An intestinally secreted host factor limits bacterial colonization but promotes microsporidia

invasion of *C. elegans* 

1

2

3

6

11

14

- 4 Hala Tamim El Jarkass<sup>1</sup>, Calvin Mok<sup>1</sup>, Michael R. Schertzberg<sup>3</sup>, Andrew G. Fraser<sup>1,3</sup>, Emily R.
- 5 Troemel<sup>2</sup>, Aaron W. Reinke<sup>1#</sup>.
- 7 Department of Molecular Genetics, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada.
- 8 <sup>2</sup> Division of Biological Sciences, University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, California, United
- 9 States of America.
- 10 <sup>3</sup> Donnelly Centre, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada
- 12 #Corresponding author
- 13 <u>aaron.reinke@utoronto.ca</u>
- 15 Abstract
- Microsporidia are ubiquitous obligate intracellular pathogens of animals. These parasites often
- infect hosts through an oral route, but little is known about the function of host intestinal proteins
- 18 that facilitate microsporidia invasion. To identify such factors necessary for infection by
- 19 Nematocida parisii, a natural microsporidian pathogen of Caenorhabditis elegans, we performed
- 20 a forward genetic screen to identify mutant animals that have a Fitness Advantage with
- 21 Nematocida (Fawn). We isolated four fawn mutants that are resistant to Nematocida infection and
- 22 contain mutations in T14E8.4, which we renamed aaim-1 (Antibacterial and Aids invasion by
- 23 Microsporidia). Expression of AAIM-1 in the intestine of aaim-1 animals restores N. parisii

infectivity and this rescue of infectivity is dependent upon AAIM-1 secretion. *N. parisii* spores in *aaim-1* animals are improperly oriented in the intestinal lumen, leading to reduced levels of parasite invasion. Conversely, *aaim-1* mutants display both increased colonization and susceptibility to the bacterial pathogen *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and overexpression of *AAIM-1* reduces *P. aeruginosa* colonization. Competitive fitness assays show that *aaim-1* mutants are favoured in the presence of *N. parisii* but disadvantaged on *P. aeruginosa* compared to wild type animals. Together, this work demonstrates how microsporidia exploits an antibacterial immune protein to promote host invasion. Our results also highlight the evolutionary trade-offs that exist to optimizing host defense against multiple classes of pathogens.

### Introduction

Microsporidia are a large group of obligate intracellular parasites that infect most types of animals. These ubiquitous parasites possess the smallest known eukaryotic genome size, and are extremely reliant on their host as a result of the loss of many genes involved in metabolism and energy production. Microsporidia can have a large impact on the evolution of their hosts, as infection with microsporidia often leads to a reduction in host offspring and the effect of this selective pressure has resulted in resistant animals within a population. Microsporidia are currently a major threat to many commercially important species such as honeybees and shrimp. Many species also infect humans and infections in immunocompromised individuals can result in lethality. Despite their ubiquitous nature, effective treatment strategies are currently lacking for these poorly understood parasites.

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

Microsporidia infection begins with invasion of host cells. They possess the most fascinating invasion machinery, a unique structure known as the polar tube. 10 This apparatus, resembling a long thread, is often coiled within a dormant spore. However, once inside of a host, and in proximity to the tissue of interest, the polar tube rapidly emerges or "fires", releasing its the parasites infectious material (the sporoplasm) which is deposited intracellularly either through direct injection, or through the internalization of the sporoplasm. 10,11 A number of microsporidia proteins have been demonstrated to play important roles during invasion by insect- and human-infecting species of microsporidia. 10 For example, spore wall proteins can interact with host cells through the recognition of sulfated glycosaminoglycans, heparin binding motifs, integrins, and proteins on the cell surface. <sup>12–17</sup> In *Encephalitozoon* species polar tube proteins (PTP) can mediate interactions with the host. For instance, O-linked mannosylation on PTP1 has been demonstrated to bind mannose binding receptors, whereas PTP4 interacts with the transferrin receptor (Trf1). 11,18-20 Additionally, the sporoplasm surface protein, EhSSP1, binds to an unknown receptor on the cell surface.<sup>21</sup> These proteins on the spore, polar tube, and sporoplasm have all been shown to promote microsporidia adhesion or invasion of host cells in culture systems, but the role of these proteins during animal infection is unclear. The nematode Caenorhabditis elegans is infected in its natural habitat by several species of microsporidia, and frequently by Nematocida parisii. 22-24 This species infects the intestinal cells of C. elegans, which possess extreme similarity to those of mammalian cells, making it both a relevant tissue and model to study these infections in vivo. <sup>24,25</sup> Infection of *C. elegans* by *N. parisii* begins when spores are consumed by the worm, where they then pass through the pharynx into the

intestinal lumen and fire, depositing sporoplasms inside of intestinal cells. Within 72 hours the sporoplasm will divide into meronts, which differentiate into spores, that then exit the animal, completing the parasite's life cycle. 26,27 Infection with N. parisii leads to reduced fecundity and premature mortality<sup>24,26</sup> Several mutants have been shown to affect proliferation and spore exit.<sup>28,29</sup> Immunity that can either prevent infection or clear the pathogen once infected have also been described. 4,27,30-32 In contrast, very little is known about how N. parisii invades C. elegans intestinal cells. Almost all of the microsporidia proteins known to facilitate invasion are not conserved in N. parisii and although host invasion factors described in other species are present in C. elegans, there is no evidence that they are being used by microsporidia during invasion of C. elegans. 11 To understand how microsporidia invade animal cells, we performed a forward genetic screen to identify host factors that promote infection. We identified a novel, nematode-specific protein, AAIM-1, whose loss of function confers resistance to microsporidia infection. This protein is expressed in intestinal cells, secreted into the intestinal lumen, and is necessary to ensure proper spore orientation during intestinal cell invasion. In addition, we show that AAIM-1 limits bacterial colonization of pathogenic *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Strikingly, T14E8.4 plays opposing roles on host fitness in the face of pathogenesis. The utilization of a host factor critical for bacterial defense reflects a clever strategy to ensuring microsporidia's reproductive success.

#### Results

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

A forward genetic screen identifies aaim-1 as being necessary for N. parisii infection.

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

To identify host factors needed for infection by microsporidia, we carried out a forward genetic screen using a C. elegans model of N. parisii infection. We took advantage of the previously described phenotypes of C. elegans displaying reduced fitness when infected with N. parisii, including lower progeny production and stunted development. <sup>26,27,33</sup> We mutagenized animals and subjected F2 progeny to N. parisii infection. After infecting populations for five subsequent generations, we selected individual worms containing embryos, indicating increased fitness in the presence of infection (see Methods). We identified four independent isolates that reproducibly had higher fractions of animals containing embryos compared to wild type (N2). We named these isolates Fitness Advantage With *Nematocida* (fawn 1-4) (Figure S1a). We first determined if these fawn mutants were also resistant to N. parisii infection. We grew the three isolates with the strongest phenotype, fawn 1-3, in the presence and absence of N. parisii, and stained each population of worms with the chitin binding dye, Direct-yellow 96 (DY96), at 72 hours post infection (hpi). DY96 allows for the visualization of chitinous microsporidia spores as well as worm embryos (Figure 1a). In the absence of infection, there is no difference in the fraction of fawn-2 and fawn-3 animals developing into adults containing embryos (gravid adults), although fawn-1 has a modest defect. In comparison, all three fawn isolates generate significantly more gravid adults than N2 animals in the presence of infection (Figure 1b). We next examined the fraction of animals in each strain containing intracellular microsporidia spores and observed that all three fawn isolates display significantly fewer numbers of spore-containing worms (Figure 1c). These results suggest that fawn mutants are missing an important factor for efficient microsporidia infection.

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

To identify the causal mutations underlying the Fawn phenotype, we used a combination of wholegenome sequencing and genetic mapping. We generated F2 recombinants and performed two rounds of infection with microsporidia, selecting for gravid animals. After each round we used molecular inversion probes to determine the region of the genome linked to the causal mutation.<sup>34</sup> This revealed strong signatures of selection on the left arm of chromosome X in all three fawn isolates absent in N2 (Figure S1b). Analysis of whole genome sequencing showed that all four fawn isolates contained different alleles of T14E8.4, which we named aaim-1 (Antibacterial and Aids Invasion by Microsporidia-1) for reasons described below (Figure 1d). We validated the role of aaim-1 in resistance to infection using several additional alleles: an independent allele RB563 (ok295), carrying a large gene deletion in both aaim-1 and dop-3, and a CRISPR-Cas9 derived allele, aaim-1 (kea22), that contains a large gene deletion. Both of these alleles displayed a fitness advantage when infected with N. parisii (Figure 1d,e, S1c,d). These data demonstrate that aaim-1 is the causative gene underlying the fawn 1-4 infection phenotypes. In subsequent experiments we utilized both aaim-1 (kea22), and fawn-3 (kea28), carrying a 2.2 kb deletion in aaim-1, which was outcrossed to N2 six times.

# aaim-1 is expressed in the pharynx and intestine, and secretion is important for function.

AAIM-1 is a poorly characterized protein that does not possess any known or conserved domains.

Homologs of the protein exist in both free-living and parasitic nematodes (Figure S2). To further

characterize the role of AAIM-1 during N. parisii infection, we generated transgenic

extrachromosomal lines of C. elegans carrying a reporter strain of GFP under control of the aaim-

1 promoter. GFP fluorescence was observed in the terminal bulb of the pharynx as well as the

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

posterior of the intestine throughout development (Figure 2a). Embryos and L1 animals display additional expression in the arcade cells of the pharynx (Figure 2a, S3a). The first 17 amino acids of AAIM-1 are predicted to encode a signal peptide.<sup>35</sup> This suggests that AAIM-1 may be secreted into the pharyngeal and intestinal lumen, the extracellular space through which N. parisii spores pass before invading intestinal cells. To test where AAIM-1 functions in and if secretion is important for function, we generated a series of transgenic worms expressing extrachromosomal arrays (Supplemental table 1). First, we generated transgenic aaim-1 (kea22) animals expressing AAIM-1 tagged on the C-terminus with a 3x Flag epitope. Transgenic animals expressing AAIM-1 under its native promoter complement the ability of aaim-1 (kea22) animals to develop into adults in the presence of a high amount of N. parisii spores (Figure 2b). A construct expressing GFP or GFP::3xFlag does not influence this phenotype nor does the presence of the epitope tag impair the ability of AAIM-1 to rescue the mutant phenotype (Figure S3b). We next generated a signal peptide mutant allele of AAIM-1 missing the first 17 amino acids (SP∆aaim-1), which is unable to complement the aaim-1 N. parisii infection phenotype. In contrast, AAIM-1 expressed from an intestinal specific promoter can rescue the infection phenotype of aaim-1 (kea22) (Figure 2b). To determine where AAIM-1 localizes, we dissected the intestines from transgenic worms and performed immunofluorescence using anti-Flag antibodies. We were unable to detect expression of AAIM-1::3xFlag when expressed from its endogenous promoter. However, we observed protein expression in the intestinal cells of animals expressing AAIM-1::3xFlag from a strong, intestinal specific promoter or when the signal peptide was removed (Figure 2c).<sup>36</sup> We did not observe

AAIM-1::3xFlag localized in the extracellular space of the intestinal lumen, possibly due to rapid turnover of intestinal contents or due to loss from dissection of the intestines.<sup>37</sup> The increased expression in the signal peptide mutant suggests an accumulation of protein that is unable to be secreted. Taken together, these data demonstrate that AAIM-1 is secreted and acts within the intestinal lumen to promote *N. parisii* infection.

### AAIM-1 is only necessary for microsporidia infection at the earliest larval stage.

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

N. parisii infection of C. elegans can occur throughout development, but several forms of immunity towards microsporidia have been shown to be developmentally regulated.<sup>4,27</sup> To determine if aaim-1 mutant animals display developmentally restricted resistance to infection, we infected fawn 1-3 at the L1 and L3 stage. For these experiments we took advantage of another intestinal-infecting species of microsporidia, Nematocida ausubeli, which has a more severe effect on C. elegans fecundity, allowing us to determine fitness defects after the L1 stage. 4,23,26 fawn isolates are resistant to N. ausubeli as seen by an increase in the fraction of gravid adults in the population after exposure to a medium dose of N. ausubeli (Figure 3a). When we initiated infections at the L3 stage of growth, fawn isolates do not have increased resistance, and instead exhibit wild type levels of susceptibility (Figure 3b). To rule out the possibility that this L1 restricted phenotype was the result of exposure to sodium hypochlorite treatment, used to synchronize worms, we exposed embryos that were naturally laid by adults within a two-hour window to N parisii infection. Animals synchronized in this manner still display a robust resistance to N. parisii (Figure S4c). Thus, resistance to infection in aaim-1 mutants is developmentally restricted and AAIM-1 is utilized by multiple different species of microsporidia.

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

AAIM-1 is needed for efficient invasion of intestinal cells Resistance to infection could be the result of a block in invasion, proliferation, or through the destruction of the parasite. To test the mechanism of resistance in aaim-1 mutants, we performed pulse-chase infection assays at the L1 and L3 stage of development. 4,27 Here, we treated animals with a medium-1 dose of N. parisii for 3 hours, washed away any un-ingested spores, and then replated the animals in the absence of spores for an additional 21 hours. We then used an 18S RNA FISH probe to detect *N. parisii* sporoplasms, which is the earliest stage of microsporidia invasion. In our fawn 1-3 isolates we detect less invasion at 3hpi compared to N2 (Figure S4a). However, there was no reduction in the number of infected animals between 3hpi and 21 hpi, indicating that pathogen clearance was not occurring. This defect in invasion was not present at the L3 stage, providing further support that resistance is restricted to the L1 stage in aaim-1 mutants (Figure S4b). A reduction in invasion could be due to a feeding defect, leading to a reduction in spore consumption. To test rates of consumption, we measured the intestinal accumulation of fluorescent beads. We find that aaim-1 alleles displayed wild-type levels of bead accumulation, unlike the feeding defective strain eat-2 (ad465) (Figure S4d). For N. parisii to invade host cells, spores must first enter the intestinal lumen and fire their polar tube.<sup>27</sup> To test if *aaim-1* mutants have defects in spore entry or spore firing, we infected animals for either 45 minutes or 3 hours, at the L1 and L3 stages. We then fixed and stained animals with both N. parisii 18S RNA FISH probe and DY96 and quantified the number of spores present in the intestinal lumen of animals. Here, *aaim-1* animals infected for 45 minutes or 3 hours at L1 or L3 contained similar amounts of spores as N2 animals (Figure 3 c,f, S5a,d). The percentage of fired spores present within these animals is also not significantly different at either developmental

stage (Figure 3d,g, S5b,e). We then counted the number of sporoplasms per animal and observed significantly fewer invasion events in *aaim-1* mutant animals infected at L1 (Figure 3e, S5c). In contrast the number of sporoplasms in L3 stage *aaim-1* alleles are similar to that observed in the N2 strain (Figure 3h, S5f). These results demonstrate that the *N. parisii* invasion defect in *aaim-1* mutants is not caused by differences in spore firing or accumulation. Instead, these results suggest that spores are misfiring, leading to unsuccessful invasion.

#### AAIM-1 plays a role in promoting proper spore orientation

To determine how AAIM-1 promotes *N. parisii* invasion, we further examined the invasion process. We pre-stained spores with Calcofluor white (CFW) and assessed their orientation relative to the intestinal apical membrane in L1 worms infected for 45 minutes (Figure 4a). In N2 animals, 32.4% of spores are angled relative to the apical membrane. In contrast, spores in *aaim-1* alleles were angled 14.3% of the time (Figure 4b). Other host factors that promote microsporidia invasion cause adherence to host cells. <sup>11</sup> To determine if AAIM-1 influences the location of spores relative to intestinal cells in *aaim-1* mutants, we measured the perpendicular distance from the center of a parallel spore to the apical membrane of the intestine. Surprisingly, parallel spores in *aaim-1* alleles were significantly closer to the apical membrane (0.29 μm) than those in N2 (0.34 μm) (Figure 4c). In agreement with resistance being developmentally restricted, *aaim-1* mutants display wild-type spore orientations and distances from the membrane when infections were initiated at L3 (Figure 4d,e). The width of the intestinal lumen at L1 does not differ significantly between N2 and *aaim-1* mutants, however, L3 animals generally possess wider intestinal lumens (Figure S5g,h). Thus, taken together these results suggest that AAIM-1 plays a distinct role in the intestinal

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

lumen at L1 to promote proper spore orientation, through maintaining an appropriate distance and angle to the apical membrane, resulting in successful invasion. AAIM-1 inhibits intestinal colonization by Pseudomonas aeruginosa Interestingly, aaim-1 has been shown to be upregulated by a variety of different fungal and bacterial pathogens, including P. aeruginosa. 38,39 Using our transcriptional reporter strain, we sought to confirm this and determine if microsporidia infection could also induce aaim-1 transcription. N2 animals carrying a transcriptional reporter (paaim-1::GFP::3xFlag) were exposed to N. parisii, P. aeruginosa PA14, or E. coli OP50, and the levels of GFP quantified when grown on these pathogens for 72 hours from the L1 stage, or for 24 hours from the L4 stage. Infection by either N. parisii or P. aeruginosa PA14 resulted in the upregulation of aaim-1 as detected by an increase in the GFP signal (Figure 5a, S6e). Previously, an *aaim-1* deletion strain, RB563 (ok295), was shown to display reduced survival on lawns of *P. aeruginosa* PA14.<sup>40</sup> The enhanced susceptibility previously reported was attributed to dop-3, which is also partially deleted in RB563 (ok295). 40 To determine if aaim-1 mutants are susceptible to pathogenic bacterial infection, we assayed the survival of L4 stage worms in P. aeruginosa PA14 slow killing assays was quantified. Here, aaim-1 alleles displayed reduced survival compared to N2, indicating that aaim-1 mutants have enhanced susceptibility to PA14 (Figure 5b, S6a,b). Lethality in slow killing assays is a result of *P. aeruginosa* accumulation within the intestinal lumen. 41,42 To investigate if *aaim-1* alleles displayed higher levels of bacterial burden, animals

grown on lawns of PA14::DsRed at the L1 or L4 stage for 48 hours. *aaim-1* mutant alleles grown on lawns of PA14::DsRed as L4s, but not L1s, displayed higher bacterial burden relative to N2 (Figure 5c, S6c,d). To test if intestinal expression of *aaim-1* was sufficient to limit bacterial colonization, transgenic *aaim-1* (*kea22*) overexpressing AAIM-1::3xFlag from the endogenous or an intestinal specific (*spp-5*) promoter were exposed to lawns of PA14::DsRed. When grown for 48 hours at the L1 or L4 stage, bacterial burden was significantly reduced, relative to N2 (Figure 5d, e). The results indicate that AAIM-1 plays a role in limiting bacterial colonization, and its loss results in reduced survival due to hyper-colonization of the intestinal lumen.

## Fitness of aaim-1 animals is dependent upon microbial environment

To investigate how *aaim-1* alleles can influence population structure, we set up competitive fitness assays. A *C. elegans* strain with a fluorescent marker (RFP::ZNFX1) was co-plated with N2 or *aaim-1* mutants on *E. coli* OP50, *N. parisii* or *P. aeruginosa* PA14. Animals were grown for 8 days, such that the population was composed of adult F1s and developing F2s. On *E. coli* OP50, there is equal representation of N2 and *aaim-1* mutants in the population (Figure 6a). This is consistent with *aaim-1* mutants not having a developmental delay (Figure 1b) or a decrease in longevity (Figure S7). In contrast, growth on *N. parisii* resulted in *aaim-1* alleles outcompeting the N2 strain. Conversley, *aaim-1* mutants on *P. aeruginosa* PA14 did significantly worse, being underrepresented in the population compared to N2 (Figure 6a). Interestingly, wild isolates of *C. elegans* do not carry any obvious loss of function alleles of *aaim-1* suggesting that natural conditions have selected for its retention (Figure S8). <sup>43</sup>

Given the opposing fates of *aaim-1* mutants on *N. parisii* and *P. aeruginosa*, we investigated the effects of co-infection. Animals were infected with a maximal dose of *N. parisii* for 3 hours, prior to placement on lawns of PA14. For infections with a single pathogen, we observed similar results as before whereby *aaim-1* mutants have increased fitness in the presence of *N. parisii* and display lower levels of parasite burden but have increased bacterial accumulation when grown on PA14. In the presence of both pathogens, populations of *aaim-1* mutants display fewer gravid adults and increased amounts of *N. parisii* spores. (Figure 6b,c). These results suggests that coinfection with *N. parisii* and *P. aeruginosa* has synergistically negative effects on the fitness of *C. elegans*.

#### **Discussion:**

To identify host factors needed for microsporidia infection, we isolated mutants from a forward genetic screen that have a fitness advantage when challenged with *N. parisii* infection. This screen identified mutants in the poorly understood protein AAIM-1 (previously T14E8.4). Here, we demonstrate that this protein both promotes microsporidia invasion and limits colonization by pathogenic bacteria. Although we were unable to visualize the localization of secreted AAIM-1, our genetic and infection experiments strongly suggest that this protein acts in the intestinal lumen where both microsporidia invasion and bacterial colonization both take place. The key role that AAIM-1 plays in immunity is further exemplified by its transcriptional regulation in response to infection (Figure 7).

The processes by which microsporidia invade host cells are poorly understood. We show that *N.* parisii spores are often angled in wild-type *C. elegans*, suggesting that successful invasion requires a particular spore orientation. In the absence of AAIM-1, spores are more often parallel to the

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

intestinal lumen, where spores may fire without the successful deposition of the sporoplasm inside an intestinal cell. In contrast to previously described host and microsporidia proteins involved in invasion, AAIM-1 does not appear to be involved in promoting adhesion to the surface of host cells. 10,11 Instead, AAIM-1 ensures an adequate distance of spores from the intestinal membrane, possibly allowing spores to be able to properly orient themselves to ensure proper host cell invasion. N. parisii spores are ~2.2 µm long by ~0.8 µm wide and the average width of the intestinal lumen at the L1 stage is  $\sim 0.6 \,\mu\text{m}^{23}$ . Therefore, at the L1 stage spores may not be able to move freely, but at the L3 stage, where AAIM-1 is not needed for invasion, there is less of a constraint on spore movement as the luminal width increases to ~1.3 µm. Together, our results highlight the power of studying microsporidia invasion in the context of a whole animal model. C. elegans employs a variety of proteins to protect against bacterial infection. Many of these proteins belong to several classes of antimicrobial effectors used to eliminate and prevent colonization by pathogenic bacteria<sup>44</sup>, are upregulated upon infection and predicted to be secreted. 45,46 One class of secreted proteins that are known to have immune functions and prevent bacterial adherence are the mucins. These large, glycosylated secreted proteins are upregulated during C. elegans infection and their knockdown alters susceptibility to P. aeruginosa infection. 47,48 AAIM-1 has many predicted mucin-like O-glycosylation sites on serine and threonine residues. 49-51 Thus one possibility is that AAIM-1 may be functionally analogous to mucins, preventing the adhesion of microbes to the surface of intestinal cells. As AAIM-1 does not contain any known or conserved domains and further work will be necessary to determine its exact biochemical function.

C. elegans lives in a microbially dense environment containing a wide variety pathogens that C. elegans has evolved immunity towards.<sup>23,52–55</sup> Although loss of aaim-1 provides a fitness advantage to C. elegans when grown in the presence of microsporidia, obvious loss of function alleles are not present in wild isolates sequenced thus far. Additionally, aaim-1 mutants do not have observable defects when grown on non-pathogenic E. coli. This is in contrast to mutations in pals-22 or lin-35, which negatively regulate the transcriptional response to infection and provide resistance to microsporidia infection when mutated, but at the cost of reduced reproductive fitness<sup>27,56</sup>. Loss of aaim-1 disadvantages C. elegans when grown on P. aeruginosa, demonstrating that there is a trade-off in host defense between microsporidia and pathogenic bacteria. The opposing functions of aaim-1 with different pathogens adds to the limited set of known examples of trade-offs that constrain the evolution of host defense to multiple biotic threats<sup>57,58</sup>

### Methods

### **Strain maintenance**

*C. elegans* strains were grown at 21°C on nematode growth media (NGM) plates seeded with 10x saturated *Escherichia coli* OP50-1.<sup>27</sup> Strains used in this study are listed in Supplemental table 1. For all infection assays, 15-20 L4 staged animals were picked onto 10cm seeded NGM plates 4 days prior to sodium hypchlorite/1M NaOH treatment. After 4 days, heavily populated non-starved plates were washed off with 1ml M9, treated twice with 1 ml of sodium hypochlorite/1M NaOH solution, and washed three times in 1 ml M9. Embryos were then resuspended in 5 ml of M9 and left to rock overnight at 21°C. L1's were used in subsequent experiments no later than 20 hours

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

after bleach treatment. All centrifugation steps with live animals/embryos were performed in microcentrifuge tubes at 845xg for 30s. Throughout the paper, L1 refers to the stage immediately post hatching or bleach synchronization, L3 refers to 24 hours and L4 refers to 48 hours post plating of bleach synchronized L1's at 21°C. L3 and L4 animals were washed off plates in M9 + 0.1% Tween-20, followed by an additional wash to remove residual bacteria before infection with microsporidia, or plating on PA14. **Forward Genetic Screen** 6,000 L4 N2 hermaphrodites were mutagenized with a combination of 50 mM EMS and 85.4 mM ENU for 4 hours to achieve a large diversity of mutations within the genome.<sup>59</sup> P0 animals were then split and placed onto 48 10cm NGM plates, F1s bleached and resulting F2s pooled onto 5 separate plates. 180,000 L1 F2 animals were plated onto a 10 cm plate with 10 million N. parisii spores and 1 ml 10x saturated OP50-1. Animals were grown for 72 hours, to select for animals that display a fitness advantage phenotype with respect to N2. Each population was bleached and grown in the absence of infection for one generation, in order to prevent the effects of intergenerational immunity<sup>27</sup>. Two more cycles of infection followed by growing worms in the absence of infection was performed. Populations of bleached L1s were then infected with either 20 or 40 million spores and grown for 76 hours. Worms were then washed into 1.5 ml tube and 1 ml of stain solution (1x PBS/0.1% Tween-20/2.5 mg/ml DY96/1% SDS) was added. Samples were incubated with rotation for 3.5 hours and then washed 3 times with M9 + 0.1% Tween-20. Individual worms that had embryos, but not spores, were picked to individual plates. Each of the four fawn strains was isolated from a different mutant pool.

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

Whole genome sequencing N2 and fawn isolates were each grown on a 10 cm plate until all E. coli was consumed. Each worm was washed off with M9 and frozen at -80°C. DNA was extracted using Gentra puregene Tissue Kit (QIAGEN). Samples were sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 4000, using 100 base paired end reads. MIP-Map Molecular inversion probes were used to map the underlying causal mutations in fawn isolates as previously described.<sup>34</sup> Briefly, fawn hermaphrodites were crossed to males of the mapping strain DM7448 (VC20019 Ex[pmyo3::YFP]) hereafter referred to as VC20019. Next, 20 F1 hermaphrodite cross progeny, identified as those carrying pmyo3::YFP were isolated and allowed to self. F2s were then bleached, and 2,500 L1s were exposed to a medium-2 dose of N. parisii spores representing the first round of selection. Two plates of 2,500 F3 L1s were set up. The experimental plate was grown in the absence of infection for one generation, to negate intergenerational immunity.<sup>27</sup> A second plate of 2,500 L1s was allowed to grow to 72 hours and then frozen in H<sub>2</sub>0 at -80°C, until used for genomic preparation. The selection and rest steps were repeated once more, and a second frozen sample of worms was taken at the end of the mapping experiment. This process was also performed for a cross between N2 hermaphrodites and males of the mapping strain VC20019, as a negative control to identify non-causal loci that may be selected for reasons other than resistance to infection. Two genomic preparations, corresponding to the two rounds of selection, were used as template for MIP capture, to generate multiplexed libraries for sequencing. An Illumina Mini-seq was used to generate sequencing data that was

subjected to demultiplexing via R, and selection intervals were defined as those immediately adjacent to the region on the chromosome carrying the fewest proportion of reads corresponding to the mapping strain, VC20019. This interval was then used to scan for putative causal alleles, resulting in the identification of the four *aaim-1* alleles in the four *fawn* isolates.

### **Identification of causal gene**

Variants were identified using a BWA-GATK pipeline. Briefly, sequencing reads were checked for sequence quality using FastQC (http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/) and bases lower than a quality threshold of 30 were trimmed off with Trimmomatic using a sliding window of 4 bases and minimum length of 36 bases. Reads were aligned to the *C. elegans* N2 reference genome (release W220) using BWA-mem. Alignments were sorted by coordinate order and duplicate reads removed using Picard (https://github.com/broadinstitute/picard). Prior to variant calling, reads were processed in Genome Analysis Tool Kit (GATK) v3.8.1, 2 to perform indel realignment and base quality score recalibration using known *C. elegans* variants from dbSNP, build 138 (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/SNP/). GATK HaplotypeCaller was used to call variants, and results were filtered for a phred-scaled Qscore > 30 and to remove common variants found previously in multiple independent studies. Finally, Annovar 3 was used to obtain a list of annotated exonic variants for each sequenced strain.

### Microsporidia infection assays

*N. parisii* (ERTm1) spores were prepared as described previously.<sup>27</sup> All infections were carried out on 6-cm NGM plates, unless otherwise specified by spore dose (see Supplemental table 2), or experimental method. 1,000 bleach-synchronized L1s were added into a microcentrifuge tube

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

containing 400 µl of 10X E. coli OP50, and spores. After pipetting up and down, this mixture was top plated onto an unseeded 6-cm NGM plate, and left to dry in a clean cabinet, prior to incubation at 21°C for 72 hours. Infections set up on 3.5-cm plates used 160 µl of 10x E. coli OP50 and 400 L1's. Infection of embryos hatched on plates Twenty-five 72-hour old synchronized animals of each strain were picked onto 3.5-cm unseeded NGM plates seeded with 16 µl of 10x E. coli OP50. Plates were incubated at 21°C for two hours. Adults were then picked off, and a mixture of 144 ul of 10x E. coli OP50 and a low dose of N. parisii spores were added to each plate. Animals were fixed and stained after 72 hours. **Pulse-chase infection assav** 6,000 bleach synchronized animals were exposed to a medium-1 (Figure S4) or medium-3 (Figure 3) dose of spores, 10 µl of 10x E. coli OP50 in a total volume of 400 µl made up with M9. To assay pathogen clearance 3 hpi, animals were washed off in 1 ml M9 + 0.1%Tween-20, and split into two populations. The first was fixed with acetone to represent initial infectious load, while the other half was washed twice in M9 + 0.1% Tween-20 to remove residual spores in the supernatant and prevent additional infection from occurring. These washed worms were then plated on 6-cm unseeded NGM plates with 40 µl 10x OP50, and 360 µl M9 and left to incubate at 21°C for 21 additional hours before fixation. Spore localization and firing assays

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

Strains were infected as described for the pulse infection assays for either 45 minutes or 3 hours. Animals were then washed off plates, fixed, and stained with DY96 and N. parisii 18S RNA FISH probe. FISH<sup>+</sup> DY96<sup>+</sup> events represent unfired spores, FISH<sup>-</sup> DY96<sup>+</sup> events represent fired spores and FISH<sup>+</sup> DY96<sup>-</sup> events represent sporoplasms. Percentage of fired spores is defined as the number of FISH<sup>-</sup> DY96<sup>+</sup> events over the total number of spores. To assess spore orientation, the localization of spores relative to the apical membrane of the apical intestine was measured in live anaesthetized animals. To determine if a spore was angled, straight lines were extended from both ends of the spore independently. If either of these two lines crossed the apical membrane, a spore was considered angled. If not, the spore was considered parallel. Distance of spores from the apical membrane was assessed by measuring perpendicular distance from the central edge of a parallel spore to the apical membrane. All measurements were performed on FIJI<sup>64</sup> using the angle tool or the straight line tool respectively, followed by the Analyze  $\rightarrow$  measure option. **Intestinal lumen measurements** Measurements were performed on live anaesthetized worms used for spore localization assays (see above). The width of the lumen was determined by extending a straight line from the apical membrane on one end of the worm to that directly across on the other end, at the midpoint of the intestine, and the distance measured in FIJI, via the straight line tool followed by the Analyze  $\rightarrow$ measure option. **Fixation** 

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

Worms were washed off infection plates with 700 µl M9 +0.1% Tween-20 and washed once in 1ml M9+0.1%Tween-20. All microsporidia infected samples were fixed in 700 µl of acetone for 2 minutes at room temperature prior to staining. All P. aeruginosa PA14::DsRed infected samples were fixed in 500 µl of 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 30 minutes at room temperature prior to mounting on slides. Live imaging Animals were mounted on 2% Agarose pads in 10 µl of 25mM Sodium Azide. This technique was used for spore localization assays, transcriptional reporter imaging, and assessing PA14::DsRed colonization in transgenic animals. **Chitin Staining** The chitin binding dye Direct yellow 96 (DY96) was usesd to assess host fitness (gravidity) as well as parasite burden. 500 μl of DY96 solution (1 x PBST, 0.1% SDS, 20 μg/ml DY96) was added to washed worm pellets and left to rock for 20-30 minutes at room temperature. Worms were then resuspended in 20 μl of EverBrite<sup>TM</sup> Mounting Medium (Biotium), and 10 μl mounted on glass slides for imaging. To prestain spores prior to infection, 0.5 µl of Calcofluor white solution (CFW) (Sigma- Aldrich 18909) was added per 50 ul of spores, pipetted up and down gently and left for 2 minutes at room temperature prior to infection. Fluorescence in Situ hybridization-FISH

To quantify the number of sporoplasms in *N. parisii* infected animals, the MicroB FISH probe (etcteggeactectectg) labelling *N. parisii* 18S RNA was used. Animals were fixed in acetone, washed twice in 1 ml PBST, and once in 1 ml of hybridization buffer (0.01% SDS, 900 mM NaCl, 20 mM TRIS pH 8.0). Samples were then incubated overnight in the dark at 46 °C with 100 μl of hybridization buffer containing 5 ng/μl of the MicroB FISH probe conjugated to Cal Fluor 610 (LGC Biosearch Technologies). Samples were then washed in 1ml of wash buffer (Hybridization buffer + 5 mM EDTA), followed by incubation with 500 μl wash buffer at 46 °C in the dark. To visualize sporoplasms and spores simultaneously, the final incubation was replaced with 500 μl DY96 solution and incubated in the dark at room temperature prior to resuspension in 20 μl of EverBrite<sup>TM</sup> Mounting Medium (Biotium).

# Microscopy and image quantification

All imaging was performed using an Axio Imager.M2 (Zeiss), except for images of the transcriptional reporter in Figure S6, which were generated using an Axio Zoom V.16 (Zeiss) at a magnification of 45.5x. Images were captured via Zen software and quantified under identical exposure times per experiment. Gravidity is defined as the presence of at least one embryo per worm, and animals were considered infected by 72 hours if clumps of spores were visible in the body of animals as seen by DY96. FISH-stained animals were considered infected if at least one sporoplasm was visible in intestinal cells.

To quantify fluorescence within animals (Pathogen burden, bead accumulation, GFP), regions of interest were used to outline every individual worm from anterior to posterior, unless otherwise specified in methods. Individual worm fluorescence from variable assays (GFP or dsRed) were

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

520

521

522

subjected to the "threshold" followed by "measure" tools in FIJI.<sup>64</sup> To assess PA14::DsRed burden in transgenic animals, regions of interest were generated from the beginning of the intestines (int1) to the posterior end of the worm to prevent the pmvo2::mCherry co-injection marker signal from interfering with quantifications. When assessing pathogen burden in gravid animals stained with DY96, thresholding was used to quantify spore signal without including signal from embryos. Pseudomonas aeruginosa infection experiments For all Pseudomonas assays, a single colony was picked into 3 ml of LB and grown overnight at 37°C, 220 rpm for 16-18 hours. 20 μl (for 3.5-cm plate) or 50 μl (for 6-cm plate) of culture was spread onto slow killing (SK) plates to form a full lawn, except in the case of competitive fitness assays (see below). Seeded plates were placed at 37°C for 24 hours, followed by 25°C for 24 hours prior to use. Plates were seeded fresh prior to each experiment. To assess colonization, 1,000 synchronized animals were grown on PA14::dsRED for either 24 or 48 hours at 25°C. Animals were washed off with 1ml M9+ 0.1%Tween-20, and washed twice thereafter, prior to fixation. To quantify survival of individual strains on PA14, 3.5-cm SK plates were seeded with 20 ul of PA14, to form full lawns. 60 L4s were picked onto each of three, 3.5-cm plates per strain, and 24 hours later, 30 animals from each were picked onto a new 3.5-cm plate (T24hrs). Survival was monitored from 24 hours post L4, three times per day. Survival was assessed based on response to touch. Carcasses were removed, and surviving animals were placed onto fresh 3.5-cm plates every 24 hours. Animals were grown at 25°C for the duration of the experiment. Technical triplicate data was pooled to represent a single biological replicate. The experiment was carried out until no more

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

worms had survived. Survival curves were generated via GraphPad Prism 9.0, and the Log rank (mantel-cox) test was used to generate P-values. **Transgenic strain construction** N2 or aaim-1 (kea22) animals were injected with a 100 ng/µl injection mix composed of 50 ng/μl of template, 5 ng/μl of pmyo2::mCherry, and 45 ng/μl of pBSK. Three independent lines were generated for each injected construct. Gateway BP cloning<sup>65,66</sup> was performed to insert AAIM-1 and GFP into pDONR221. Around the horn PCR,<sup>67</sup> was used to insert a 3x Flag sequence at the C-terminus of this construct. Gibson assembly was used to generate different tissue specific clones driving aaim-1 expression. Paaim-1, aaim-1 and pspp-5 were cloned from N2 genomic DNA, pmyo2 was cloned from pCFJ90. GFP and 3x Flag sequences were cloned from pDD282. SP∆aaim-1 was amplified from aaim-1::3xFlag in pDONR221 by omitting the first 17 amino acids, the putative secretion signal as predicted via SignalP 5.0.68 All clones possessed an unc-54 3' UTR. See Supplemental table 3 for primer sequences. **CRISPR-Cas9** mutagenesis To generate a deletion allele of aaim-1 via CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis, steps were taken as described here. <sup>69</sup> Briefly, 2 crRNA's were designed using CRISPOR, <sup>70</sup> near the start and stop sites of aaim-1 and generated via IDT. A repair template was designed to contain 35 base pairs of homology upstream and downstream of the cut sites. Streptococcus pyogenes Cas9 3NLS (10ug/ul) IDT and tracrRNA (IDT #1072532) were utilized. Reaction mixes were prepared as

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

555

556

557

558

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

566

567

described previously.<sup>69</sup> pRF4 was co-injected with the Cas9 ribonucleoprotein, and F1 rollers picked. Deletions were identified via PCR primers situated outside the cut sites. **Bead-feeding assays** 1,000 synchronized L1 animals were mixed with 0.2 µm green fluorescent polystyrene beads (Degradex Phosphorex) at a ratio of 25:1 in a final volume of 400 µl containing 10 µl of 10x E. coli OP50, 16 µl of beads and up to 400 µl with M9. Animals were incubated with beads for 3 hours, washed off with M9 + 0.1% Tween-20 and fixed with 4% PFA for 30 min at room temperature. Bead accumulation was measured as a percentage of the total animal exhibiting fluorescent signal, using FIJI. Lifespan Assays Lifespan assays were performed as described previously. <sup>71</sup> In brief, 120 synchronized L4 animals were utilized per strain, with 15 animals placed on a single 3.5-cm NGM plate (A total of 8 plates, with 15 animals each per strain). Animals were transferred to a new seeded 3.5-cm NGM plate every 2 days, for a total of 8 days (4 transfers), ensuring no progeny were transferred alongside adults. After day 8, survival was quantified daily, on the same plate, via response to touch. Any animals that exhibited internal hatching, protruding intestines, or were found desiccated on the edges of the plate were censored. Survival curves were generated via GraphPad Prism 9, and the Log rank (mantel-cox) test was used to generate P values. **Immunofluorescence (IF)** 

# 25

IF was performed as described previously, <sup>72</sup> however all steps post-dissection were performed in microcentrifuge tubes, and intestines were pelleted on a mini tabletop microcentrifuge for a few seconds. Briefly, animals were dissected to extrude intestinal tissue. Two 25mm gauge needles on syringes were used to create an incision near the head and/or tail of the animals. Dissections were performed in 5 μl of 10 mM levamisole on glass slides to encourage intestinal protrusion. Fixation, permeabilization and blocking was performed as described previously. <sup>72</sup> Primary M2 anti-Flag antibody (Sigma F1804) was used at 1:250 overnight at 4°C, and secondary goat anti-mouse Alexa fluor 594 (Thermo Fisher A32742) at 1:300 for 1 hour at room temperature. Animals were mounted in 20 μl of EverBrite<sup>TM</sup> Mounting Medium (Biotium) and placed on glass slides for imaging.

## Competitive fitness assays

N2 or *aaim-1* mutants were grown together with RFP::Znfx1 YY1446 (*gg634*), which labels the germ granules and can be observed in all developmental stages<sup>73</sup>. For *N. parisii* infections, 10-cm NGM plates were seeded with 1 ml of 10xOP50 and a medium-2 dose of spores (no spores were used for uninfected plates). 10 L1s from each strain were picked onto lawns of spores and *E. coli* OP50 immediately after drying, and grown for 8 days at 21°C, washed off with M9 + 0.1% Tween-20, and fixed. For *P. aeruginosa* infections, 3.5-cm SK plates were seeded with a single spot of 20 µl of PA14 in the center of the plate. 10 L1s of each strain were placed on plates and grown at 21°C for 8 days and then washed off with M9 + 0.1% Tween-20. The percentage of animals that did not display RFP germ granules (i.e. N2 or *aaim-1* mutants) is was determined by quantifying all animals on the plate, including F1 adults and L1/L2 staged F2 animals.

### Co-infections with N. parisii and P. aeruginosa

592

593

594

595

596

597

598

599

600

601

602

603

604

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

Co-infection assays were performed by first pulse infecting co-infection and N. parisii single infection groups with an maximal dose of spores for three hours on unseeded 6-cm NGM plates as described above. PA14::DsRed single infections were pulsed with a volume of M9 to match that of the spores. Animals were then washed off in 1ml of M9 + 0.1%Tween-20, followed by 2 more washes, prior to placement on full lawns of PA14::DsRed on a 6-cm SK plates prepared as described above. N. parisii single infections were placed on a 6-cm NGM plate pre-seeded with 200 μl of 10xOP50. Plates were incubated at 21°C. Phylogenetic analysis Homology between AAIM-1 and other proteins was determined with protein BLAST (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) using default parameters. Sequences with less than E-5 were aligned using MUSCLE (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/muscle/) using default parameters. Phylogenetic tree of homologs was generated using RAxML BlackBox https://raxmlng.vital-it.ch/#/ using default parameters and 100 boot straps. Tree was visualized using FigTree v1.4.4 (http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/). Statistical analysis All data analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 9.0. One-way Anova with post hoc (Tukey test) was used for all experiments unless otherwise specified in figure legends. Statistical significance was defined as p < 0.05. Acknowledgements

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

627

628

We thank Ashley M. Campbell, Alexandra R. Willis, and Kristina Sztanko for providing helpful comments on the manuscript. This work was supported by the Canadian Institutes of Health Research grant no. 400784 and an Alfred P. Sloan Research Fellowship FG2019-12040 (to A.W.R.). This work was supported by National Institutes of Health (www.nih.gov) under R01 AG052622 and GM114139 to E.R.T. Some strains were provided by the CGC, which is funded by NIH Office of Research Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440) and we thank WormBase. **Author contributions:** H.T.E.J. and A.W.R. designed experiments, analyzed results, and co-wrote the paper. H.T.E.J. conducted all experiments, except the initial forward genetic screen performed by A.W.R. **C.M.** designed and performed bioinformatic analysis for the MIP-map experiment. **M.R.S.** analyzed whole genome sequencing to identify causal mutations in *fawn* animals. **E.R.T.**, **A.G.F.**, and **A.W.R.** provided mentorship and acquisition of funding. **Competing interests:** The authors declare they have no competing interests.

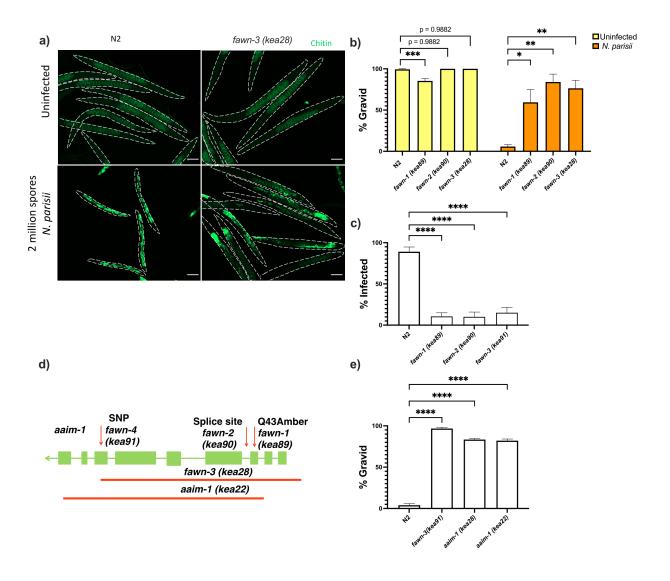
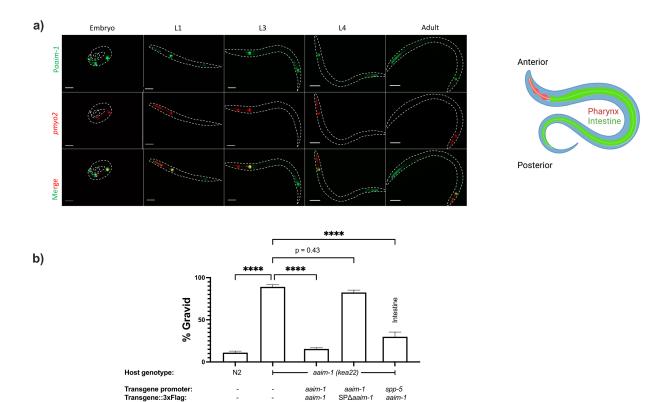
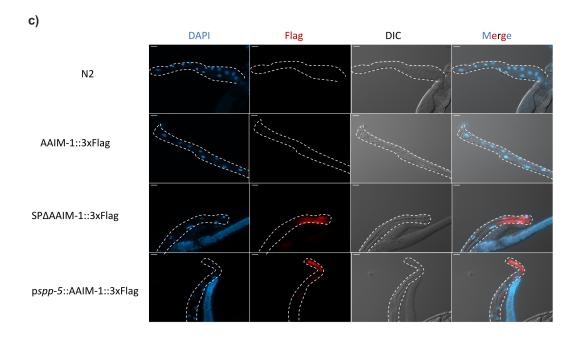


Figure 1: Mutations in *aaim-1* result in resistance to *N. parisii* infection.

(a-c, and e) L1 stage Wild-type (N2) and *aaim-1* mutant animals were infected with either a high dose (a, b, and e) or a very lose dose (c) of *N. parisii*, fixed at 72 hours, and stained with direct-yellow 96 (DY96). (a) Representative images stained with DY96, which stains *C. elegans* embryos and microsporidia spores. Scale bars, 100 μm. (b and e) Percentage of worms that are gravid. (c) Percentage of worms that contain newly formed *N. parisii* spores. (d) Schematic depicting the nature and location of the different *aaim-1* alleles. Boxes represent exons, and connecting lines represent introns. Arrows depict point mutations, and the solid red line depicts deletions. *fawn-3* 

has a 2.2 kb deletion and aaim-1 (kea22) has a 2.3 kb deletion. fawn-1 carries a C127T , Q43Stop mutation, fawn-2 carries a G221A splice site mutation and fawn-4 carries a C1286T, A429V mutation in aaim-1.(b,c, and e) Data is from three independent replicates with at least 90 animals counted per replicate. Mean  $\pm$  SEM represented by horizontal bars. P-values determined via one-way ANOVA with post hoc. Significance defined as: \* p < 0.05, \*\* p < 0.01, \*\*\* p < 0.001.





# Figure 2: AAIM-1 is secreted from intestinal cells.

(a) Wild-type worms containing an extrachromosomal array expressing GFP from the *aaim-1* promoter and mCherry in the pharyngeal muscles were imaged at the embryo, L1, L3, L4, and adult stage. Embryo, L1 and L3 animals were imaged at 40x, scale bar 20  $\mu$ m and L4 and adult animals were imaged at 20x, scale bar 50  $\mu$ m. L1 to L4 are oriented anterior to posterior and adult oriented posterior to anterior from left to right. Schematic made with Biorender.com (b) N2, *aaim-1*, *and aaim-1* expressing extrachromosomal arrays were infected with a medium-2 dose of *N. parisii*. Percentage of worms that are gravid. Experiment is from three independent replicates with at least 90 worms quantified per replicate. Mean  $\pm$  SEM represented by horizontal bars. P-values determined via one-way ANOVA with post hoc. Significance defined as \*\*\*\* p < 0.0001 (c) Intestines (denoted by dashed lines) of 72-hour post-L1 adults were dissected and stained using anti-Flag (red) and DAPI (blue). Images taken at 40x, scale bar 20  $\mu$ m.

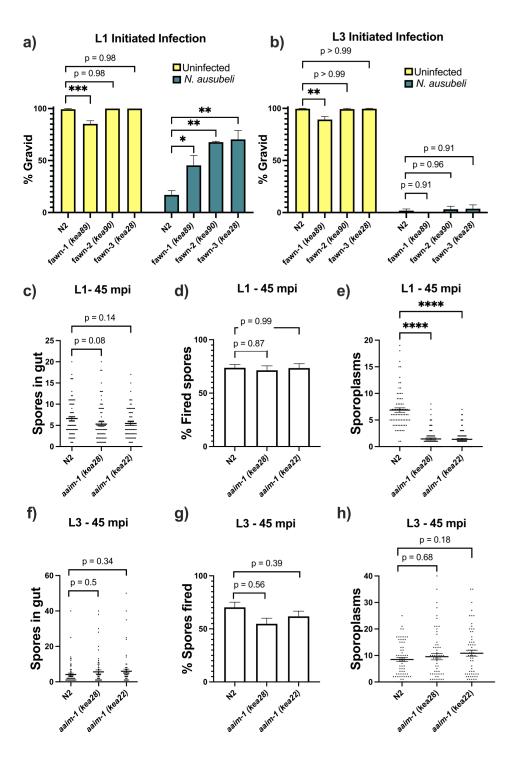


Figure 3: *aaim-1* mutants are resistant to microsporidia at the earliest larval stage due to spore misfiring. (a-b) N2 and *aaim-1* mutants were infected with a medium dose of *N. ausubeli* at either the L1 stage for 72 hours (a) or a high doses of *N. ausubeli* at the L3 stage for 48 hours

(b) Percentage of worms that are gravid. (c-f) N2 and aaim-1 animals were infected with a medium-3 dose of N. parisii for 45 minutes at L1 (c-e) or L3 hours (f-h), fixed, and then stained with DY96 and N. parisii 18S RNA fish probe. The number of spores per animal (c,f), the percentage of spores fired (d,g), and the number of sporoplasm per worm (e,h) are displayed. (ab) Experiment is of three replicates of at least 100 animals. (c-h) Experiment is of three replicates of 20-30 animals. (a-h) Mean ± SEM represented by horizontal bars. P-values determined via oneway ANOVA with post hoc. Significance defined as: \* p < 0.05, \*\* p < 0.01, \*\*\* p < 0.001, \*\*\*\* p < 0.0001.

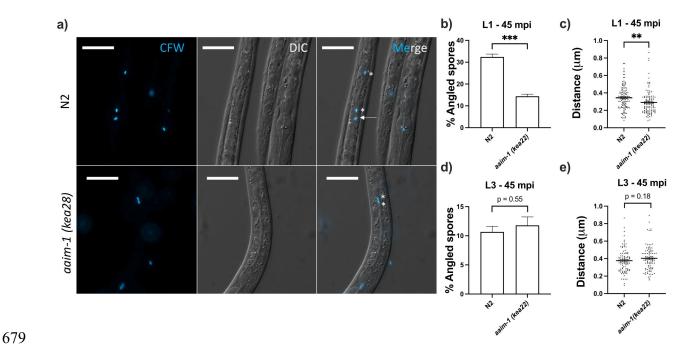


Figure 4: Spores in *aaim-1* mutants display improper orientation and distance to the apical intestinal membrane.

(a-e) N2 and aaim-1(kea22) animals were infected with a very high dose of Calcofluor white (CFW) pre-stained *N. parisii* spores for 45 minutes at either the L1 stage (a-c) or the L3 stage (d-e). (a) Representative images of live animals containing stained spores (blue). Arrow indicates an example of an angled spore, asterisks indicate parallel spores. Images taken at 40x, scale bar 20  $\mu$ m. (b, d) Percentage of angled spores. The experiment consists of three replicates with at least 90 spores per replicate. (c, e) Distance of the center of each spore from the intestinal apical membrane. The experiment consisted of three replicates of at least 25 spores per replicate. Mean  $\pm$  SEM represented by horizontal bars. P-values determined via unpaired Student's t-test. Significance defined as \*\* p < 0.01, \*\*\* p < 0.001.

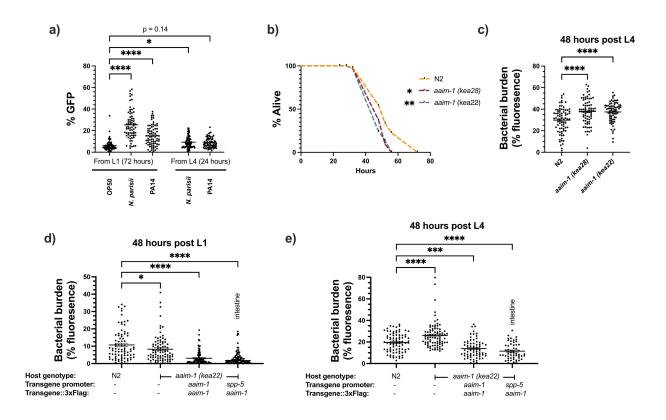


Figure 5: *aaim-1* is upregulated by *N. parisii and P. auerginosa* and *aaim-1* animals are susceptible to infection by *P. aeruginosa*.

(a) Expression of paaim-1GFP::3xFlag in response to infection with either PA14 or *N. parisii* for either 72 hours from L1 or 24 hours from L4. 18-25 animals quantified per replicate. Every point represents a single worm. Percentage GFP was measured as the percentage of the animal containing GFP via FIJI. n=3. (b) L4 stage N2 and aaim-1 were plated on full lawns of *P. aeruginosa* PA14 and the percentage of animals alive was counted over the course of 96 hours. Three independent replicates were carried out, and a representative replicate is displayed. 40 worms were quantified per strain. P-values determined via Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test. Significance defined as \* p < 0.05, \*\* p < 0.01. (c-e) N2, aaim-1, or aaim-1 with different extrachromosomal arrays were plated on PA14::DsRed as either L1 stage (d) or L4 stage (c,e) for 48 hours. Bacterial burden was measured as the percentage of the animal containing

PA14::dsRED. Three independent replicates carried out, 20-30 worms were quantified per replicate. Every point represents a single worm. Mean  $\pm$  SEM represented by horizontal bars. (a, c-e) P- values determined via one-way ANOVA with post hoc. Significance defined as \* p < 0.05, \*\* p < 0.01, \*\*\* p < 0.001, \*\*\*\* p < 0.0001.

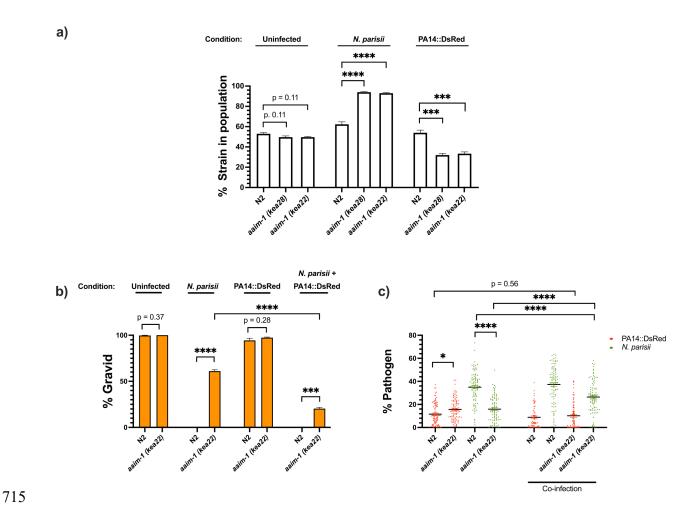
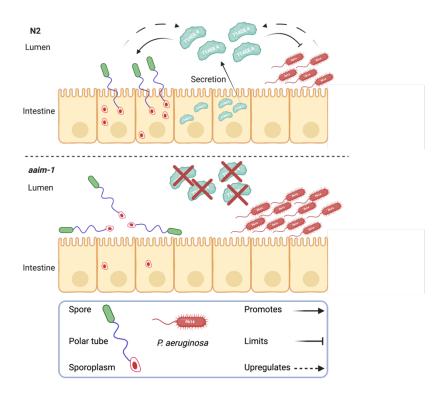


Figure 6: aaim-1 alleles display enhanced fitness on N. parisii, but reduced fitness on P. aeruginosa.

(a) Competitive fitness assays performed with a fluorescently marked strain (RFP::ZNFX1) mixed with either N2 or *aaim-1* mutants. These mixed populations of animals were plated at the L1 stage on either *E. coli*, a medium-2 dose of *N. parisii*, or on *P. aeruginosa*. After 8 days, the fraction of animals that did not display fluorescent germ granules was counted. Experiment consisted of three replicates with 20-270 worms quantified per replicate. (b,c) L1 N2 and *aaim-1* animals were either uninfected or infected with a maximal dose of *N. parisii*. These infected and uninfected population of animals were then washed and placed on either *E. coli* or PA14::DsRed. After 69 hours, animals were fixed and stained with DY96. Experiment consisted of three replicates with 60-150 worms

quantified per replicate. (b) Percentage of animals that are gravid adults. (c) Quantified amount of either *N. parisii* (DY96) or *P. aeruginosa* (PA14::DsRed). 12-30 worms were quantified per replicate. Mean  $\pm$  SEM represented by horizontal bars. P-values determined via unpaired Student's t-test (a) one-way ANOVA with post hoc (b,c). Significance defined as \*\* p < 0.01, \*\*\* p < 0.001, \*\*\*\*



but is exploited by microsporidia to ensure successful invasion of intestinal cells.

AAIM-1 is secreted from intestinal cells, where the protein limits bacterial colonization in the lumen. Additionally, AAIM-1 is parasitized by *N. parisii* spores to ensuring successful orientation and firing during intestinal cell invasion. Infection by either of these two pathogens results in the upregulation of AAIM-1. Figure made with Biorender.com.

Figure 7: Secreted AAIM-1 functions in the intestinal lumen to limit bacterial colonization

739

740

741

742

743

744

745

746

747

748

749

750

751

752

753

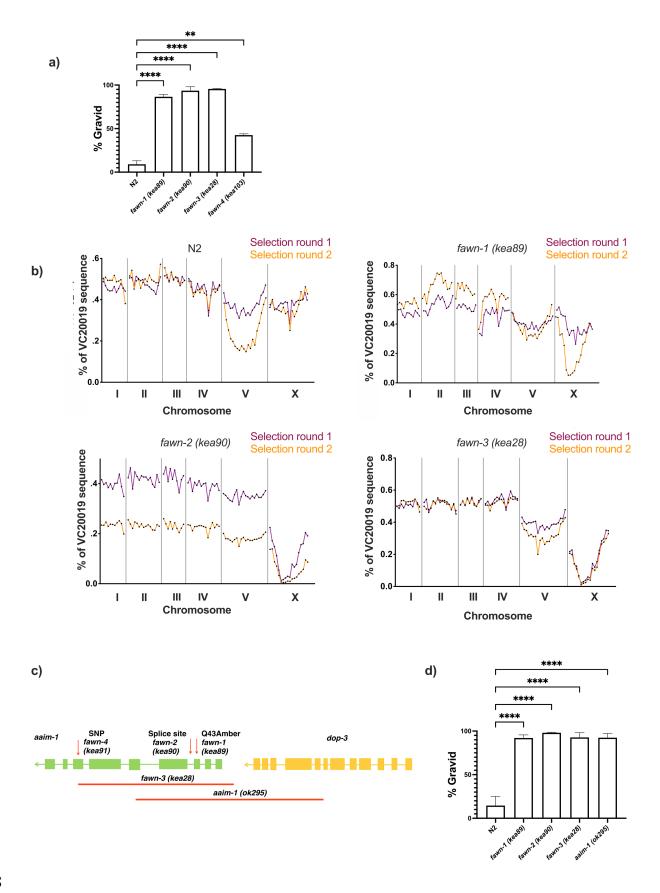
754

755

756

757

Supplemental material Figure S1. Mapping and validation of aaim-1 as the gene associated with resistance to N. parisii. Figure S2: AAIM-1 is conserved in both free-living and parasitic nematodes. Figure S3: aaim-1 is expressed in arcade cells and presence of C-terminal 3x Flag tag does not disrupt AAIM-1 function. Figure S4: aaim-1 mutants do not clear N. parisii and developmentally restricted N. parisii invasion defect is not due to a feeding defect. Figure S5: Invasion defects in aaim-1 only occurs at the L1 stage of development and a mutation in aaim-1 do not alter the width of the intestinal lumen. Figure S6: Susceptibility to *P. aeruginosa* PA14 appears at L4. Figure S7: A mutation in *aaim-1* does not influence *C. elegans* lifespan. Figure S8: List of naturally occurring aaim-1 variants in wild isolates of C. elegans. Supplemental table 1: List of strains utilized in this study Supplemental table 2: Spore doses utilized in this study. Supplemental table 3: Primer sequences.



760

761

762

763

764

765

766

767

768

769

770

771

772

773

774

775

776

777

778

779

780

781

Figure S1. Mapping and validation of aaim-1 as the gene associated with resistance to N. parisii. (a) N2 or fawn animals were infected with a medium-3 dose of N. parisii spores on 6-cm plates, fixed at 72 hours, and stained with direct-yellow 96 (DY96). Graph displays percentage of worms that are gravid. Experiment consists of two independent replicates with 66-300 worms quantified per replicate. (b) F2 recombinants between the mapping strain VC20019 and either N2, fawn-1, fawn-2, or fawn-3 were infected with a medium-2 dose of N. parisii. Two rounds of selection were performed (see methods). The percentage of sequencing reads mapping to the reference strain VC20019 are depicted on the Y axis, and the linkage groups are depicted on the X axis. Sequencing of MIPs resulted in capturing the identity of the genome at 89 distinct regions which are represented as points by their location along the X-axis coordinates. A significantly diminished percentage of VC20019 indicates an enrichment of non-mapping genomic sequence in that region. (c) Schematic representing the location and nature of the different aaim-1 alleles. Boxes represent exons, and connecting lines represent introns. Arrows represent point mutations and solid red lines represent large deletions. fawn-3 has a 2.2 kb deletion and aaim-1 (kea22) has a 2.3 kb deletion. RB563 (ok295) possesses a large deletion overlapping two different genes, aaim-1 and dop-3, the boundaries of which are unclear. 40,74 (d) L1 stage N2 and aaim-1 mutant animals were infected with a high dose of N. parisii, fixed at 72 hours, and stained with direct-yellow 96 (DY96). Percentage of gravid worms is shown. Experiment consists of three independent replicates with at least 100 worms quantified per replicate. Mean ± SEM represented by horizontal bars. P-values determined via One-way Anova with post hoc. Significance defined as \*\*\*\* p < 0.0001.

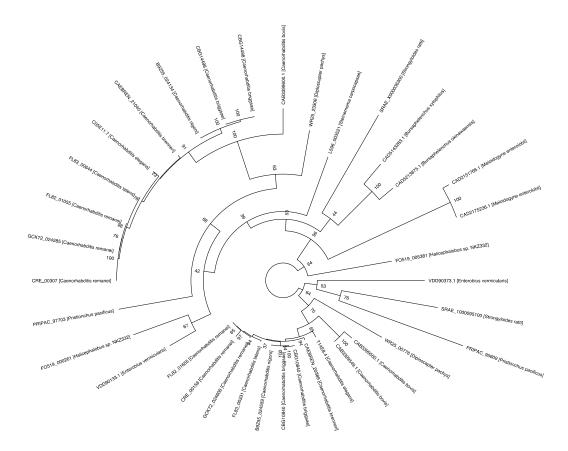


Figure S2: Homologs of AAIM-1 are present in both free-living and parasitic nematodes. Phylogenetic tree of AAIM-1 homologs. Bootstrap values are shown at the nodes.

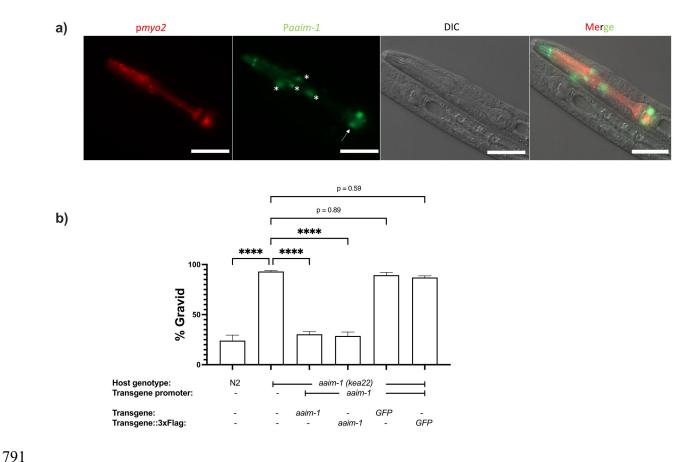


Figure S3: *aaim-1* is expressed in arcade cells and presence of C-terminal 3x Flag tag does not disrupt AAIM-1 function.

(a) N2 containing an extrachromosomal array expressing GFP from the *aaim-1* promoter and mCherry in the pharyngeal muscles were imaged at the L1 stage at 40x. Scale bar 20  $\mu$ m. Arrow indicates terminal bulb, and asterisks represent arcade cells. (b) N2, *aaim-1*, and *aaim-1* expressing extrachromosomal arrays of wild-type or 3x Flag tagged constructs were infected with a medium-2 dose of *N. parisii*, fixed at 72 hours, and stained with direct-yellow 96 (DY96). Percentage of gravid worms is shown. Experiment is of three independent replicates of at least 100 animals each. Mean  $\pm$  SEM represented by horizontal bars. P-values determined via one-way ANOVA with post hoc. Significance defined as \*\*\*\* p < 0.0001.

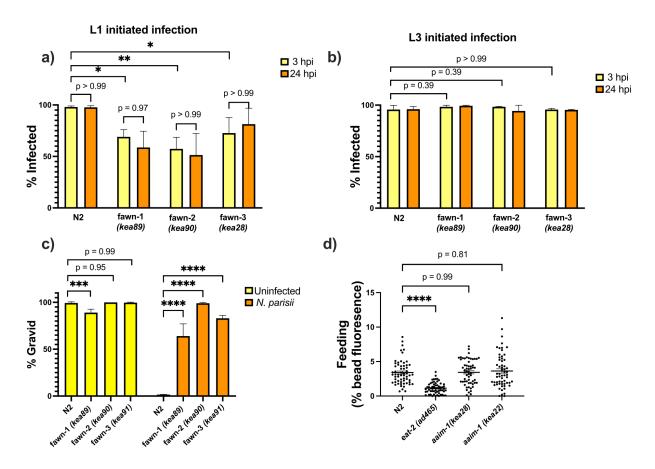


Figure S4: *aaim-1* mutants do not clear *N. parisii* and developmentally restricted *N. parisii* invasion defect is not due to a feeding defect. (a-b) N2 and *aaim-1* mutants were infected at either the L1 stage (a) or the L3 stage (b) with a medium-1 dose of *N. parisii* spores for 3 hours. Animals were then washed to remove spores and re-plated for an additional 21 hours. Worms were fixed at both the 3 hour and 24 hour timepoints and stained with an *N. parisii* 18S RNA fish probe. Worms containing either sporoplasm or meronts were counted as infected. (c) N2 and *aaim-1* adults were allowed to lay embryos on plates. Adults were removed and a low dose of *N. parisii* was added to the plate. Animals were fixed at 72 hours and stained with direct-yellow 96 (DY96). Percentage of gravid worms is shown. (d) N2 and *aaim-1* mutants were fed fluorescent beads for 3 hours. Quantitation of percentage of worm with bead fluorescence. Three replicates were performed experiment with at least 100 worms (a-c) or 20-30 worms (d) quantified per replicate.

Mean  $\pm$  SEM represented by horizontal bars. P-values determined via one-way ANOVA with post hoc. Significance defined as \* p < 0.05, \*\* p < 0.01, \*\*\* p < 0.001, \*\*\*\* p < 0.0001.

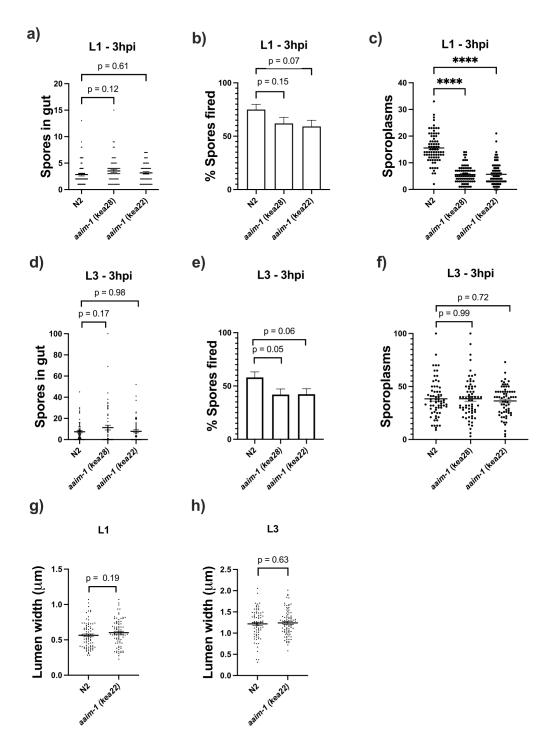


Figure S5: Invasion defects in *aaim-1* only occurs at the L1 stage of development and a mutation in *aaim-1* do not alter the width of the intestinal lumen.

(a-f) N2 and *aaim-1* animals were infected for 3 hours at L1 (a-c) or L3 (d-f), fixed, and then stained with DY96 and an *N. parisii* 18S RNA fish probe. The number of spores per animal (a,d) the percentage of spores fired (b,e) and the number of sporoplasm per worm (c,f) are displayed. (g,h) The width of the intestinal lumen was measured in L1 (g) or L3 (h) wild-type or *aaim-1* animals. (a-h) Experiment is of 3 replicates of 16-30 animals each. Mean ± SEM represented by horizontal bars. P-values determined via one-way ANOVA with post hoc (a-f) or Unpaired Student's t-test (g,h). Significance defined as \*\*\*\* p < 0.0001.

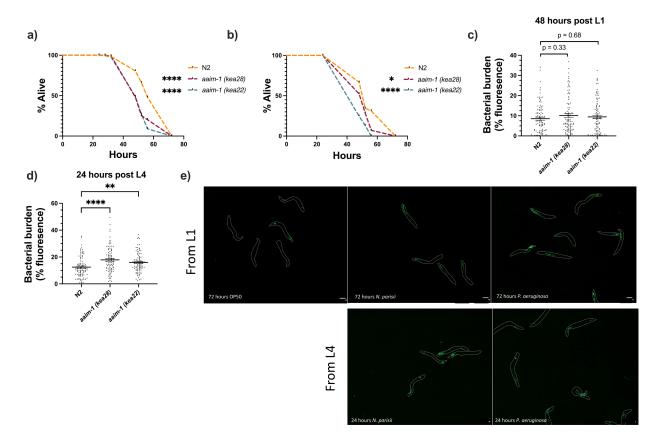


Figure S6: Susceptibility to *P. aeruginosa* PA14 appears at L4.

(a,b) Additional replicates of survival assays of animals grown on full lawns of PA14 as in Figure 5a. (c-d) N2 and *aaim-1* mutants were grown on PA14::DsRed 48 hours post L1 (c) or 24 hours post L4 (d). Experiment is of three replicates, with 20-30 worms were quantified per replicate via FIJI. Every point represents a single worm. Bacterial burden was measured as the percentage of the animal containing PA14::dsRED via FIJI. Mean  $\pm$  SEM represented by horizontal bars. (e) paaim-1::GFP::3xFlag were exposed to either PA14 or *N. parisii* 72 hours post L1 or 24 hours post L4. Animals were Imaged at 45.5x, scale bar 500  $\mu$ m. P-values determined via one-way ANOVA with post hoc. Significance defined as \*\* p < 0.01, \*\*\*\* p < 0.0001.

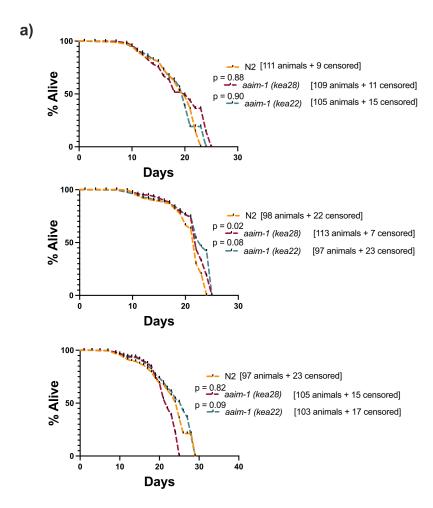


Figure S7: A mutation in *aaim-1* does not influence *C. elegans* lifespan.

N2 and *aaim-1* mutants were grown on *E. coli* OP50 for one month, and survival measured as number of animals responsive to touch. The number of animals quantified, as well as those censored are denoted on the graph. Three independent survival assays are displayed. P-values determined via Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test.

#### T14E8.4 (X-6559570-6562366)

CHROM	POS	REF	ALT	AF	allele	effect	impact	gene_name	gene_id	feature_id	transcript_biotype	nt_change	aa_change
х	6559573	А	G	0	G	synonymous_variant	LOW	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.1545T>C	p.Asn515Asn
x	6560363	А	G	0	G	synonymous_variant	LOW	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.1284T>C	p.Ser428Ser
x	6560426	Α	G	0	G	synonymous_variant	LOW	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.1221T>C	p.Tyr407Tyr
x	6560445	Т	TA	0	TA	splice_region_variant&intron_variant	LOW	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.1204-3_1204-2insT	NA
x	6560485	А	G	0.77	G	splice_region_variant&intron_variant	LOW	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.1203+7T>C	NA
x	6560524	С	G	0	G	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.1171G>C	p.Val391Leu
x	6560647	С	А	0.02	Α	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.1048G>T	p.Ala350Ser
x	6560670	А	G	0	G	missense_variant&splice_region_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.1025T>C	p.Val342Ala
x	6560810	Т	А	0.01	Α	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.940A>T	p.lle314Phe
x	6560841	G	А	0.01	Α	synonymous_variant	LOW	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.909C>T	p.Thr303Thr
x	6560869	А	Т	0.02	Т	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.881T>A	p.Val294Glu
x	6560873	С	Т	0.01	Т	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.877G>A	p.Val2931le
x	6560876	Т	С	0	С	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.874A>G	p.Lys292Glu
x	6560955	С	Т	0	Т	synonymous_variant	LOW	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.795G>A	p.Ser265Ser
x	6561004	С	Т	0.09	Т	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.746G>A	p.Arg249Lys
x	6561012	G	Т	0.07	Т	synonymous_variant	LOW	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.738C>A	p.lle246lle
x	6561013	Α	Т	0.01	Т	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.737T>A	p.lle246Asn
x	6561030	С	Т	0.54	Т	synonymous_variant	LOW	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.720G>A	p.Thr240Thr
x	6561062	С	Т	0	Т	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.688G>A	p.Ala230Thr
x	6561122	Т	А	0	Α	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.628A>T	p.lle210Phe
x	6561199	G	Т	0.03	Т	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.551C>A	p.Thr184Asn
x	6561201	Т	А	0.02	Α	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.549A>T	p.Leu183Phe
x	6561212	А	G	0	G	splice_region_variant&intron_variant	LOW	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.544-6T>C	NA
x	6561830	G	А	0	Α	synonymous_variant	LOW	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.403C>T	p.Leu135Leu
x	6562016	G	С	0.01	С	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.217C>G	p.Gln73Glu
x	6562145	А	Т	0	Т	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.138T>A	p.Asn46Lys
x	6562349	Α	T	0	Т	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.18T>A	p.Phe6Leu
x	6562355	T	А	0.05	А	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.12A>T	p.Leu4Phe
x	6562361	С	G	0.01	G	missense_variant	MODERATE	T14E8.4	WBGene00043981	T14E8.4.1	protein_coding	c.6G>C	p.Arg2Ser

#### Figure S8: List of naturally occurring aaim-1 variants in wild isolates of *C. elegans*.

This table represents a list of *T14E8.4* coding variants found to naturally occur in wild isolates of *C. elegans* generated by the CeNDR variant browser.<sup>43</sup> The reference allele (REF) as well as the alternate variant (ALT) and the allele frequency (AF) are displayed for various sites (POS) across *T14E8.4*. The nature (effect) and impact of these variants are depicted as well as the nucleotide changes (nt\_change) and the corresponding amino acid change (aa\_change). *T14E8.4* does not possess any variants predicted to have a high impact, implying that there are no obvious loss of function alleles and that its retention in the wild is advantageous.

# Supplemental table 1: List of strains utilized in this study

Strain name	Genotype	Source	
N2	Wild-type, Bristol strain	Caenorhabditis	
		genetics center	
		(CGC)	
fawn-1 (AWR 05)	aaim-1 (kea89) X C127T, Q43Stop	This study	
fawn-2 (AWR 11)	aaim-1 (kea90) X G221A splice site mutation	This study	
fawn-3 (AWR 17)	aaim-1 (kea28) X 2.2 kb deletion	This study	
fawn-4 (AWR03)	aaim-1 (kea91) X C1286T, A429V	This study	
DM7448	VC20019 Ex[ <i>Pmyo-3::YFP</i> ])	Mok et al.	
		$(2020)^{75}$	
RB563	aaim-1 (ok295) X	CGC	
AWR 73	aaim-1 (kea22) X	This study	
AWR 83	aaim-1 (kea28) X	This study	
DA465	eat-2 (ad465) II	CGC	
AWR 131	N2Ex[pmyo2::mCherry::Unc54, paaim-	This study	
	1::GFP::3xFlag::Unc54]		
AWR 125	aaim-1 (kea28 Ex[pmyo2::mCherry::Unc54, paaim-	This study	
	1::GFP::3xFlag::Unc54])		
AWR 122	aaim-1 (kea28 Ex[pmyo3::mCherry::Unc54, paaim-	This study	
	1::GFP::Unc54])		
AWR 115	aaim-1 (kea28 Ex[pmyo2::mCherry::Unc54, paaim-1::aaim-	This study	
	1::Unc54])		

AWR119	aaim-1 (kea28 Ex[pmyo2::mCherry::Unc54, paaim-1::aaim-	This study
	1::3xFlag:: <i>Unc54]</i> )	
AWR 127	aaim-1 (kea28Ex[pmyo2::mCherry::Unc54, paaim-1::SPΔ	This study
	aaim-1::3xFlag::Unc54])	
AWR129	aaim-1 (kea28 Ex[pmyo2::mCherry::Unc54, pspp-5:: aaim-	This study
	1::3xFlag::Unc54])	
YY1446	znfx-1(gg634[HA::tagRFP::znfx-1]) II.	CGC

# Supplemental table 2: Spore doses utilized in this study.

Species	Dose	Plate concentration (spores/cm²)	Total spores on assay plate (Millions) Plate size: *3.5cm, **6cm, ***10cm
	Very low	25,984	0.25*
	low	207,875	2.0*
	Medium-1	1,247,232	3.0*
N. parisii	Medium-2	115,050	3.25
	Medium-2	41,380	3.25**
	Medium-3	141,600	4.0
	High	194,700	5.50
	Very high	318,600	9.0
	Maximal	637,200	18.0
N. ausubeli	Medium	103,936	1.0*
	High	519,680	5.0*

### Supplemental table 3: Primer sequences.

896

Primer description	Sequence
Forward primer to amplify aaim-1	5'- atgaggttattatttttttcagcat -3'
Reverse primer to amplify <i>aaim-1</i>	5'-ttaatttttttgctggtgagg-3'
Forward primer to generate	5'-atgctaaaggatttcttgccgtg-3'
SP∆aaim-1	
Forward primer to amplify	5'-ttagtttggaaatgcacaaaaaactgatctct-3'
paaim-1	
Reverse primer to amplify	5-cagtggacttctgcttattaaaatgacttc-3'
paaim-l	
Forward primer to amplify pmyo2	5'-cattttatatctgagtagtatcctttgctttaaatgtcc-3'
Reverse primer to amplify pmyo2	5'- gcatttctgtgtctgacgat-3'
Forward primer to amplify pspp5	5'-aaagcaaaatatcattatttgggaaaatc-3'
Reverse primer to amplify pspp5	5'-tctgtaataaaattgaaatgaaacac-3'
Forward primer to amplify GFP	5'-atgagtaaaggagaagaattgttcact-3'
from pDD282	
Reverse primer to amplify GFP	5'-ttacttgtagagctcgtccattccg-3'
from pDD282	
Forward ultramer to add a Gly Ala	5'-
Gly Ser <b>linker</b> and <u>3x Flag</u> with	ggagccggatctgattataaagacgatgacgataagcgtgactacaaggacgacgacgaca
stop codon to C-Terminal end of	agegtgattacaaggatgacgatgacaagagataaaacccagctttcttgtacaaagttg-3'
constructs in <b>pDDONR221</b> via	
round the horn PCR. <sup>67</sup>	
7	

#### 898 **References:**

- 900 1. Murareanu Brandon M. et al. Generation of a Microsporidia Species Attribute Database and
- Analysis of the Extensive Ecological and Phenotypic Diversity of Microsporidia. *mBio* **0**,
- 902 e01490-21.

- 903 2. Corradi, N. Microsporidia: Eukaryotic Intracellular Parasites Shaped by Gene Loss and
- Horizontal Gene Transfers. Annu. Rev. Microbiol. 69, 167–183 (2015).
- 905 3. Wadi, L. & Reinke, A. W. Evolution of microsporidia: An extremely successful group of
- eukaryotic intracellular parasites. *PLoS Pathog.* **16**, e1008276 (2020).
- 907 4. Balla, K. M., Andersen, E. C., Kruglyak, L. & Troemel, E. R. A Wild C. Elegans Strain Has
- Enhanced Epithelial Immunity to a Natural Microsporidian Parasite. *PLOS Pathog.* 11,
- 909 e1004583 (2015).
- 910 5. Routtu, J. & Ebert, D. Genetic architecture of resistance in Daphnia hosts against two species
- 911 of host-specific parasites. *Heredity* **114**, 241–248 (2015).
- 912 6. Martín-Hernández, R. et al. Nosema ceranae in Apis mellifera: a 12 years postdetection
- 913 perspective. *Environ. Microbiol.* **20**, 1302–1329 (2018).
- 7. Jaroenlak, P. et al. Identification, characterization and heparin binding capacity of a spore-
- wall, virulence protein from the shrimp microsporidian, Enterocytozoon hepatopenaei
- 916 (EHP). *Parasit. Vectors* **11**, 1–15 (2018).
- 8. Stentiford, G. D. et al. Microsporidia Emergent Pathogens in the Global Food Chain.
- 918 *Trends Parasitol.* **32**, 336–348 (2016).
- 919 9. Han, B. & Weiss, L. Therapeutic targets for the treatment of microsporidiosis in humans.
- 920 Expert Opin. Ther. Targets **22**, (2018).

- 921 10. Han, B., Takvorian, P. M. & Weiss, L. M. Invasion of Host Cells by Microsporidia. Front.
- 922 *Microbiol.* **11**, (2020).
- 923 11. Jarkass, H. T. E. & Reinke, A. W. The ins and outs of host-microsporidia interactions during
- 924 invasion, proliferation and exit. *Cell. Microbiol.* **n/a**, e13247.
- 925 12. Hayman, J. R., Hayes, S. F., Amon, J. & Nash, T. E. Developmental Expression of Two
- 926 Spore Wall Proteins during Maturation of the Microsporidian Encephalitozoon intestinalis.
- 927 *Infect. Immun.* **69**, 7057–7066 (2001).
- 928 13. Hayman, J. R., Southern, T. R. & Nash, T. E. Role of Sulfated Glycans in Adherence of the
- 929 Microsporidian Encephalitozoon intestinalis to Host Cells In Vitro. *Infect. Immun.* **73**, 841–
- 930 848 (2005).
- 931 14. Southern, T. R., Jolly, C. E., Lester, M. E. & Hayman, J. R. EnP1, a Microsporidian Spore
- Wall Protein That Enables Spores To Adhere to and Infect Host Cells In Vitro. *Eukaryot*.
- 933 *Cell* **6**, 1354–1362 (2007).
- 934 15. Li, Y. et al. Identification of a novel spore wall protein (SWP26) from microsporidia
- 935 Nosema bombycis. *Int. J. Parasitol.* **39**, 391–398 (2009).
- 936 16. Wu, Z. et al. Proteomic analysis of spore wall proteins and identification of two spore wall
- proteins from Nosema bombycis (Microsporidia). *Proteomics* **8**, 2447–2461 (2008).
- 938 17. Chen, L., Li, R., You, Y., Zhang, K. & Zhang, L. A Novel Spore Wall Protein from
- Antonospora locustae (Microsporidia: Nosematidae) Contributes to Sporulation. *J. Eukaryot*.
- 940 *Microbiol.* **64**, 779–791 (2017).
- 941 18. Xu, Y., Takvorian, P., Cali, A. & Weiss, L. M. Lectin Binding of the Major Polar Tube
- Protein (PTPI) and its Role in Invasion. J. Eukaryot. Microbiol. **50**, 600–601 (2003).

- 943 19. Xu, Y., Takvorian, P. M., Cali, A., Orr, G. & Weiss, L. M. Glycosylation of the Major Polar
- Tube Protein of Encephalitozoon hellem, a Microsporidian Parasite That Infects Humans.
- 945 *Infect. Immun.* **72**, 6341–6350 (2004).
- 946 20. Han, B. et al. The role of microsporidian polar tube protein 4 (PTP4) in host cell infection.
- 947 *PLOS Pathog.* **13**, e1006341 (2017).
- 948 21. Han, B. et al. Microsporidia Interact with Host Cell Mitochondria via Voltage-Dependent
- Anion Channels Using Sporoplasm Surface Protein 1. *mBio* **10**, (2019).
- 950 22. Luallen, R. J. et al. Discovery of a Natural Microsporidian Pathogen with a Broad Tissue
- Tropism in Caenorhabditis elegans. *PLoS Pathog.* **12**, e1005724 (2016).
- 952 23. Zhang, G. et al. A Large Collection of Novel Nematode-Infecting Microsporidia and Their
- Diverse Interactions with Caenorhabditis elegans and Other Related Nematodes. *PLOS*
- 954 *Pathog.* **12**, e1006093 (2016).
- 955 24. Troemel, E. R., Félix, M.-A., Whiteman, N. K., Barrière, A. & Ausubel, F. M. Microsporidia
- Are Natural Intracellular Parasites of the Nematode Caenorhabditis elegans. *PLoS Biol.* **6**,
- 957 e309 (2008).
- 958 25. Troemel, E. R. New Models of Microsporidiosis: Infections in Zebrafish, C. elegans, and
- 959 Honey Bee. *PLOS Pathog.* **7**, e1001243 (2011).
- 26. Balla, K. M., Luallen, R. J., Bakowski, M. A. & Troemel, E. R. Cell-to-cell spread of
- microsporidia causes Caenorhabditis elegans organs to form syncytia. Nat. Microbiol. 1,
- 962 16144 (2016).
- 963 27. Willis, A. R. et al. A parental transcriptional response to microsporidia infection induces
- inherited immunity in offspring. Sci. Adv. 7, (2021).

- 965 28. Botts, M. R., Cohen, L. B., Probert, C. S., Wu, F. & Troemel, E. R. Microsporidia
- Intracellular Development Relies on Myc Interaction Network Transcription Factors in the
- 967 Host. *G3 GenesGenomesGenetics* **6**, 2707–2716 (2016).
- 968 29. Szumowski, S. C., Botts, M. R., Popovich, J. J., Smelkinson, M. G. & Troemel, E. R. The
- small GTPase RAB-11 directs polarized exocytosis of the intracellular pathogen N. parisii
- for fecal-oral transmission from C. elegans. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* 111, 8215–8220 (2014).
- 971 30. Balla, K. M., Lažetić, V. & Troemel, E. R. Natural variation in the roles of C. elegans
- autophagy components during microsporidia infection. *PLOS ONE* **14**, e0216011 (2019).
- 973 31. Reddy, K. C. et al. Antagonistic paralogs control a switch between growth and pathogen
- 974 resistance in C. elegans. *PLoS Pathog.* **15**, e1007528 (2019).
- 975 32. Tecle, E. et al. The purine nucleoside phosphorylase pnp-1 regulates epithelial cell resistance
- 976 to infection in C. elegans. *PLOS Pathog.* **17**, e1009350 (2021).
- 977 33. Luallen, R. J., Bakowski, M. A. & Troemel, E. R. Characterization of Microsporidia-Induced
- 978 Developmental Arrest and a Transmembrane Leucine-Rich Repeat Protein in Caenorhabditis
- 979 elegans. *PLOS ONE* **10**, e0124065 (2015).
- 980 34. Mok, C. A. et al. MIP-MAP: High-Throughput Mapping of Caenorhabditis elegans
- Temperature-Sensitive Mutants via Molecular Inversion Probes. *Genetics* **207**, 447–463
- 982 (2017).
- 983 35. Almagro Armenteros, J. J. et al. Signal P 5.0 improves signal peptide predictions using deep
- 984 neural networks. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **37**, 420–423 (2019).
- 985 36. Reinke, A. W., Balla, K. M., Bennett, E. J. & Troemel, E. R. Identification of microsporidia
- host-exposed proteins reveals a repertoire of rapidly evolving proteins. *Nat. Commun.* 8,
- 987 14023 (2017).

- 988 37. Ghafouri, S. & McGhee, J. D. Bacterial residence time in the intestine of Caenorhabditis
- 989 elegans. *Nematology* **9**, 87–91 (2007).
- 38. Engelmann, I. et al. A Comprehensive Analysis of Gene Expression Changes Provoked by
- Bacterial and Fungal Infection in C. elegans. *PLoS ONE* **6**, e19055 (2011).
- 39. Head, B. P., Olaitan, A. O. & Aballay, A. Role of GATA transcription factor ELT-2 and p38
- 993 MAPK PMK-1 in recovery from acute *P. aeruginosa* infection in *C. elegans. Virulence* **8**,
- 994 261–274 (2017).
- 995 40. Styer, K. L. *et al.* Innate immunity in Caenorhabditis elegans is regulated by neurons
- 996 expressing NPR-1/GPCR. *Science* **322**, 460–464 (2008).
- 997 41. Tan, M. W., Mahajan-Miklos, S. & Ausubel, F. M. Killing of Caenorhabditis elegans by
- 998 Pseudomonas aeruginosa used to model mammalian bacterial pathogenesis. *Proc. Natl.*
- 999 *Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **96**, 715–720 (1999).
- 1000 42. Kirienko, N. V., Cezairliyan, B. O., Ausubel, F. M. & Powell, J. R. Pseudomonas aeruginosa
- 1001 PA14 Pathogenesis in Caenorhabditis elegans. in *Pseudomonas Methods and Protocols* (eds.
- Filloux, A. & Ramos, J.-L.) 653–669 (Springer, 2014). doi:10.1007/978-1-4939-0473-0 50.
- 43. Cook, D. E., Zdraljevic, S., Roberts, J. P. & Andersen, E. C. CeNDR, the *Caenorhabditis*
- elegans natural diversity resource. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **45**, D650–D657 (2017).
- 1005 44. Dierking, K., Yang, W. & Schulenburg, H. Antimicrobial effectors in the nematode
- 1006 Caenorhabditis elegans: an outgroup to the Arthropoda. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.*
- **371**, 20150299 (2016).
- 1008 45. Suh, J. & Hutter, H. A survey of putative secreted and transmembrane proteins encoded in
- the C. elegans genome. *BMC Genomics* **13**, 333 (2012).

- 1010 46. Gallotta, I. *et al.* Extracellular proteostasis prevents aggregation during pathogenic attack.
- 1011 *Nature* **584**, 410–414 (2020).
- 47. Strzyz, P. Bend it like glycocalyx. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.* **20**, 388–388 (2019).
- 1013 48. Hoffman, C. L., Lalsiamthara, J. & Aballay, A. Host Mucin Is Exploited by Pseudomonas
- aeruginosa To Provide Monosaccharides Required for a Successful Infection. *mBio* 11,
- 1015 (2020).
- 49. Steentoft, C. et al. Precision mapping of the human O-GalNAc glycoproteome through
- 1017 SimpleCell technology. *EMBO J.* **32**, 1478–1488 (2013).
- 1018 50. Jensen, P. H., Kolarich, D. & Packer, N. H. Mucin-type O-glycosylation putting the pieces
- 1019 together. *FEBS J.* **277**, 81–94 (2010).
- 1020 51. Tran, D. T. & Ten Hagen, K. G. Mucin-type O-Glycosylation during Development. J. Biol.
- 1021 *Chem.* **288**, 6921–6929 (2013).
- 52. Schulenburg, H. & Felix, M.-A. The Natural Biotic Environment of Caenorhabditis elegans.
- 1023 Genetics **206**, 55–86 (2017).
- 1024 53. Samuel, B. S., Rowedder, H., Braendle, C., Félix, M.-A. & Ruvkun, G. Caenorhabditis
- elegans responses to bacteria from its natural habitats. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **113**, E3941–
- 1026 E3949 (2016).
- 1027 54. Sinha, A., Rae, R., Iatsenko, I. & Sommer, R. J. System Wide Analysis of the Evolution of
- Innate Immunity in the Nematode Model Species Caenorhabditis elegans and Pristionchus
- pacificus. *PLOS ONE* **7**, e44255 (2012).
- 1030 55. Ashe, A. et al. A deletion polymorphism in the Caenorhabditis elegans RIG-I homolog
- disables viral RNA dicing and antiviral immunity. *eLife* **2**, e00994 (2013).

- 1032 56. Reddy, K. C. et al. An Intracellular Pathogen Response Pathway Promotes Proteostasis in
- 1033 C. elegans. Curr. Biol. CB 27, 3544-3553.e5 (2017).
- 1034 57. Toor, J. & Best, A. Evolution of Host Defense against Multiple Enemy Populations. Am. Nat.
- **187**, 308–319 (2016).
- 1036 58. Thaler, J. S., Fidantsef, A. L., Duffey, S. S. & Bostock, R. M. Trade-Offs in Plant Defense
- 1037 Against Pathogens and Herbivores: A Field Demonstration of Chemical Elicitors of Induced
- 1038 Resistance. J. Chem. Ecol. 25, 1597–1609 (1999).
- 1039 59. Thompson, O. et al. The million mutation project: a new approach to genetics in
- 1040 Caenorhabditis elegans. *Genome Res.* **23**, 1749–1762 (2013).
- 1041 60. Bolger, A. M., Lohse, M. & Usadel, B. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina
- sequence data. *Bioinforma*. Oxf. Engl. **30**, 2114–2120 (2014).
- 1043 61. Li, H. & Durbin, R. Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows-Wheeler transform.
- 1044 Bioinforma. Oxf. Engl. 25, 1754–1760 (2009).
- 1045 62. DePristo, M. A. et al. A framework for variation discovery and genotyping using next-
- generation DNA sequencing data. *Nat. Genet.* **43**, 491–498 (2011).
- 1047 63. Wang, K., Li, M. & Hakonarson, H. ANNOVAR: functional annotation of genetic variants
- from high-throughput sequencing data. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **38**, e164 (2010).
- 1049 64. Schindelin, J. et al. Fiji: an open-source platform for biological-image analysis. Nat. Methods
- **9**, 676–682 (2012).
- 1051 65. Walhout, A. J. et al. GATEWAY recombinational cloning: application to the cloning of large
- numbers of open reading frames or ORFeomes. *Methods Enzymol.* **328**, 575–592 (2000).
- 1053 66. Hartley, J. L., Temple, G. F. & Brasch, M. A. DNA cloning using in vitro site-specific
- recombination. *Genome Res.* **10**, 1788–1795 (2000).

- 1055 67. Moore, S. D. & Prevelige, P. E. A P22 scaffold protein mutation increases the robustness of
- head assembly in the presence of excess portal protein. J. Virol. 76, 10245–10255 (2002).
- 1057 68. Almagro Armenteros, J. J. et al. Signal P 5.0 improves signal peptide predictions using deep
- neural networks. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **37**, 420–423 (2019).
- 69. Dokshin, G. A., Ghanta, K. S., Piscopo, K. M. & Mello, C. C. Robust Genome Editing with
- Short Single-Stranded and Long, Partially Single-Stranded DNA Donors in Caenorhabditis
- 1061 elegans. *Genetics* **210**, 781–787 (2018).
- 1062 70. Concordet, J.-P. & Haeussler, M. CRISPOR: intuitive guide selection for CRISPR/Cas9
- genome editing experiments and screens. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **46**, W242–W245 (2018).
- 1064 71. Amrit, F. R. G., Ratnappan, R., Keith, S. A. & Ghazi, A. The C. elegans lifespan assay
- 1065 toolkit. *Methods* **68**, 465–475 (2014).
- 1066 72. Crittenden, S. & Kimble, J. Preparation and Immunolabeling of Caenorhabditis elegans.
- 1067 *Cold Spring Harb. Protoc.* **2009**, pdb.prot5216-pdb.prot5216 (2009).
- 1068 73. Wan, G. et al. Spatiotemporal regulation of liquid-like condensates in epigenetic inheritance.
- 1069 *Nature* **557**, 679–683 (2018).

- 1070 74. Large-Scale Screening for Targeted Knockouts in the Caenorhabditis elegans Genome. *G3*
- 1071 *Genes Genomes Genetics* **2**, 1415–1425 (2012).
- 1072 75. Mok, C., Belmarez, G., Edgley, M. L., Moerman, D. G. & Waterston, R. H. PhenoMIP:
- High-Throughput Phenotyping of Diverse Caenorhabditis elegans Populations via Molecular
- 1074 Inversion Probes. G3 GenesGenomesGenetics 10, 3977–3990 (2020).