multivesicular bodies (MVB), multillaminar bodies (MLB) and

myelinated forms. Data was analyzed using the GraphPad Prism software (version 5.0a).

Oxygen consumption

Worm oxygen consumption was measured using the Seahorse XFp Analyzer (Agilent)

as described [133]. Briefly, worms at the young adults stage (30 per well) or day 6

adult worms (20 per well), were transferred into M9-filled Seahorse plates. OCR was

measured 8 times in basal conditions as well as after each injection. Working solutions

were diluted in M9 at the final concentrations: FCCP (Sigma-Aldrich) 250 μM,

oligomycin (Sigma-Aldrich) 250 μM and NaN_3 (Sigma-Aldrich) 400 mM. Data were

normalized by the protein content quantified by the bicinchoninic acid assay

(Thermofsiher). The OCR values were arranged in order to see the response to the

drug. Basal OCR corresponded to the average of the 8 measurements under basal

conditions, while the rest of the values derived from the average of the last 4

measurements. At least three independent assays were carried out and the combined

data was analyzed by t-test using GraphPad Prism software (version 5.0a).

Quantification of Reactive oxygen species

Cytoplasmic ROS was quantified using 2,7-dichlorofluorescin-diacetate (H2-DCFDA)

dye (Sigma-Aldrich) modified from [13]. Briefly, 150 nematodes at the young adult stage

were manually selected and recovered in M9 buffer to a final concentration of 1 worm/μl.

50 μl of the worm suspension was transferred into a 96-well flat bottom plate in triplicate

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) and 50 μl of 100uM H2-DCF-DA solution was added to the

wells (H2-DCF-DA to a final concentration of 50 μM). Immediately, basal fluorescence

was measured (T_o) (Ex/Em: 485/520 nm) using a microplate reader (PolarStar Omega.

BMG, LabTech). After 1 hour of incubation at 20 ºC shaking, fluorescence was measure

one again (T_1). The final fluorescence was calculated by T_1-T_0. Data were normalized

by the protein content quantified by the bicinchoninic acid assay (BCA) (Thermo

Fisher Scientific) and manually counting the number of worms per well. At least three

independent assays were carried out and the combined data was analyzed by *t*-test

using GraphPad Prism software (version 5.0a).

Protein Content Quantification

Total protein content was determined using the bicinchoninic acid (BCA) method.

Briefly, pellets from 50 worms were dried in a Speed Vac Concentrator (SPD12 1P

SpeedVac, Thermo Scientific), 20 μl of 1 M NaOH were added to the dry pellet. Fat

was degraded by heating at 70°C for 25 min and 180 μl of distilled water was added.

After vortexing, the tubes were centrifuged at 14000 rpm for 5 min and 25 μl of the

supernatant were transferred into a 96 well plate. Next, 200 μl of the BCA reagent,

prepared according to manufacturer's instructions (Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit,

Thermo Scientific) was added to the sample. After incubation at 37°C for 30 min, the

plate was cooled to room temperature and absorbance was measured using the

POLARstar Omega luminometer (BGM Labtech) at 560 nm.

Autophagy assays

In order to monitor autophagy in *C. elegans* we used the reporter strain Ex[*Pnhx-*

2::mCherry::LGG-1] [94]. Animals were classified in 5 different expression categories

(Supplementary figure S10): <u>Very low:</u> animals with a completely diffused expression

pattern; <u>Low:</u> animals with a generally diffuse expression pattern but with the presence

of small puncta; <u>Medium:</u> animals with puncta along the intestine; <u>High:</u> animals showing

aggregation of LGG-1 puncta mostly in the posterior part of the intestine; <u>Very high:</u>

animals with large LGG-1 aggregates along the whole intestine. To avoid bias in the

classification process, different researchers performed blind scoring on the same animal

images and disputes were resolved after discussion.

To determine whether increased levels of LGG-1 puncta corresponded to induced

autophagy or a blockage in the flux, we treated day 5 adult worms with Bafilomycine A_1

(BafA; Sigma-Aldrich), which blocks lysosome acidification. Animals were washed from

plates with M9 buffer and harvested in 15 ml tubes. In order to remove excess of bacteria,

we washed animals at least three times with M9 by letting the worms to settle at the

bottom of the tubes and then removed the supernatant. After washes, worms were

incubated for 6 hours in M9 with BafA (1.6 mM) or DMSO (1.5%) at 20°C with agitation.

At least 3 independent assays were carried out and the combined data was analyzed by

t-test using GraphPad Prism software (version 5.0a).

Lifespan Analysis

All lifespans were performed at 20°C. Semi-synchronized eggs were obtained by

hypochlorite treatment of adult hermaphrodites and placed on NGM plates seeded with

HT115 *E. coli* bacteria. During the course of the lifespan assays, we transferred adult

worms to fresh plates every day during their reproductive period and afterwards on

alternate days. Worms were scored as dead when they no longer responded to touch,

while exploded animals, those exhibiting bagging (embryo hatching inside the worm), or

dried out at the edges of the plates were censored.

For N-Acetyl-L-Cysteine (NAC) (Sigma-Aldrich) treatments we added NAC to the RNAi

medium to a final concentration of 8 mM.

We used the GraphPad Prism software (version 5.0a) to plot survival curves and to

determine significant differences in lifespans (log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test). See Table S1

for lifespan statistics.

RNAi screen

We performed an image-based RNAi screen as previously described[12]. Briefly, we

dispensed synchronized *sgk-1(ok538);*P*hsp-6*::GFP L1 larvae in 96 well plates using a

microplate dispenser (EL406 washer dispenser, BioTek) and added the corresponding

dsRNA encoding bacterial culture. Next, we incubated the worms at 20°C with constant

shaking (120 rpm - New Brunswick™ Innova® 44/44R) until they reached the young adult

stage. We acquired pictures of each well using the IN Cell Analyzer 2000 (GE

Healthcare) and performed the image analysis with a user-defined protocol which was

developed on the Developer Toolbox software (GE Healthcare). We tested 836 RNAi

clones in duplicate and candidates were defined based on the adjusted p value and the

fold change (FC) (P value < 0.001 and FC < 0.6).

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Author contributions

B.H.R., M.M.P.J. and M.A.-S. designed the experiments; B.H.R., M.M.P.J., M.J.R.-P. A.P., M.D.M.-B. P.dl.C.R., R.G. and M.A.-S. carried out experiments; B.H.R., M.M.P.J., M.J.R.-P. A.P., M.D.M.-B. P.dl.C.R., R.G. and M.A.-S analyzed the data and interpreted results and B.H.R. and M.A.-S wrote the manuscript. All authors read, commented and approved the final manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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Figure 1: Altered mitochondrial structure and function of *sgk-1* mutants suppressed by prohibitin depletion. A. Quantification of P*pink-1*::PINK-1::GFP in worms treated with RNAi against *atfs-1*, *phb-1* and *sgk-1* at the young adult stage. **B.** Electron microscopy images of hypodermis, muscle and intestine of wild type and *sgk-1* mutants at day 1 of adulthood. Yellow arrows show mitochondria. Bar size: 1 µm. **C-F.** Seahorse measurements in wild type animals, *phb-1(RNAi)* treated worms, *sgk-1* mutants and *sgk-1;phb-1* depleted mutants at the young adult stage. **C.** Mitochondrial oxygen consumption rate. **D.** Basal and maximal respiratory capacity. **E.** ATP-linked respiration and **F.** Non-mitochondrial respiration. **G.** Reactive oxygen species (ROS) levels measured at the young adult stage of wild type animals, *phb-1(RNAi)* treated worms, *sgk-1* mutants and *sgk-1;phb-1* depleted mutants. **H.** Electron microscopy images of muscle cells, at day 5 of adulthood, of wild type and *sgk-1(ok538)* mutants under normal and mitochondrial stress conditions (*phb-1(RNAi)*). Yellow arrows point to mitochondria. Bar size: 1 µm. (Mean ± SD; *** *p* value < 0.001, ** *p* value < 0.01, * *p* value < 0.1, ns not significant compared against its respective *control(RNAi)*, ### *p* value < 0.001 compared against wild type *control(RNAi)*; *t*-test. Combination of three independent replicates).

Figure 2: SGK-1 protein levels differentially respond to mitochondrial quality control mechanisms, depending on the level of mitochondrial stress. A. SGK-1 protein levels during aging, from day 1 to day 10 upon strong mitochondrial stress caused by PHB depletion or treating worms with Paraquat (PQ) (0.25 mM). **B.** SGK-1 protein levels at day 1, day 5 and day 10 upon inhibition of mitochondrial quality control mechanisms; UPR[mt] by *atfs-1(RNAi)* and mitophagy by *pink-1(RNAi)*. **C.** SGK-1 protein levels at day 1, day 5 and day 10 upon combination of mitochondrial stress by PHB depletion and inhibition of either the UPR[mt] (*atfs-1(RNAi)*) or mitophagy (*pink-1(RNAi)*). **D.** SGK-1 protein levels at day 1, day 5 and day 10 upon combination of mitochondrial stress by PQ treatment and inhibition of either the UPR[mt] (*atfs-1(RNAi)*) or mitophagy (*pink-1(RNAi)*) (Mean ± SD; *** *p* value < 0.001, ** *p* value < 0.01, * *p* value < 0.1, ns not significant; ANOVA test. Combination of at least three independent replicates.).

Figure 3: The UPR^mt in *sgk-1* mutants is modulated by a battery of transcription factors involved in membrane sterol and lipid homeostasis. A. Quantification of the UPR^mt reporter P*hsp-6*::GFP in wild type animals (left) and *sgk-1* mutants (right) upon depletion of *daf-16, skn-1, hif-1* and *hsf-1*. (Mean ± SD; *** *p* value < 0.001, * *p* value < 0.1 compared against control(RNAi); ANOVA test). Representative images are shown. **B.** Fold change of GFP intensity of the 20 clones whose depletion reduces the mitochondrial stress response in *sgk-1* mutants.**C.** Length of the worms (μm) upon depletion of the 20 candidates in *sgk-1* mutants. **D.** Quantification of the UPR^mt reporter (left upper panel) and worm area (left bottom panel) in wild type animals and *sgk-1* mutants upon depletion of *sbp-1* and *nhr-8* (Mean ± SD; **** *p* value < 0.0001, *** *p* value < 0.001, ** *p* value < 0.005 compared against control(RNAi); *t*-test). Representative images of the expression level of the UPR^mt reporter are shown in the right upper panel, brightfield images in the right bottom panel.

Figure 4: Impaired lipogenesis and lipoprotein/yolk formation in *sgk-1* mutants is suppressed by prohibitin depletion

A. Transmission electron microscopy images of the first intestinal cells of wild type and *sgk-1* mutants during aging (day 1 and day 5 of adulthood). Orange arrows point to defective ER exit sites. Yellow arrows point to forming LD. Red arrow, point to abnormal autolysosomes/myelinated forms. Bar size: 500 nm. For more details see Supplementary figure S6. **B.** Transmission electron microscopy images of muscle, delineated with a purple dashed line, of wild type and *sgk-1* mutants at day 1 of adulthood. Bar size: 1 µm. **C.** Transmission electron microscopy images of wild type worms, *phb-1(RNAi)* treated worms, *sgk-1* mutants and *sgk-1;phb-1(RNAi)* treated mutants at day 5 of adulthood. Bar size: 5 µm. M: mitochondria, ER: Endoplasmic Reticulum, LD: Lipid Droplet, Y: Yolk, G: Golgi.

Figure 5: Impaired autophagy flux in *sgk-1* mutants is suppressed by prohibitin depletion. A. Quantification of the expression of the intestinal autophagy reporter Ex[P*nxh-2*::mCherry::LGG-1] (see materials and methods and figure S10) in wild type animals, *phb-1* depleted worms, *sgk-1* mutants and *sgk-1;phb-1(RNAi)* treated mutants at day 5 of adulthood. **B.** Electron microscopy images of wild type and *sgk-1* mutants in the intestine under basal and mitochondrial stress conditions (*phb-1(RNAi)*) at day 1 of adulthood. Yellow arrows show the myelinated forms that are quantified in the bottom panel. LD: lipid droplet, Y: yolk particles. Bar size: 1μm. **C.** Images of the reporter P*hlh-30*::HLH-30::GFP in wild type and *sgk-1* mutants at day 1 of adulthood in OP50. **D.** Quantification of the intestinal autophagy reporter Ex[P*nxh-2*::mCherry::LGG-1] in wild type animals and *sgk-1* mutants, treated or not with bafilomycin A1 (Baf A), at day 5 of adulthood in HT115. **E.** Images of the reporter P*lgg-1*::mCherry::GFP::LGG-1 in wild type animals and *sgk-1* mutants at day 5 of adulthood in OP50. Brightfield images are shown in the upper panel, red images correspond to autophagosomes (AP) and autolysosomes (AL) and green images correspond only to autophagosomes. Bottom panel show merged images. Bar size: 10 μm. (Mean ± SD; *** *p* value < 0.001,** *p* value < 0.01, * *p* value < 0.1, ns not significant; t-test. Combination of three independent replicates).

Figure 6: Autophagy and the UPR^mt, but not mitophagy, are required for the enhanced longevity of *sgk-1* mutants upon PHB depletion. Lifespan of wild type worms (left) and *sgk-1* mutants (right) under normal and mitochondrial stress conditions (*phb-1(RNAi)*) upon inhibition of the UPR^mt (**A** and **B**), inhibition of autophagy (**C** and **D**) and inhibition of mitophagy (**E** and **F**). One representative replicate is shown. Replicates and statistics are shown in table S1. **G.** Quantification of the autophagy reporter Ex[P*nxh-2*::mCherry::LGG-1] in wild type animals, *phb-1(RNAi)* treated worms, *sgk-1(ok538)* mutants and *sgk-1;phb-1 depleted* mutants at day 5 of adulthood upon inhibition of the UPR^mt (*atfs-1(RNAi)*) and inhibition of mitophagy (*pink-1(RNAi)*) (*** *p* value < 0.001, ** *p* value < 0.01, * *p* value < 0.1, ns not significant; t-test. Combination of at least three independent replicates).

Figure S1: Electron microscopy images of hypodermal, muscle and intestinal tissue of wild type and *sgk-1(ok538)* mutants at day 5 of adulthood in HT115 bacteria. Yellow arrows point to mitochondria. Abnormal and swollen mitochondria can be observed in *sgk-1* mutants compared to wild type. Lipid droplets (LD) are labelled in the hypodermal tissue. In the intestine, abnormal autophagosomes, red arrows, are seen in *sgk-1* mutants. Bar size: 1µm.

Figure S2: Oxygen consumption rate of wild type, *phb-1* depleted worms, *sgk-1* mutants and *sgk-1;phb-1(RNAi)* treated mutants at day 6 and lifespan of wild type and *sgk-1* mutants. A. Mitochondrial performance of wild type, *phb-1* depleted worms, *sgk-1* mutants and *sgk-1;phb-1(RNAi)* treated mutants at day 6 of adulthood. **B.** Basal respiratory capacity of wild type, *phb-1* depleted worms, *sgk-1* mutants and *sgk-1;phb-1(RNAi)* treated mutants at day 6 of adulthood. (Mean ± SD; *** *p* value < 0.001, ** *p* value < 0.01, ns not significant; t-test. Combination of three independent replicates is shown.). **C.** Lifespan of wild type, *sod-1* mutants and *sod-2* mutants. **D.** Lifespan of *sgk-1* mutants, *sgk-1;sod-1* and *sgk-1;sod-2* double mutants. Depletion of *sod-1* shortens lifespan of *sgk-1* mutants. **E.** Lifespan of *sgk-1* mutants and *sgk-1;phb-1(RNAi)* treated mutants upon treatment with the antioxidant NAC. NAC prevents the enhancement of *sgk-1* lifespan upon PHB depletion without affecting lifespan of *sgk-1* mutants. **F.** Lifespan of wild type worms and *phb-1* depleted worms upon treatment with the antioxidant NAC. Lifespan replicates and statistics are shown in table S1.

Figure S3: Electron microscopy images of muscle mitochondria of wild type, *sgk-1(ok538)* mutants, *phb-1(RNAi)* treated animals and *sgk-1(ok538)* mutants upon *phb-1(RNAi)* .Top images show a general view of a section. White boxes are magnified in the immediate image below. Yellow arrows point to mitochondria. Abnormal and swollen mitochondria can be observed in *sgk-1* mutants compared to wild type. Depletion of *phb-1* results in mitochondrial fragmentation in wild type worms and suppression of the increased mitochondrial size in *sgk-1* mutants. Bar sizes: 10 µm (top panel), 2 µm (middle and bottom panels).

Figure S4: Ex[P*sgk-1*::SGK-1::GFP] expression levels at day 1, day 5 and day 10 of adulthood in animals treated with control(RNAi), *bec-1(RNAi)* and *unc-51(RNAi)*. SGK-1 protein levels at day 1, day 5 and day 10 upon inhibition of different steps of autophagy: initiation (*unc-51(RNAi)*) and nucleation (*bec-1(RNAi)*). (Mean ± SD; *** *p* value < 0.001, ANOVA test. Combination of at least three independent replicates is shown.).

Figure S5: Quantification of the UPR^mt in _rict-1_ mutants and effect of depleting lipid homeostasis genes on the UPR^mt in wild type and in _sgk-1_ mutants. A. Quantification of the UPR^mt reporter in _ric-1_ mutants upon depletion of _daf-16, skn-1, hif-1_ and _hsf-1_. (Mean ± SD; *** _p_ value < 0.001 compared against control(RNAi); ANOVA test). Representative images are shown. **B.** Developmental delay of _sgk-1_ mutants upon depletion of _sbp-1_ and _nhr-8_. Worms were imaged when _sgk-1_ mutants reached the young adult stage. Induced UPR^mt upon depletion of _sbp-1_ and _nhr-8_ can be observed. **C.** Quantification of the UPR^mt reporter upon depletion of ceramide/sphingolipid genes _sptl-1_ and _cgt-3_ (Mean ± SD; **** _p_ value < 0.0001, *** _p_ value < 0.001; ANOVA test). Representative images are shown. **D.** Genetic interaction of _sgk-1_ mutants with ceramide/sphingolipid genes _sptl-1_ and _cgt-3_. Worms were imaged when _sgk-1_ mutants reached the young adult stage. While _cgt-3_ depleted animals eventually reached adulthood, _sptl-1_ depletion arrested development of _sgk-1_ mutants at the L3-L4 stage. Induced UPR^mt upon depletion of _sptl-1_ and _cgt-3_ can be observed.

wild type   *sgk-1(ok538)*

Day 1

Figure S6: Electron microscopy images showing altered ER and Golgi dynamics. Transmission electron microscopy images of the first intestinal cells of wild type and *sgk-1* mutants at day 1, corresponding to figure 4a. Some endoplasmic reticulum is delineated with dashed red lines. Golgi apparatus and vesicles areas are highlighted with yellow shadows. Bar size: 500 nm.

Figure S7: Electron microscopy images of the anterior intestinal cells of a wild-type and two *sgk-1(ok538)* adults grown in HT115 bacteria at day 1 of adulthood. Top images show a general view of a section where the intestine is delineated with a pink line. Membrane detachment of gonadal tissue can be observed in *sgk*-1 mutants. White squares are magnified in the immediate image below. M: mitochondria, LD: Lipid Droplets, ER: Endoplasmic Reticulum, G: Golgi, Y: Yolk, Vac: Vacuoles, Nuc: nucleus. Increased ER emanating structures (black arrows, bottom middle panel) and complex myelinated autophagic structures (red arrows, bottom right panel) are observed in *sgk-1* mutants. Bar sizes: 10 μm (top panels), 1 μm (middle panels) and 500 nm (bottom panels).

Figure S8: Electron microscopy images of the beginning of the intestine, before and after the gonad turn, of wild-type, *sgk-1* mutants, *phb-1* depleted animals and *sgk-1;phb-1(RNAi) treated* mutants at day 5 of adulthood. Top images show a general view of a section where the intestine is delineated with a pink line. Bottom images show a magnification where we observed that *sgk-1* mutants are defective in lipid droplet formation and vitellogenesis and have little accumulation of pseudocoelomic lipoproteins compared to wild type and prohibitin depleted animals. Depletion of the mitochondrial PHB complex suppressed both, lipid droplet accumulation and yolk production defects of *sgk-1* mutants. Bar sizes: 10 µm (top panels) and 5 µm (bottom panels) for each of the cuts. Intestinal yolk/lipoproteins are marked with Y, blue asterisks mark pseudocoelomic lipoproteins and yellow arrows label lipid droplets.

Figure S9: Electron microscopy images of the first intestinal cells of two wild-type and two *sgk-1(ok538)* adults, grown in OP50 bacteria, at day 5 of adulthood. Top images show a general view of a section where the intestine is delineated with a pink line. *sgk-1* mutants show drastically reduced Yolk (Y) and lipid droplet (LD) accumulation in the intestine, as well as reduce lipid content in the hypodermis. Lipoprotein accumulation in the body cavity is also reduced in *sgk-1* mutants compared to wild type worms. White squares are magnified in the bottom images. Bottom images show altered mitochondrial size, reduced LD and Y particles in *sgk-1* mutants. In wild type animals LD emanate from the ER and contribute to both LD and Y formation (left bottom). Such events are not observed in *sgk-1* mutants, instead complex myelinated autophagic structures are observed (red arrows). Bar sizes: 20 µm (top images) and 1 µm (bottom images). M: mitochondria, LD: Lipid Droplets, ER: Endoplasmic Reticulum, Y: Yolk, Vac: Vacuoles.

A

B

Figure S10: Expression pattern of the autophagy reporter Ex[P*nhx-2*::mCherry::LGG-1]. A. Animals were classified in 5 different categories based on the reporter expression pattern: Very low: animals with a completely diffused expression pattern; Low: animals with a generally diffuse expression pattern but with the presence of small puncta; Medium: animals with puncta along the intestine; High: animals showing aggregation of LGG-1 puncta mostly in the posterior part of the intestine; Very high: animals with large LGG-1 aggregates along the whole intestine. **B.** Quantification of the autophagy reporter Ex[P*nxh-2*::mCherry::LGG-1] in wild type animals, *phb-1(RNAi)* treated worms, *sgk-1(ok538)* mutants and *sgk-1;phb-1 depleted* mutants at day 5 of adulthood under *unc-51(RNAi) treatment.* (*** *p* value < 0.001, * *p* value < 0.1, ns not significant; t-test. Combination of at least three independent replicates.).

A

P*lgg-1*::mCherry::GFP::LGG-1

wild type   *sgk-1(ok538)*

AP and AL

DIC

B

Ex[P*nhx-2*::mCherry::LGG-1]

Wild type   SGK-1 o/e

control(*RNAi*)

phb-1(RNAi)

Figure S11: SGK-1 and autophagy. A. Images of the P*lgg-1*::mCherry::GFP::LGG-1 reporter in wild type animals and *sgk-1* mutants at day 5 of adulthood in OP50. Red dots correspond to autophagosomes (AP) and autolysosomes (AL) in the hypodermis and pharynx. Brightfield images are shown in the bottom panel. Bar size: 10 μm. **B.** Ex[P*nhx-2*::LGG1::mCherry] expression pattern in wild type and SGK-1 overexpressing animals, under normal and mitochondrial stress conditions, at day 5 of adulthood. LGG-1 protein shows a completely diffuse expression pattern in worms overexpressing SGK-1 even under mitochondrial stress conditions.

Figure S12: Lifespan assays of *sgk-1* mutants treated with *phb-1(RNAi)* in combination with *atg-16* (RNAi) and *bec-1 (RNAi).* Replicates and statistics are shown in table S1.

Figure S13: A. Lifespan of *daf-2* mutants treated with *pink-1(RNAi)* diluted with control(RNAi). **B.** Lifespan of *daf-2;sgk-1* double mutants upon inhibition of mitophagy (*pink-1(RNAi)*). **C.** Images of Ex[P*sgk-1*::SGK-1::GFP] expression levels at day 5 and day 7 of adulthood in *daf-2(e1370)* mutants treated with *phb-1(RNAi)* and *pink-1(RNAi)* (right). Quantification of SGK-1 protein levels. (Mean ± SD; *** *p* value < 0.001, ns not significant, t test.). **D.** Lifespan of wild type and *phb-1* depleted worms upon inhibition of mitophagy (*dct-1(RNAi)*). **E.** Lifespan of *sgk-1* mutants and *sgk-1;phb-1(RNAi)* treated mutants upon inhibition of mitophagy (*dct-1(RNAi)*). Lifespan replicates and statistics are shown in table S1.

Table S1: Lifespan data

	Median survival	max survival*	# deaths/total	P value vs ctrl RNAi	P value vs phb-1 RNAi/NAC-
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl RNAi	20	27	133 / 240		
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_atfs-1 RNAi	21	26	134 / 240	0,7119 (ns)	
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_phb-1 RNAi	23	28	143 / 240	0,0013 (**)	
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_pink-1 RNAi	23	27	122 / 228	0,0020 (**)	
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_unc-51 RNAi	21	25	95 / 240	0,1403 (ns)	
sgk-1(ok538),phb-1_atfs-1 RNAi	17	22	166 / 240		< 0.0001 (***)
sgk-1(ok538),phb-1_pink-1 RNAi	25	30	157 / 240		0,0008 (***)
sgk-1(ok538),phb-1_unc-51 RNAi	19	24	149 / 240		< 0.0001 (***)
wild type,*ctrl* RNAi	17	21	106 / 160		
wild type,*ctrl_atfs-1* RNAi	18	22	110 / 160	0,3095 (ns)	
wild type,*ctrl_phb-1* RNAi	14	17	62 / 160	< 0.0001 (***)	
wild type,*ctrl_pink-1* RNAi	17	22	115 / 160	0,5091 (ns)	
wild type,*ctrl_unc-51* RNAi	14	17	58 / 160	< 0.0001 (***)	
wild type,*phb-1_atfs-1* RNAi	14	18	107 / 160		0,1535 (ns)
wild type,*phb-1_pink-1* RNAi	16	19	42 / 120		0,0002 (***)
wild type,*phb-1_unc-51* RNAi	13	17	42 / 160		0,9061 (ns)
wild type,*ctrl* RNAi	15	17	54 / 160		
wild type,*ctrl_phb-1* RNAi	14	16	39 / 160	< 0.0001 (***)	
wild type,*ctrl_unc-51* RNAi	14	16	17 / 143	0,0005 (***)	
wild type,*phb-1_unc-51* RNAi	13	14	22 / 138		0,0393 (*)
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl RNAi	23	27	119 / 192		
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_atfs-1 RNAi	23	26	114 / 200	0,8783 (ns)	
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_phb-1 RNAi	24	32	131 / 200	0,0002 (***)	
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_pink-1 RNAi	25	29	75 / 182	0,0025 (**)	
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_unc-51 RNAi	25	26	110 / 200	0,1484 (ns)	
sgk-1(ok538),phb-1_atfs-1 RNAi	19	23	134 / 199		< 0.0001 (***)
sgk-1(ok538),phb-1_pink-1 RNAi	25	29	113 / 193		0,6703 (ns)
sgk-1(ok538),phb-1_unc-51 RNAi	20	23	108 / 173		< 0.0001 (***)
wild type,*ctrl* RNAi	17	21	75 / 115		
wild type,*ctrl_dct-1* RNAi	16	23	107 / 125	0,1355 (ns)	
wild type,*ctrl_phb-1* RNAi	13	17	56 / 102	< 0.0001 (***)	
wild type,*ctrl_pink-1* RNAi	16	21	103 / 125	0.5787 (ns)	
wild type,*phb-1_dct-1* RNAi	16	19	80 / 123		0,0004 (***)
wild type,*phb-1_pink-1* RNAi	16	21	73 / 116		< 0.0001 (***)
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl RNAi	21	26	113 / 150		
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_dct-1 RNAi	22	38	134 / 150	0,0224 (*)	
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_phb-1 RNAi	28	40	117 / 150	< 0.0001 (***)	
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_pink-1 RNAi	24	28	126 / 150	0,0091 (**)	
sgk-1(ok538),phb-1_dct-1 RNAi	26	38	98 / 150		0,0097 (**)
sgk-1(ok538),phb-1_pink-1 RNAi	31	27	93 / 150		0,7601 (ns)

sgk-1(ok538),ctrl RNAi_NAC-	17	24	131 / 150		
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl RNAi_NAC+	19	24	127 / 150		0,0097 (**)
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_phb-1 RNAi_NAC-	24	35	112 /150	< 0.0001 (***)	
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_phb-1 RNAi_NAC+	21	28	115 / 150		< 0.0001 (***)
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl RNAi_NAC-	19	26	112 / 126		
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl RNAi_NAC+	20	24	102 / 126		0,9379 (ns)
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_phb-1 RNAi_NAC-	21	31	105 / 126	0.0001 (***)	
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_phb-1 RNAi_NAC+	20	26	107 / 126		0,0003 (***)
wild type,*ctrl* RNAi_NAC-	18	21	86 / 126		
wild type,*ctrl* RNAi_NAC+	17	20	79 / 126		0,2159 (ns)
wild type,*ctrl_phb-1* RNAi_NAC-	16	19	85 / 126	< 0.0001 (***)	
wild type,*ctrl_phb-1* RNAi_NAC+	14	17	66 / 126		0,0004 (***)
daf-2(e1370),ctrl RNAi	41	56	95 / 150		
daf-2(e1370),ctrl_pink-1 RNAi	39	49	82 / 150	0,0112 (*)	
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl RNAi	19	25	147 / 150		
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_dct-1 RNAi	22	27	132 / 150	< 0.0001 (***)	
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl RNAi	22	28	136 / 168		
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_dct-1 RNAi	24	31	146 / 167	0,0071 (**)	
sgk-1(ok538),phb-1_dct-1 RNAi	26	35	139 / 169		0,0477 (*)
sgk-1(ok538), ctrl RNAi	32	39	127 / 180		
sgk-1(ok538);sod-1(tm776)	27	32	142 / 180	< 0.0001 (***)	
sgk-1(ok538);sod-2(gk257)	32	41	141 / 180	0,0002 (***)	
wild type,*ctrl* RNAi	19	28	147 / 180		
sod-1(tm776)	19	28	154 / 180	0,1214 (ns)	
sod-2(gk257)	25	34	164 / 180	< 0.0001 (***)	
sgk-1(ok538), ctrl RNAi	29	36	104 / 180		
sgk-1(ok538);sod-1(tm776)	27	34	123 / 180	0,0106 (*)	
sgk-1(ok538);sod-2(gk257)	32	41	110 / 180	0,0093 (**)	
wild type,*ctrl* RNAi	19	28	140 / 180		
sod-1(tm776)	21	28	155 / 180	0,3612 (ns)	
sod-2(gk257)	22	32	155 / 180	< 0.0001 (***)	
wild type,*ctrl* RNAi	20	25	147 / 180		
wild type,*ctrl_atfs-1* RNAi	20	25	145 / 180	0,3861 (ns)	
wild type,*ctrl_phb-1* RNAi	18	22	124 / 180	0,0001 (***)	
wild type,*phb-1_atfs-1* RNAi	18	22	152 / 180		0,7498 (ns)
daf-2(e1370);sgk-1(ok538),ctrl RNAi	70	104	62 / 151		
daf-2(e1370);sgk-1(ok538),pink1 RNA	89	121	50 / 144	< 0.0001 (***)	
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl RNAi	20	30	82 / 308		

sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_phb-1 RNAi	27	34	62 / 289	< 0.0001 (***)	
sgk-1(ok538),ctrl_pink-1 RNAi	25	30	71 / 241	0,0413 (*)	
sgk-1(ok538),phb-1_atg-16 RNAi	25	30	58 / 280		0,0036 (**)
sgk-1(ok538),phb-1_bec-1 RNAi	17	21	34 / 133		< 0.0001 (***)
sgk-1(ok538),phb-1_pink-1 RNAi	27	34	87 / 257		0,6784 (ns)
wild type,*ctrl* RNAi_NAC-	19	27	85 / 149		
wild type,*ctrl* RNAi_NAC+	15	23	51 / 104		0,0001 (***)
wild type,*ctrl_phb-1* RNAi_NAC-	19	27	66 / 149	0,019 (*)	
wild type,*ctrl_phb-1* RNAi_NAC+	15	27	82 / 141		0,0005 (***)

P values were calculated using the log-rank test, as described in Methods.

* day where more than 90% of population is dead

#The number of confirmed death events, divided by the total number of animals included the assays is sh

Total equals the number of animals that died plus the number of animals that were censored.

Total equals the number of animals that died plus the number of animals that