The CWI pathway is activated through high hydrostatic pressure, enhancing glycerol

efflux via the aquaglyceroporin Fps1 in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

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Abstract

The fungal cell wall is the initial barrier for the fungi against diverse external stresses, such as osmolarity changes, harmful drugs, and mechanical injuries. This study explores the roles of osmoregulation and the cell wall integrity (CWI) pathway in response to high hydrostatic pressure in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. We demonstrate the roles of the transmembrane mechanosensor Wsc1 and aquaglyceroporin Fps1 in a general mechanism to maintain cell growth under high-pressure regimes. The promotion of water influx into cells at 25 MPa, as evident by an increase in cell volume and a loss of the plasma membrane eisosome structure, promotes the activation of Wsc1, an activator of the CWI pathway. The downstream mitogen-activated protein kinase Slt2 was hyperphosphorylated at 25 MPa. Glycerol efflux increases via Fps1 phosphorylation, which is initiated by downstream components of the CWI pathway and contributes to the reduction in intracellular osmolarity under high pressure. The elucidation of the mechanisms underlying adaption to high pressure through the well-established CWI pathway could potentially translate to mammalian cells and provide novel insights into cellular mechanosensation.

Introduction

Microorganisms encounter a wide variety of extreme environmental conditions, including heat, cold, salinity, or nutrient starvation. These stresses are first detected by sensor proteins that trigger the expression of specific genes via intracellular signaling pathways to respond to and overcome a crisis. Eukaryotes are also subjected to physical stresses, including tension, shear forces, and hydrostatic pressure. In mammalian cells, forces are detected, at the cell surface, through specific classes of integral membrane receptors, such as integrins and cadherins, which transduce stimuli into biochemical signals that initiate adaptive responses (Kechagia *et al.*, 2019; Ladoux and Mege, 2017). Unlike stretching or expansion, hydrostatic pressure acts on cells as a uniform stress and affects all substances and reactions in the cell, according to Pascal's principle. Therefore, it is difficult to identify sensors of high hydrostatic pressure and determine their effects on complex intracellular signaling networks. Nevertheless, there is ample evidence that cells modify their metabolism, transcription, translation, or post-translational processes in response to increasing hydrostatic pressure (Abe *et al.*, 1999; Abe, 2021; Bourges *et al.*, 2017; Hodder *et al.*, 2020; Iwahashi, 2015; Mishra *et al.*, 2022; Pattappa *et al.*, 2019).

Human cells also experience high hydrostatic pressures. In joints, cartilage is typically

subjected to hydrostatic pressures between 3–10 MPa (0.1 MPa = 1 bar = 0.9869 atm = 1.0197 kg/cm^2)

(Afoke *et al.*, 1987), with a maximum pressure of 18 MPa in the hip joint (Hodge *et al.*, 1989). The

loading of endothelial cells with a low pressure of 50 mmHg (~6.7 kPa) activates protein kinase C and

transiently activates the Ras/ERK pathway as a result of the water efflux through aquaporin 1 (Yoshino

et al., 2020). High-pressure adaptation mechanisms in deep-sea microorganisms have also received

considerable attention. However, little is known regarding how microbial cells detect such stimuli and

convert them to intracellular signals.

Although *S. cerevisiae* is not a deep-sea piezophile, it can be used to elucidate the molecular

mechanisms underlying the cell's responses to high hydrostatic pressure by applying basic knowledge

of genetics and protein functions (Abe, 2021). Pressure pretreatment at a sublethal level (50 MPa for 1

h) increased the viability of yeast cells at 200 MPa, which is governed by two stress-induced

transcription factors, Msn2 and Msn4 (Domitrovic *et al.*, 2006). High pressure of 25 MPa accumulates

superoxide anions in mitochondria in a mutant deficient in superoxide dismutase 1 (Sod1), and the

mutant shows marked sensitivity to high pressures (Funada *et al.*, 2022). Incubation of yeast cells at 25

MPa for 5 h resulted in the upregulation of the *DAN/TIR* family mannoprotein genes, which are induced

under hypoxic conditions and at low temperatures (Abe, 2007). Target of rapamycin complex 1

(TORC1), an evolutionarily conserved serine/threonine kinase in eukaryotes, was activated by a

pressure of 25 MPa (Uemura *et al.*, 2020). We demonstrated that TORC1 plays a critical role in

maintaining an appropriate glutamine level under high pressure by downregulating the *de novo* synthesis

of glutamine (Uemura *et al.*, 2020). Such evidence indicates that high-pressure stress induces diverse

changes in intracellular processes and that cells survive by adaptively coping with each change. It may

appear that yeasts are not exposed to high hydrostatic pressure (equivalent to tens of MPa) on earth,

except for those inhabiting the deep sea. However, microorganisms inhabiting soil that are trampled by

a running 4 ton African elephant also experience comparable pressure. In addition, giant dinosaurs

weighing up to 100 tons roamed on the earth hundreds of millions of years ago, hence it must have been

crucial for soil microorganisms to acquire tolerance to extremely high pressure to survive during

evolution.

The fungal cell wall provides the first barrier against external stresses, such as osmolarity

changes, harmful drugs, and mechanical injuries. It is an elastic structure with a thickness of 50–500 nm

and is composed of β1,3-glucan, β1,6-glucan, chitin, and mannoproteins (Lesage and Bussey, 2006;

Levin, 2011; Orlean, 2012). The Young's modulus of the cell wall is estimated to be between 10 and 100

MPa (Davi *et al.*, 2019; Ma *et al.*, 2005), which is an intermediate value between that of low-density

polyethylene and rubber. The primary mechanical role of the cell wall is to maintain cell morphology

by balancing the tension generated by the turgor pressure, which is important for polarized cell growth

(Bi and Park, 2012; Madden and Snyder, 1998; Pruyne and Bretscher, 2000). In *S. cerevisiae,* cell wall

destabilization is sensed by transmembrane sensors of the WSC family (Wsc1, Wsc2, and Wsc3), as

well as Mid2 and its homolog Mtl1 (Jimenez-Gutierrez *et al.*, 2020; Kock *et al.*, 2015; Levin, 2005;

Levin, 2011; Philip and Levin, 2001), which activates a conserved signal transduction cascade, namely,

the cell wall integrity (CWI) pathway. Their architecture is analogous to that of the mammalian

transmembrane integrins (Elhasi and Blomberg, 2019). Among the five sensor proteins in *S. cerevisiae*,

Wsc1 has been extensively studied both genetically and biophysically (Banavar *et al.*, 2018; Dupres *et*

al., 2009; Heinisch *et al.*, 2010; Merchan *et al.*, 2004; Neeli-Venkata *et al.*, 2021; Philip and Levin,

2001; Schoppner *et al.*, 2022). The CWI pathway in *S. cerevisiae* is activated in response to cell wall

damage; however, recent evidence suggests that it is also involved in other stress conditions, indicating

functional diversity (Banavar *et al.*, 2018; Cruz *et al.*, 2013; Kock *et al.*, 2016; Straede and Heinisch,

2007). To date, the effects of high hydrostatic pressure in yeast cells have not been studied with a focus

on osmoregulation and the CWI pathway.

Atomic force microscopy (AFM) analysis revealed that a serine-threonine-rich (STR) domain

has a nanospring-like structure that expands and contracts under external pressure, which in turn causes

dephosphorylation of the cytoplasmic tail of Wsc1, transmitting signals downstream (Dupres *et al.*,

2009; Heinisch *et al.*, 2010; Vay *et al.*, 2004). The cytoplasmic tail of Wsc1 interacts with the GDP/GTP

exchange factor Rom2, which subsequently activates small GTPase Rho1(Philip and Levin, 2001; Vay

et al., 2004). Bem2, Sac7, Lrg1, and Bag7 act as GTPase-activating proteins (GAPs) for Rho1 (Fig.

1)(Martin *et al.*, 2000; Peterson *et al.*, 1994; Schmidt *et al.*, 1997; Schmidt *et al.*, 2002). Rho1 regulates

protein kinase C (Pkc1), a serine/threonine protein kinase that is essential for cell wall remodeling

(Levin, 2011).

Pkc1 then activates three protein kinase-signaling modules that integrate the mitogen-activated

protein kinase kinase kinase (MAPKKK) Bck1, redundant mitogen-activated protein kinase kinases

(MAPKKs) Mkk1 and Mkk2, and mitogen activated protein kinase (MAPK) Slt2 (Levin, 2011). Slt2

kinase regulates many cellular processes, such as fine-tuning of the CWI pathway, transcriptional

response to cell wall damage, cell cycle progression, and nuclear export of mRNA (Gonzalez-Rubio *et*

al., 2022), and mediates aquaglyceroporin Fps1 phosphorylation (Ahmadpour *et al.*, 2016; Levin, 2005;

Mollapour *et al.*, 2009). Although the CWI cascade is well characterized (Fig. 1), the exact mode of

Wsc1 action in response to different environmental cues remains unclear.

Fps1 is under the control of the CWI pathway (Ahmadpour *et al.*, 2016; Laz *et al.*, 2020). In

yeast, when the cell wall is damaged, water flows into the cell due to the osmotic pressure difference

between the inside and outside of the cell. To cope with this stress and prevent osmolysis, yeast cells

activate Fps1 to expel glycerol and eliminate osmotic pressure differences (Tamas *et al.*, 1999). The

opening and closing of Fps1 is a complex process mediated by protein phosphorylation involving several

signaling pathways (Fig. 1). First, MAP kinase Hog1 is activated in response to hyperosmotic stress and

phosphorylates the T231 residue of Fps1, resulting in Fps1 closure (Mollapour and Piper, 2007; Thorsen

et al., 2006). Hog1 negatively regulates this channel by displacing the Fps1-activating proteins Rgc1

and Rgc2, thereby causing Fps1 closure (Lee *et al.*, 2013). Second, the open state of Fps1 requires

phosphorylation by Ypk1, a target of TORC2-dependent protein kinase (Muir *et al.*, 2015). Third, Fps1

and Slt2 physically interact via phosphorylation of the S537 residue of Fps1, which promotes the

opening of the glycerol channel (Ahmadpour *et al.*, 2016).

Remarkably, while imaging wild-type *S. cerevisiae* cells, minor cell swelling was observed

after high-pressure incubation at 25 MPa. This suggests that high pressure may facilitate the influx of

water into the cell or damage the cell wall, further allowing water influx. This observation steered us to

study high-pressure signaling, with a focus on water influx, turgor pressure, the CWI pathway via Wsc1,

MAP kinase Slt2, and aquaglyceroporin Fps1 (Fig. 1). Our study provides novel insights into the

signaling events triggered by the application of high-pressure and the resulting molecular mechanisms

that help cells to cope with such stress.

Results

Wsc1 is required for efficient cell growth under high pressure

Based on the previous studies (Jimenez-Gutierrez *et al.*, 2020; Kock *et al.*, 2015; Levin, 2005; Levin,

2011; Philip and Levin, 2001), we hypothesized that any of the five sensor proteins, Wsc1–3, Mid2, and

Mtl1, could detect hydrostatic pressure changes, either directly or as a result of cell wall damage, and

activate the CWI pathway to allow for high-pressure growth. Cells were cultured in synthetic complete

(SC) medium at an OD_{600} of 0.01 for 48 h, under atmospheric pressure (0.1 MPa) or 25 MPa. We found

that the $wsc1\Delta$ mutant exhibited a moderate growth defect at 25 MPa, whereas the other mutants grew

as efficiently as the wild-type cells (Fig. 2A). The result suggests that Wsc1 plays a primary role in high-

pressure growth, while the other sensor proteins may contribute to the growth with overlapping functions.

153   Wsc1 is characterized by an N-terminal extracellular cysteine-rich domain (CRD), followed

by a glycosylated STR domain, a single transmembrane domain, and a C-terminal cytoplasmic tail,

which is considered to be the mechanosensory region (Fig. 1). The CRD and STR domains detect

structural changes in the cell wall (Dupres et $al.$, 2009; Heinisch et $al.$, 2010). An alanine substitution

of eight cysteines in the CRD of Wsc1 had a marginal effect on high-pressure growth ability, whereas

deletions of the STR and the entire N-terminal region caused sensitivity to high pressure (Fig. 2B).

These results suggest that the STR of Wsc1 can detect structural changes in the cell wall caused by high

pressure.

161   Single-molecule AFM results indicated that Wsc1 assembles in patches as large as 200 nm on

the plasma membrane, thereby enhancing transduction of the CWI signaling pathway (Dupres et $al.$,

2009; Heinisch et $al.$, 2010). Wsc1 assembles at the tips and bud necks where cells undergo polar growth,

and endocytosis is essential for their polarity (Piao et $al.$, 2007). To determine the effect of high pressure

on the distribution of Wsc1, we observed the localization of Wsc1-GFP before and after culturing the

cells at 25 MPa. Cells were observed after depressurization. As previously reported (Piao et $al.$, 2007;

Wilk et $al.$, 2010), Wsc1-GFP localized mainly to bud tips, but also to the plasma membrane of mother

cells as patchy structures, and possibly to late endosomes as punctate structures and vacuoles (Fig. 2C).

The bud tip localization of Wsc1-GFP was maintained after the high-pressure incubation although its

vacuolar degradation was slightly enhanced (Fig. 2C). Enhanced vacuolar degradation of membrane

proteins under high pressure has also been observed in the tryptophan permeases Tat1 and Tat2 (Abe

and Iida, 2003; Suzuki et $al.$, 2013). The overall localization of GFP-tagged Wsc1[8C>A], Wsc1[STRΔ], and

Wsc1[NterΔ] was comparable with the wild-type Wsc1-GFP (Fig. 2D). The polarized distribution of Wsc1

to bud tips requires endocytosis (Piao et $al.$, 2007; Wilk et $al.$, 2010). The Wsc1 mutant, in which the

NPF sequence at the C-terminal tail was replaced by AAA, exhibited a uniform distribution of Wsc1

within the plasma membrane (Piao et $al.$, 2007). Wsc1[NPF>AAA]-GFP was present throughout the plasma

membrane (Fig. 2C) and Wsc1[NPF>AAA] expressing cells grew as efficiently as the wild-type cells at 25

MPa (Fig. 2B). Therefore, we suggest that Wsc1 is required for efficient cell growth under high pressure

but does not need to be exclusively localized to the bud tips.

Wsc1 activates the CWI pathway in response to high pressure

To address the role of Wsc1 in optimal growth under high pressure, we focused on the downstream

effector Rom2. The Wsc1 C-terminal cytoplasmic domain residue, Y303, is critical for its interaction

with Rom2 (Vay *et al.*, 2004). Both the disruption of *ROM2* and the Wsc1-Y303A mutation, which

interferes with the Wsc1–Rom2 interaction, resulted in growth defects at 25 MPa (Fig. 3A). Among the

four Rho1 GAP genes, deletions in *BEM2, SAC7*, and *LRG1* caused growth defects at 25 MPa to varying

degrees (Fig. 3A). The expression of GTP-bound active forms of Rho1-F35L or Q68H failed to restore

the high-pressure sensitivity of the *rom2*Δ mutant (Fig. 3B), suggesting that the association of Rho1

with Rom2 is critically important for high-pressure growth. The expression of the constitutively active

form of Pkc1-R398P allowed the *rom2*Δ mutant to grow efficiently at 25 MPa (Fig. 3B). Disruption of

PKC1, *BCK1*, or *SLT2* resulted in severe high-pressure sensitivity, whereas only disruption of *MKK1*,

and not *MKK2*, caused moderate high-pressure sensitivity (Fig. 3C). These results suggest that Wsc1

acts as a mechanosensor that detects hydrostatic pressure changes and may transmit the pressure signal

into the CWI pathway.

To validate this hypothesis, we assessed the phosphorylation of Slt2 in response to high

pressure and found it to increase in a pressure-dependent manner, suggesting that high pressure activates

the CWI pathway (Fig. 3D). Also, disruption of *WSC1* reduced the phosphorylation level of Slt2 by 60%

at 25 MPa compared with the wild-type level. This indicates that other proteins, such as Mid2, may also

activate the CWI pathway in response to pressure (Fig. 3E). In contrast, loss of *BCK1* resulted in a

complete loss of Slt2 phosphorylation (data not shown).

Slt2 is under the control of the CWI signaling pathway, which is responsible for maintaining

cell wall homeostasis (Gonzalez-Rubio *et al.*, 2022; Levin, 2005; Martin *et al.*, 2000). Thus,

hyperphosphorylated Slt2 may modulate the transcription of downstream genes through

phosphorylating its substrates under high pressures. To verify this, we analyzed the effect of high

pressure on the localization of Swi4, one of the downstream transcription factors of Slt2. Wild-type cells

that express Swi4-GFP were incubated with 15 µg/mL nocodazole in a YPD medium for 2 h at 0.1 MPa

to induce cell cycle arrest in the G_2/M phase (Kim *et al.*, 2010) when most of the Swi4-GFP was present

in the cytoplasm. Synthetic Complete (SC) medium was not used in this analysis because nocodazole

was ineffective in arresting the cell cycle even at higher concentrations (data not shown). Cells were

then cultured for 5 h at 0.1 MPa or 25 MPa. We found that the percentage of cells with Swi4-GFP

migrating from the cytoplasm to the nucleus was higher at 25 MPa (46%, n > 300) than at 0.1 MPa

(17%, n > 300) (Fig. 4A). Furthermore, cells lacking Swi4 or Swi6 showed marked high-pressure

sensitivity (Fig. 4B). These results support our model, which confirms that high pressure activates the

CWI pathway.

High pressure facilitates water influx into the cells

While conducting this study, we noticed that the wild-type cells were moderately swollen after

incubation at 25 MPa. To validate this further, we examined whether the distribution of eisosomes was

affected by pressure. Eisosomes, peripheral membrane protein complexes located on the cytoplasmic

side of membrane compartments occupied by Can1 (MCC), are membrane invaginations (Douglas and

Konopka, 2014; Lanze *et al.*, 2020; Sakata *et al.*, 2022). If the cell swells and the plasma membrane

undergoes stretching under high pressure, the membrane invaginations should disappear. To verify this,

we observed cells co-expressing the low-affinity tryptophan permease Tat1-GFP as a plasma membrane

marker (Ishii *et al.*, 2022; Suzuki *et al.*, 2013) and an eisosome resident protein, Nce102-mCherry, after

cultured at 25 or 50 MPa. Cells were observed at 0.1 MPa within 15 min of depressurization. At 0.1

MPa, Nce102-mCherry was localized to the plasma membrane in a patchy pattern characteristic of

eisosomes (Fig. 5A). Notably, after high-pressure culture at 25 or 50 MPa, Nce102-mCherry was evenly

distributed within the plasma membrane (Fig. 5A). This was partially suppressed by the presence of 1

M sorbitol (Fig. 5A). When the co-localization of Tat1-GFP and Nce102-mCherry was examined at the

cell surface, Pearson's correlation coefficient (PCC) increased with incubation time at 25 MPa (Fig. 5B),

confirming the even distribution of Nce102 under high pressure. Similar increases in PCC with Tat1

were found for Pil1 and Sur7, another two eisosome-associated proteins, but not as pronounced as for

Nce102 (Fig. 5B). These results suggest that the influx of water into the cells after high-pressure

incubation results in tension in the plasma membrane. In the *wsc1Δ* and *slt2Δ* mutants, Nce102-mCherry

was not localized in a patchy pattern but was more evenly distributed within the plasma membrane even

under 0.1 MPa, suggesting excess water influx (data not shown).

Next, the cell volume was calculated by measuring the cell diameter using Tat1-GFP as the

plasma membrane marker. We found that the cell volume increased 1.2-fold after incubation at 25 MPa

or 50 MPa for 1 or 3 h, suggesting that water influx occurred under high pressure (Fig. 5A, B). To verify pressure-induced cell swelling, we examined the effects of 1 M sorbitol addition on cell volume under high pressure. As expected, 1 M sorbitol suppressed the high pressure-induced increase in cell volume (Fig. 5C). If high pressure merely pushed water into cells, the cell size would be restored following depressurization. However, the above results show that the cells remain swollen 15 min post depressurization until microscopic observation at atmospheric pressure. Therefore, even 1 h of incubation at 25 or 50 MPa would have caused irreversible changes to the cell wall. However, it remains unclear whether a high-pressure load directly weakens the cell wall structure or the cell wall expanded irreversibly due to increased water influx into the cell due to high-pressure application. In any case, cells were at higher risk of rupture under high pressure; therefore, to cope with this, cells tend to prevent water influx by expelling glycerol, the major osmolyte in yeast, to reduce internal osmotic pressure. Therefore, we focused on the regulation of intracellular glycerol levels under high hydrostatic pressure.

Aquaglyceroporin Fps1-mediated glycerol efflux is required for high-pressure growth

Under hyperosmotic conditions, yeast cells synthesize or retain high concentrations of glycerol to maintain their osmotic balance (Blomberg, 2022; de Nadal and Posas, 2022; Hohmann, 2002). Intracellular glycerol concentration is partially regulated by Fps1, an aquaglyceroporin on the plasma membrane. Fps1 closes when extracellular osmolarity is high and opens when it is low, to expel glycerol and prevent cell rupture (Ahmadpour *et al.*, 2016; Beese *et al.*, 2009; Lee *et al.*, 2013; Luyten *et al.*, 1995; Muir *et al.*, 2015). The growth of the *fps1Δ* mutant was sensitive at 25 MPa (Fig. 6A). The addition of 1 M sorbitol to the medium restored the growth of the *fps1Δ* mutant to the wild-type level, at 25 MPa (Fig. 6A). Disruption of the glycerol synthase genes *GPP1* or *GPD1* increased, albeit partially, the high-pressure growth ability of the *fps1Δ* mutant (Fig. 5C). Furthermore, single deletion of *GPP1* enhanced high-pressure growth in the wild-type strain, although deletion of other glycerol biosynthetic genes had no promotive effect (Fig. 6B).

Next, we analyzed the intracellular and extracellular glycerol concentrations. Wild-type and *fps1Δ* cells in SC medium were incubated at 0.1 MPa and 25 MPa for 24 h, starting with an initial OD_{600} of 0.1. Upon analyzing these cells, we found that the intracellular glycerol concentration in wild-type cells decreased markedly after high-pressure culture, whereas more glycerol accumulated extracellularly (Fig. 6C). By contrast, *fps1Δ* cells had a 3-fold higher intracellular glycerol concentration than wild-

type cells, which remained unchanged even after high-pressure culture (Fig. 6C). Thus, we concluded that wild-type cells expelled glycerol via Fps1 to cope with the high-pressure-induced excess water influx.

Furthermore, the ultrastructure of cells via transmission electron microscopy (TEM) showed that wild-type cells underwent no significant changes in cell morphology or cell wall structure after incubation at 25 MPa (Fig. 7). The ultrastructure of *fps1Δ* cells also appeared normal at 0.1 MPa. Interestingly, 20–40% of *fps1Δ* cells had sharply ruptured cell walls, without any abnormalities in their intracellular structures at 25 MPa (Fig. 7, arrows). The *fps1Δ* cell wall is weakened by increased turgor pressure due to glycerol accumulation; high pressure might also have caused further damage to the cell wall, leading to cell rupture.

Fps1 opening is likely regulated by Slt2 during high-pressure cultures

The upstream regulators of Fps1 were analyzed to determine the mechanism by which cells regulate Fps1 in response to high pressure. Previous studies have indicated that Hog1 is a negative regulator of Fps1 opening, whereas Ypk1 and Slt2 are positive regulators (Fig. 1)(Ahmadpour *et al.*, 2016; Lee *et al.*, 2013; Muir *et al.*, 2015). To determine which kinases are involved in the regulation of the Fps1 in response to high pressure, we examined the high-pressure growth ability of the *fps1Δ* mutant expressing Fps1-T231A (Hog1 target site) or S537A (facilitates binding with Slt2) at 25 MPa. We found that the Fps1-S537A strain showed high sensitivity, whereas the Fps1-T231A strain, as well as the wild-type strain, grew at 25 MPa (Fig. 8A). We examined the phosphorylation of Fps1 using western blotting and observed a high-molecular-weight band of Fps1-3HA, the intensity of which increased slightly (2.2 ± 0.3-fold, n = 3) with increasing pressure at 25 MPa (Fig. 8B). As expected, the high molecular weight band of Fps1-3HA disappeared in cells expressing Fps1-S537A (Fig. 8B). Phosphorylation of the S537 residue of Fps1 is essential for its interaction with Slt2; however, there is no evidence of its direct phosphorylation by Slt2 (Ahmadpour *et al.*, 2016).

The *slt2Δ* mutant was particularly sensitive to high pressure (Fig. 3C, 8C), which was completely rescued by the addition of 1M sorbitol (Fig. 8C). Therefore, the high-pressure sensitivity of the *slt2Δ* mutant was attributed to the excess water influx, at least in part, owing to its inability to open Fps1 and expel glycerol. The *hog1Δ* mutant also showed high-pressure sensitivity although the Fps1-T231A mutant grew at 25 MPa (Fig. 8A). The result suggests that Hog1 plays a role other than the Fps1

regulation under high pressure (Fig. 8C). The addition of 1M sorbitol did not restore high-pressure

growth ability of the *hog1Δ*, *swi4Δ*, and *swi6Δ* mutants (Fig. 8C). Interestingly, Slt2 was also

hyperphosphorylated when cultured with 1 M sorbitol at 25 MPa where there is no excessive influx of

water into cells (Fig. 8D). The result suggests that the activation of the CWI pathway by high pressure

may also be caused by a direct effect of high pressure on Wsc1, in addition to its activation via the cell

swelling associated with the excessive influx of water under high pressure.

To verify whether the high-pressure sensitivity of the *slt2Δ* mutant was due to reduced Fps1

activity, we expressed Fps1^{S537E}, a simulated phosphorylated form of Fps1 at the S537 residue, and found

that it efficiently rescued the high-pressure sensitivity of the *slt2Δ* mutant (Fig. 8E). Therefore, Slt2

activates Fps1, thereby preventing water influx and allowing for cell growth under high pressure. Given

that 1 M sorbitol fully restored the high-pressure growth ability of the *slt2Δ* mutant (Fig. 8C), it is

possible that Slt2 may also prevent water influx under high pressure by another mechanism, in addition

to activating Fps1.

Ypk1 is required for growth under high pressure, independent of the regulation of Fps1

Fps1 is also phosphorylated by Ypk1 for its activation, depending on TORC2 signaling (Muir

et al., 2015). We found that the disruption of *YPK1* caused a severe defect in cell growth at 25 MPa,

demonstrating the importance of Ypk1 (Fig. 8F). Ypk1 is phosphorylated by multiple protein kinases

such as Fpk1/Fpk2 (Rispal *et al.*, 2015), Pkh1/Pkh2 (Roelants *et al.*, 2002; Roelants *et al.*, 2004;

Roelants *et al.*, 2010), and TORC2 (Leskoske *et al.*, 2017; Muir *et al.*, 2015; Roelants *et al.*, 2004) (Fig.

1). To infer which kinases are required for high-pressure growth via phosphorylation of Ypk1, we

examined the effect of alanine substitutions for S51/S57 residues (Fpk1/Fpk2 target sites for Ypk1

inactivation), T504 residue (Pkh1/Pkh2 target site for Ypk1 activation), and S644/T662 residues

(TORC2 target sites for Ypk1 activation) on cell growth under high pressure (Fig. 1). While cells

expressing Ypk1-S51A-S71A grew as efficiently as wild-type cells at 25 MPa, those expressing Ypk1-

T504A or S644A-T662A showed severe growth defects under the pressure (Fig. 8F). Thus, it is possible

that Pkh1/Pkh2 and/or TORC2 phosphorylate Ypk1 in response to high pressure. As shown in Fig. 4,

cells swelled after high-pressure incubation, and the eisosome structure disappeared. This raises the

possibility that Slm1, localized in the eisosome, is released by high pressure and eventually binds to and

activates TORC2, ultimately phosphorylating Ypk1 (Fig. 1)(Berchtold *et al.*, 2012; Riggi *et al.*, 2018).

To test this hypothesis in our preliminary experiments, Lsp1-mCherry/Slm1-GFP-co-expressing and

Avo3-3×mCherry/Slm1-GFP-co-expressing strains were constructed, and any alterations in the

colocalization of each strain under high pressure were observed using confocal laser microscopy. Avo3

and Lsp1 are components of TORC2 and the eisosome, respectively (Babst, 2019; Eltschinger and

Loewith, 2016). We found that the colocalization of Lsp1-mCherry and Slm1-GFP decreased after cell

incubation at 25 MPa, whereas that of Avo3-3×mCherry and Slm1-GFP appeared to increase, suggesting

TORC2 activation (Fig. S1A). Furthermore, phospho-Ypk1 was detected using a rabbit monoclonal

antibody for phospho-PKC (pan) (zeta Thr410) (190D10), which reacts with the phosphorylated T504

residue, and after incubation at 25 MPa for 3 h, its phosphorylation level increased 7-fold. (Fig. S1B).

To test whether phosphorylation of Fps1 by Ypk1 is required for high-pressure growth, the

effect of phosphorylation site mutations was examined. Residue S570 of Fps1 is majorly phosphorylated

by Ypk1, while the phosphorylation of residues S181 and S185 has also been reported (Fig. 1) (Muir *et*

al., 2015). Both the Fps1-S570A-substituted and S181A-S185A-S570A triple-substituted strains grew

as well as the wild-type strain (Fig. 8G). Consistent with this result, the electrophoretic mobility of the

alanine substitution mutants Fps1-S570A-3HA, Fps1-A181A-S185A-3HA, and Fps1-A181A-S185A-

S570A-3HA remained unaffected (Fig. 8B). Thus, Ypk1 is unlikely to phosphorylate Fps1 in response

to high pressure.

Discussion

Based on the coincidental observation that cells moderately swell under high pressure, the importance

of glycerol efflux by Fps1 and its regulation via the CWI pathway has been the focus of this study. We

propose the presence of high-pressure signaling systems mediated by the stress sensor Wsc1 (Fig. 9). In

our model, high pressure activates the CWI pathway in two distinct modes. First, high pressure promotes

water influx into yeast cells, thereby increasing turgor pressure, which in turn expands the cell walls and

activates Wsc1 (Fig. 2–5). Second, high pressure directly activates Wsc1, as suggested by our finding

that Slt2 was hyperphosphorylated at 25 MPa even in the absence of cell swelling in 1 M sorbitol

medium (Fig. 8D). From the first perspective, the water influx caused by increased hydrostatic pressure

is similar to that of hypoosmotic stress. In growing yeast cells, turgor pressure is estimated to be 0.5–

1.5 MPa due to the influx of water driven by the osmotic gradient (Atilgan *et al.*, 2015; Minc *et al.*,

2014; Mishra *et al.*, 2022; Schaber *et al.*, 2010). The turgor pushes the cell membrane, further expanding

the cell wall. Using an osmometer, we found the osmotic pressure of the SC medium to be 255 ± 0

mOsm/kg (n = 3), which corresponds to 0.588 MPa (nearly 0.6 MPa). Assuming that the turgor pressure

of the cells was 1.0 MPa, the intracellular osmotic pressure was 1.6 MPa. Applying hydrostatic pressure

to the cell culture caused a water influx into the cells until the water potentials inside and outside the

cell became equivalent. Conversely, from the second perspective, it is possible that high pressure of 25

MPa directly modulates Wsc1 structure or promotes physical interaction between Wsc1 and Rom2;

however, evidence of high pressure-induced structural changes in Wsc1 or enhanced Wsc1–Rom2

interaction under high pressure remains lacking.

High pressure may also cause some perturbation to the cell wall, as suggested by our

observations that cells remain swollen at least 15 min post depressurization (Fig. 5). However, there is

currently no direct evidence that high pressures of 25 MPa damage cell walls. Since high hydrostatic

pressure has little effect on covalent binding (Chen *et al.*, 2017), it is unlikely that the β1,3-glucan or

β1,6-glucan networks are cleaved by high pressure. Rather, we suspect that pressure may have a greater

effect on the levels of cell wall mannoproteins. Our previous DNA microarray results showed that

transcription of the gene encoding for the major cell wall mannoprotein Cwp1 was markedly reduced

under 25 MPa; instead, the *DAN/TIR* family mannoprotein genes, which are typically induced under

hypoxic conditions (Abramova *et al.*, 2001), were significantly enhanced (Abe, 2007). Although their

protein levels have not been examined, the composition of mannoproteins may change with high

pressure, and eventually, cell wall elasticity may change. Once the CWI pathway is activated, Slt2 kinase

promotes glycerol efflux through aquaglyceroporin Fps1, thereby allowing for cells to expel glycerol

and adjust the osmotic pressure balance across the plasma membrane (Fig. 6). Under high pressure, the

high molecular weight band of Fps1 increased, suggesting enhanced Fps1 phosphorylation. However, a

similar high molecular weight band of Fps1 was also observed in the *slt2Δ* mutant, although it

disappeared in Fps1[S537A]. This suggests other kinases besides Slt2 that phosphorylate the Fps1 S537

residue. Since phosphorylation of Fps1 S537 residues is critical for binding to Slt2, there may be other

sites of authentic phosphorylation by Slt2. The role of Slt2 in growth under high pressure is not only

limited to the activation of Fps1, but also the phosphorylation of Swi4/Swi6 and the induction of

transcription of many downstream genes. This is justified by the fact that loss of *SWI4* or *SWI6* causes

severe high-pressure sensitivity (Fig. 4).

As per the TEM images of *fps1Δ* cells, the cell wall ruptured sharply after a high-pressure

incubation (Fig. 7). This observation may be due to the localized weakening of the cell wall by increased

turgor pressure due to glycerol accumulation in the *fps1Δ* cells. High pressure may have caused further

damage to the cell wall in the *fps1Δ* mutant, leading to cell rupture. However, we cannot rule out the

possibility that the weakened *fps1Δ* cell walls were ruptured during TEM sample preparation by the

sandwich freezing method (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2021a; Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2021b).

Although this study showed the importance of Ypk1 kinase in high-pressure growth (Fig. 8F),

it did not provide evidence that Ypk1 regulates the opening of Fps1 by phosphorylation (Fig. 8G). Rather,

alanine substitutions at Ypk1 residues, phosphorylated by TORC2 and Pkh1/Pkh2 kinases, prevented

high-pressure growth (Fig. 8F). TORC2-Ypk1 regulates polarization of the actin cytoskeleton and

sphingolipid biosynthesis (Kamada *et al.*, 2005; Rispal *et al.*, 2015; Roelants *et al.*, 2011; Tabuchi *et al.*,

2006). Therefore, the regulation of sphingolipid synthesis or actin organization may be important for

high-pressure adaptation. Indeed, high pressures stiffen membrane lipid bilayers (Matsuki *et al.*, 2013;

Winter, 2002), which may adversely affect membrane protein functions, membrane fusion, or membrane

trafficking. Furthermore, hypoosmotic stress causes the depolymerization of the actin cytoskeleton

(Gualtieri *et al.*, 2004). To cope with these pleiotropic effects of high pressure, yeast cells may activate

Fps1 via the CWI pathway to expel glycerol and avoid cell rupture, promote sphingolipid synthesis via

the TORC2-Ypk1 pathway to maintain membrane homeostasis, and regulate actin cytoskeleton

organization.

Therefore, the regulation of sphingolipid synthesis and actin cytoskeleton via the TORC2-

Ypk1 pathway is an interesting research target for understanding the physiological responses to high

hydrostatic pressure in yeast.

Our previous studies have shown that defects in *TRP1*, *TAT2*, TORC1-EGOC, or poorly

characterized genes such as *EHG1/MAY24* cause severe high-pressure sensitivity (Abe and Horikoshi,

2000; Abe and Minegishi, 2008; Kurosaka *et al.*, 2019; Uemura *et al.*, 2020). On the contrary, the defects

in the CWI pathway and Fps1 shown in this study caused relatively mild sensitivity to high-pressure.

This is probably because the former defects cause impaired nutrient uptake or aberrant glutamine

accumulation under 25 MPa, resulting in rapid growth arrest after pressurization, whereas the latter

defects are due to an inability to prevent water influx under high pressure, which causes the negative

effects on growth to progress slowly. Yeasts possess two types of aquaporins, Aqy1 and Aqy2. However,

both alleles are nonfunctional in experimental strains derived from S288C, such as strain BY4742 (Sabir

et al., 2017). Therefore, the water influx into the cell when exposed to hypoosmotic or high hydrostatic

pressure stress is thought to be mainly due to passive diffusion across the plasma membrane lipid

bilayers. Passive diffusion of water across the lipid bilayer is much slower than water flux through

aquaporins. This could explain why the effects of high-pressure stress are relatively mild. The Σ1278b

strain and the naturally occurring *S. cerevisiae* strains have functional *AQY* alleles (Laize *et al.*, 1999).

Therefore, the effects of hypoosmotic and high-pressure stress in these strains could be more severe than

in the experimental strains. The osmotic pressure of the SC medium was 255 mOsm/kg, which

corresponds to 127.5 mM NaCl. When it rains, the ambient osmotic pressure drops to near zero,

exposing naturally occurring yeasts to greater hypoosmotic stress. Exposure to high hydrostatic pressure

under such low osmotic pressure would pose a threat to their survival.

429   Meanwhile, the ambient osmotic pressure is isotonic for human and other animal cells.

Therefore, excessive water influx due to high water pressure loading, as observed in yeast in this study,

would not occur. However, when human endothelial cells are subjected to a pressure of 50 mmHg (~6.7

kPa), which corresponds to a transient increase in blood pressure during exercise, water is extruded from

the cell via aquaporin 1, causing cell contraction and plasma membrane deformation (Yoshino *et al.*,

2020). Consequently, protein kinase C is activated via the G protein-coupled receptor and phospholipase

C, which in turn activates the Ras/ERK pathway, ultimately leading to the formation of complex tubular

vascular structures (Yoshino *et al.*, 2020).

Since aquaporins are channels, if the water potential is equivalent inside and outside the cells, no water

efflux should occur even when the pressure is 50 mmHg. However, because the pressure is very weak,

the pressure applied at different sites in a single cell may be different, and water may be extruded through

aquaporins at lower-pressure sites.

441   The effects of high hydrostatic pressure vary not only with the magnitude of the applied

pressure but also with the duration of the pressurization. Therefore, the effects on the complex metabolic

processes of living cell systems cannot be generalized. The full picture of pressure effects will be

revealed by applying the extensive knowledge of yeast cell biology and sophisticated molecular genetic

tools to advanced transcriptomics, proteomics, and metabolomics studies, which could potentially be

translated to mammalian cells and help improve cellular health under normal and stress conditions.

Materials and methods

Yeast strains and media

The parental wild-type strain BY4742 and the deletion mutants used in this study are listed in Table 1. Strains DL376 (*pkc1Δ*) and DL100 (the parental strain of DL376) were kindly provided by Dr. David Levin of Boston University Goldman School of Dental Medicine through Dr. Hidetoshi Iida of Tokyo Gakugei University (Levin and Bartlett-Heubusch, 1992). The two strains were transformed with YCplac22 (*TRP1, CEN*) to provide tryptophan prototrophy. Cells were grown in SC medium or YPD medium at 25 °C under 0.1 MPa or 25 MPa (Abe and Minegishi, 2008). The SC medium contained 0.67% yeast nitrogen base without amino acids (Becton, Dickinson and Company, MD, USA), 2% D-glucose, 20 μg/mL methionine, 90 μg/mL leucine, 30 μg/mL isoleucine, 40 μg/mL tryptophan, 20 μg/mL histidine, 30 μg/mL lysine, 20 μg/mL methionine, 50 μg/mL phenylalanine, 30 μg/mL tyrosine, 20 μg/mL arginine, 100 μg/mL aspartic acid, 100 μg/mL glutamic acid, 400 μg/mL serine, and 200 μg/mL threonine. YPD medium contains 1% Bacto yeast extract (Becton, Dickinson and Company), 2% Bacto peptone (Becton, Dickinson and Company), and 2% D-glucose.

High-pressure cell culture

For most experiments examining growth efficiency under high pressure, growing cells in shaking culture were diluted in SC or YPD medium to an OD_{600} of 0.01. The diluted cells were transferred to sterile 2.2-mL tubes and sealed with Parafilm^{TM} (Bemis Corp., Neenah, WI, USA). The tubes were placed in a 500-mL high-pressure chamber (Abe and Minegishi, 2008) and subjected to 25 MPa at 25 °C for 48 h. After depressurization, cell growth was evaluated by measuring OD_{600} using a PD-303 spectrophotometer (Apel, Kawaguchi, Japan). Here, $OD_{600} = 1.0$ corresponds to 1.65×10^7 cells/mL in our device setup.

Generation of plasmids and mutant strains

The plasmids used in the present study are listed in Table 2. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based site-directed mutagenesis was performed using the appropriate primers. The primer sequences will be disclosed upon reasonable request. Homologous recombination, using pJT6 (GFP, *HIS3*) and pJT601 (mCherry, *URA3*), was used to tag genes in the yeast genome with GFP and mCherry, respectively (kind gifts from Dr. Jiro Toshima of Tokyo University of Science, (Kawada *et al.*, 2015)). Plasmids encoding HA-Rho1 (SP333; *LEU2, CEN*), HA-Rho1^{F35L} (SP335; *LEU2, CEN*), and HA-Rho1^{Q68H} (SP336; *LEU2, CEN*) were kindly provided by Dr. Satoshi Yoshida of Waseda University (Yoshida *et al.*, 2009). pBSK-

SFK1-3×mCherry-*CaURA3* was kindly provided by Dr. Takuma Kishimoto of Hokkaido University

Graduate School of Life Science (Kishimoto *et al.*, 2021). To generate Avo3-3×mCherry strain, a DNA

fragment encoding a *C*-terminal domain of Avo3 was amplified by PCR and was inserted into pBSK-

SFK1-3×mCherry-*CaURA3* of which *SFK1* gene had been removed. The resulting plasmid was

linearized by digestion with *Eco*RV and introduced into the wild-type strain harboring *SLM1*-GFP in the

genome.

Western blotting

Whole-cell extract preparation was performed as previously described (Ishii *et al.*, 2022). Briefly, 1.65

$\times 10^8$ cells were collected by centrifugation; serially washed with 10 mM NaN_3, 10 mM NaF, and lysis

buffer A (50 mM Tris-HCl, 5 mM EDTA, 10 mM NaN_3, and Complete™ EDTA-free tablet; Roche

Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany); disrupted with glass beads at 4 °C. Unbroken cells and debris were

removed by centrifugation at $900 \times g$ for 5 min, and purified lysates were treated with 5% (w/v) Sodium

dodecyl sulfate (SDS) and 5% (v/v) 2-mercaptoethanol at 37 °C for 10 min. Whole-cell extract

preparation to detect phospho-Slt2 was performed as previously described (Wilk *et al.*, 2010) with some

modifications. Yeast cells amounting to 5×10^7 in SC medium were treated with 255 mM NaOH–1% 2-

mercaptoethanol on ice for 15 min, then 6% trichloroacetic acid (TCA) was added and cells were kept

on ice for another 15 min. The cell pellet was collected after centrifugation at $15,000 \times g$ for 5 min,

washed with 1 M Tris-HCl (pH 6.8), and was treated with a sample buffer (65 mM Tris [pH6.8], 2%

SDS, 10% Glycerol, 100 mM DTT, 0.002% BPB) to denature proteins at 95 °C for 5 min. The

supernatant after centrifugation at $15,000 \times g$ for 5 min was used for western blotting. Whole-cell extract

preparation to detect phospho-Ypk1was performed as previously described (Roelants *et al.*, 2011) with

some modifications. Yeast cells amounting to 1.65×10^7 were collected by centrifugation at $6,000 \times g$

for 1 min. After removing the supernatant, the cell pellet was frozen in liquid nitrogen and was treated

with 150 µL of 1.85 M NaOH–7.4% 2-mercaptoethanol for 15 min on ice. Then, 150 µL of 50% TCA

was added to the cell suspension to precipitate proteins on ice for 10 min. After removing the supernatant,

the proteins were washed twice with acetone and were denatured with the sample buffer at 95 °C for 5

min. Proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred to Immobilon PVDF membranes (EMD

Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA). The membrane was incubated for 1 h with antibodies. The following

antibodies were used: a monoclonal antibody for HA (Medical & Biological Laboratories Co. Ltd.,

Nagoya, Japan), a rabbit polyclonal antibody for Adh1 (Rockland Immunochemicals, Inc., Gilbersville,

PA, USA), a rabbit polyclonal antibody for Pma1 (Usami *et al.*, 2014), a mouse monoclonal antibody

for Slt2 (cat. no. sc-133189, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, TX, USA), a rabbit monoclonal antibody

phospho-p44/42 MAPK (Erk1/2, Thr202/Tyr204; cat no. 4376, Cell Signaling Technology, MA, USA)

to detect phospho-Slt2, a rabbit polyclonal antibody for Ypk1 (a kind gift from Dr. Mitsuaki Tabuchi of

Kagawa University), and a rabbit monoclonal antibody for Phospho-PKC (pan) (zeta Thr410) (190D10)

(cat. no. 2060, Signaling Technology) to detect phospho-Ypk1. The membranes were washed and

incubated for 30 min with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG (GE Healthcare Bio-

Sciences, NJ, USA). Labeling was performed using an enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) select kit

(GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences). The chemiluminescence signals were detected in an ImageQuant

LAS4000 mini (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, NJ, USA)

Image collection and analyses on confocal laser microscope

Cells expressing GFP- or mCherry-tagged proteins were imaged using a confocal laser microscope (FV-

3000) equipped with an objective lens UPLAPO60XOHR (NA 1.5) (Olympus, Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan).

To determine the cell volume, cells were assumed to be spheres or ellipsoids. Using Tat1-GFP as a cell

membrane marker (Ishii *et al.*, 2022), cross-sectional images of > 100 cells cultured under each

condition were acquired. CellSens software (Olympus, Co. Ltd) was used to mark Tat1-GFP as a circle

or ellipse, and the radius (r μm) or long (a μm) and short radii (b μm) were calculated. For spheres, the

volume (μm^3) was approximated by $V = 4/3\pi*r^3$, and for ellipsoids, $V = 4/3\pi*a*b^2$. Changes in cell

volume due to high-pressure incubation were measured by acquiring images at 0.1 MPa, immediately

after depressurization. Colocalization of Lsp1-mCherry with Slm1-GFP or Avo3-3×mCherry with Slm1-

GFP was analyzed in more than 50 cells from three independent experiments using cellSens software

and represented by the Pearson colocalization coefficient. An IX70 epifluorescence inverted microscope

(Olympus, Co. Ltd.) was used for imaging.

Determination of glycerol concentration

Culture medium containing cells of 1.0 OD_{600} (1.65×10^7 cells) was centrifuged at $6,000 \times g$ for 1 min

to separate the supernatant and cell pellet. The cell pellet was dissolved in 100 μL of sterilized deionized

water and the mixture was heated at 95 °C for 10 min. After cooling to room temperature, the mixture

was centrifuged at 21,500 × *g* for 10 min to collect the supernatant. Glycerol concentrations in the

samples were determined using a glycerol colorimetric assay kit (item no. 10010755, Cayman Chemical

Company, MI, USA) with an appropriate dilution.

Measurement of osmotic pressure

The osmotic pressure of SC medium was measured using a Fiske 210 osmometer (Advanced

Instruments, MA, USA).

Transmission electron microscopy observation

Samples for TEM observation were prepared as described previously (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2021a;

Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2021b), with modifications. Cells cultured at 0.1 MPa or 25 MPa for 24 h in the SC

medium were briefly centrifuged at 760 × *g* following depressurization, and less than 1 µL of the cell

suspension was sandwiched between two copper disks (3 mm diameter) that had been prehydrophilized.

The copper disks were then sandwiched between reverse-acting tweezers and dropped into a coolant for

quick freezing. An isopentane : ethanol (4 : 1) mixture cooled with liquid nitrogen to a sherbet-like

consistency (approximately -130 °C) was used as the coolant. The copper disks were immediately

transferred to liquid nitrogen, cracked open, and then transferred to a fixing solution cooled with liquid

nitrogen. Ethanol containing 2% glutaraldehyde and 1% tannic acid was used as a fixing solution. The

samples in the fixing solution were kept at -80 °C for 48 h, -20 °C for 2 h, 4 °C for 2 h, and finally

returned to room temperature, in that order. Cells on copper disks were immersed in dehydrated ethanol

for 30 min thrice and then overnight. Propylene oxide : resin (Agar low viscosity resin LV, cat. no.

R1078, Agar Scientific Ltd, Essex, UK) mixture was used for resin replacement of the samples, with the

following mixing ratios in sequence; 1 : 0 (30 min, twice), 2 : 1 (1 h, once), 1 : 2 (1 h, once), 0 : 1

(overnight, once). The resin-substituted samples were allowed to solidify for 24 h at 60 °C. Ultrathin

sections of 70 nm thickness were then prepared using an Ultracut E ultramicrotome (Reichert-Jung,

Austria). The sections were stained with EM Stainer (cat no. 336, Nissin EM, Tokyo, Japan) for 30 min

and lead stain (Sigma-Aldrich, MO, USA) for 30 min. The samples were observed using a transmission

electron microscope JEM-2100 (JEOL, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with a thermionic electron emission

electron gun (LaB6 filament) at an acceleration voltage of 100 kV.

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Author contributions

Takahiro Mochizuki: Conceptualization and investigation; Toshiki Tanigawa: Conceptualization and investigation; Seiya Shindo: Investigation; Momoka Suematsu: Investigation; Yuki Oguchi: Investigation; Tetsuo Mioka: Cooperation; Yusuke Kato: Cooperation; Mina Fujiyama: Investigation; Eri Hatano: Investigation; Masashi Yamaguchi: Cooperation; Hiroji Chibana: Cooperation; Fumiyoshi Abe: Conceptualization, supervision, writing – original draft, and review and editing.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Table 1. Strains used in this study

Strain	Genotype	Source or reference
BY4742	*MATα his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 lys2Δ0 ura3Δ0*	(Brachmann *et al.*, 1998)
16672	*wsc1Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
11161	*wsc2Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
16255	*wsc3Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
15241	*mid2Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
14653	*mtl1Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
14700	*rom1Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
15280	*rom2Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
16152	*bem2Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
14225	*sac7Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
13937	*lrg1Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
12390	*bag7Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
DL100	*MATa his4 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-52 can1*	(Siliciano and Tatchell, 1984)
DL376	*pkc1Δ::Leu2* in DL100	(Levin and Bartlett-Heubusch, 1992)
11328	*bck1Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
12487	*mkk1Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
12112	*mkk2Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
10993	*slt2Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
TMY1482	*SWI4-GFP::HIS3* in BY4742	This study
12739	*rlm1Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
16109	*swi4Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
14131	*swi6Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
AFY7	*PIL1-mCherry::URA3* in BY4742	(Ishii *et al.*, 2022)
MSY1	*NCE102-mCherry::URA3* in BY4742	This study
MSY17	*SUR7-mCherry::URA3* in BY4742	This study
11531	*fps1Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
11446	*gpp1Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
10199	*gpp2Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
13718	*gpd1Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
11751	*gpd2Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)
TTY146	*fps1Δ::HphMX6 gpp1::kanMX4* in BY4742	This study
TTY147	*fps1Δ::HphMX6 gpd1::kanMX4* in BY4742	This study
TTY108	*SLM1-GFP::HIS3 LSP1-mCherry::URA3* in BY4742	This study
TTY113	*SLM1-GFP::HIS3 AVO3-3×mCherry::URA3* in BY4742	This study
14976	*ypk1Δ::kanMX4* in BY4742	(Winzeler *et al.*, 1999)

Table 2. Plasmids used in this study

Plasmid	Description	Source or reference
pUA35	3HA *URA3 CEN*4	Laboratory stock
pTM35	*GFP URA3 CEN*4	Laboratory stock
YEplac181	*LEU2 2 μ*	(Gietz and Sugino, 1988)
YCplac22	*TRP1 CEN4*	(Gietz and Sugino, 1988)
pRS313	*HIS3 CEN6*	(Sikorski and Hieter, 1989)
pTAT1-GFP	*TAT1*-GFP driven by its own promoter in pRS313	This study
pMB1	*WSC1*-3HA driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pMB23	*WSC1*-3HA-Y303A driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pMB74	*WSC1*-3HA-N344A-P345A-F346A driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pSS21	*WSC1*-GFP driven by its own promoter in pTM35	This study
pMB80	*WSC1*-3HA-N344A-P345A-F346A driven by its own promoter in pTM35	This study
SP333	HA-*RHO1* driven by its own promoter *LEU2 CEN*	(Yoshida *et al.*, 2009)
SP335	HA-*RHO1*-F35L driven by its own promoter *LEU2 CEN*	(Yoshida *et al.*, 2009)
SP336	HA-*RHO1*-Q68H driven by its own promoter *LEU2 CEN*	(Yoshida *et al.*, 2009)
pME29	*PKC1* driven by its own promoter in YEplac181	This study
pME30	*PKC1*-R398P driven by its own promoter in YEplac181	This study
pTNK5	*FPS1* driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pTNK8	*FPS1*-T231A driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pTNK9	*FPS1*-S537A driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pTNK10	*FPS1*-S570A driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pTNK22	*FPS1*-S181A-S185A driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pTNK23	*FPS1*-S181A-S185A-S570A driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pSS10	*FPS1*-3HA driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pSS26	*FPS1*-3HA-S537A driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pSS12	*FPS1*-3HA-S570A driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pSS16	*FPS1*-3HA-S181A-S185A driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pSS14	*FPS1*-3HA-S181A-S185A-S570A driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pSS6	*YPK1* driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pTNK11	*YPK1*-S51A-S71A driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pTNK7	*YPK1*-T504A driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pTNK14	*YPK1*-S644A-T662A driven by its own promoter in pUA35	This study
pTM102	pBSK (+) -*SFK1*-3×mCherry	(Kishimoto *et al.*, 2021)
pJT6	GFP *HIS3*	(Kawada *et al.*, 2015)
pJT601	mCherry *URA3*	(Kawada *et al.*, 2015)

 Figure legends

Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the CWI pathway in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Five cell wall sensor

proteins are depicted. Upon cell wall stress, Wsc1 first clusters at the cell surface. Binding of the

GDP/GTP exchanging factor, Rom2, to the cytoplasmic tail of Wsc1 activates the small GTPase, Rho1.

Rho1-GTP activates the protein kinase C, Pkc1, which activates a conserved mitogen-activated protein

kinase (MAPK) cascade. The cascade consists of Bck1 (MAPKKK), Mkk1/Mkk2 (MAPKKs), and

Slt2 (MAPK). Phosphorylated Slt2 translocates into the nucleus and promotes cell cycle progression

through the SBF complex and transcription of genes encoding cell wall proteins by Rlm1. Slt2 also

phosphorylates the aquaglyceroporin, Fps1, and promotes Fps1 opening to expel glycerol. When cells

are stressed, tension is applied to the plasma membrane, causing the loss of the eisosome, a plasma

membrane invaginating structure. Slm1/Slm2 localized in the eisosome migrate to TORC2.

Consequently, TORC2 is activated and phosphorylates Ypk1. Phosphorylated Ypk1 also phosphorylates

Fps1, positively regulating glycerol efflux. The phosphorylation sites, kinases, and functional motifs in

major proteins used in this study are outlined below. CRD (8C), cysteine-rich domain (C27, C49, C53,

C69, C71, C86, C90, and C98); STR, serine/threonine-rich domain (111–265 amino acid residues); NPF

motif, N344-P345-F346.

Fig. 2. Wsc1 is required for growth under high pressure. (A) Wild-type and mutant cells were cultured

in SC medium at 0.1 MPa or 25 MPa for 48 h with an initial $OD_{600} = 0.01$. Unless otherwise specified,

the high-pressure growth test was carried under this condition throughout the experiments. (B) Cells

with mutations in the extracellular domain of Wsc1 or the NPF>AAA substitution were cultured in SC

medium at 0.1 or 25 MPa. (C). Wild-type cells expressing Wsc1-GFP or the mutant forms were cultured

at 0.1 or 25 MPa for 3 h and were observed under a confocal laser microscope immediately after

depressurization. Data are presented as mean ± standard deviation of three independent experiments.

Fig. 3. CWI pathway is activated by high pressure. (A) Mutant strains with various defects in the CWI

pathway were cultured in SC medium at 0.1 or 25 MPa. (B) *rom2Δ* cells expressing Rho1 or Pck1

derivatives were cultured in SC medium at 0.1 or 25 MPa. (C) Mutant strains with various defects in

the CWI pathway were cultured in SC medium at 0.1 or 25 MPa. Strains DL100 and DL376 harboring

YCplac22 (*TRP1* and *CEN*) were used to examine the *PKC1* deficiency (left). (D) Wild-type cells were

cultured in SC medium under various pressure conditions for 3 h. Slt2 and phosphorylated Slt2 (P-Slt2)

were detected using western blotting using specific antibodies. The relative intensities, P-Slt2/Adh1 and

Slt2/Adh1, were quantified in an ImageQuant LAS4000 mini. (E) Wild-type or *wsc1*Δ cells were

cultured in SC medium at 0.1 or 25 MPa for 3 h. Western blotting was performed as in (D). Data are

presented as mean ± standard deviation of three independent experiments.

Fig. 4. High pressure promotes nuclear translocation of Swi4. (A) Wild-type cells expressing Swi4-GFP

were incubated with 15 µg/mL nocodazole for 2 h at 0.1 MPa. The cells were then cultured for another

5 h at 0.1 or 25 MPa and were observed after depressurization. The percentages of cells with Swi4-GFP

in the nucleus in more than 300 cells are shown. (B) Mutant strains were cultured in SC medium at 0.1

or 25 MPa. Data are presented as mean ± standard deviation of three independent experiments.

Fig. 5. High pressure causes cell swelling and loss of the eisosome structure. (A) Wild-type cells co-

expressing Tat1-GFP (plasma membrane marker) and Nce102-mCherry (eisosome marker) were

cultured in SC medium at 0.1, 25, or 50 MPa for 3 h. After depressurization, cells were observed at 0.1

MPa under a confocal laser microscope. Cross-section images are shown. (B) Cells co-expressing Tat1-

GFP and Nce102-mCherry, Pil1-mCherry, or Sur7-mCherry were cultured in SC medium at 0.1 or 25

MPa for 1 or 3 h. Pearson's correlation coefficient (PCC) was obtained for cell surface images from 63

cells in three independent experiments. (C) Changes in cell volume when cultured under high pressure.

Cells were cultured at 0.1, 25, or 50 MPa for 1 or 3 h in SC medium with or without 1 M sorbitol. The

cell volume was calculated from the cell diameter of more than 300 cells after depressurization in three

independent experiments.

Fig. 6. Glycerol efflux via Aquaglyceroporin Fps1 is required for high-pressure growth. (A) Wild-type

and *fps1*Δ cells were cultured in SC medium with or without 1 M sorbitol at 0.1 or 25 MPa. (B) Mutants

defective in glycerol synthesis were cultured in SC medium at 0.1 or 25 MPa. (C) Measurement of

intracellular and extracellular glycerol levels after incubating cells at 0.1 or 25 MPa for 24 h with an

initial OD_{600} = 0.1. Glycerol levels were quantified using a Glycerol assay kit. Data are presented as

mean ± standard deviation of three independent experiments.

Fig. 7. Ultrastructure of the cells observed using transmission electron microscopy. Wild-type and *fps1Δ*

cells were cultured at 0.1 or 25 MPa for 24 h, and after depressurization, the samples were subjected to

rapid freezing using the sandwich method. In *fps1Δ* cells, the points of cell wall breakage are indicated

by arrows. Scale bars, 1.0 μm

Fig. 8. Slt2-dependent phosphorylation of Fps1 is required for growth under high pressure. (A) The Fps1

phosphorylation-site mutants were cultured in SC medium at 0.1 or 25 MPa. (B) Electrophoretic

mobility of Fps1-3HA and its mutant forms was analyzed using western blotting. Cells were cultured at

0.1 or 25 MPa for 3 h, and whole cell extracts were prepared. The arrowhead indicates a higher-

molecular weight band of Phospho-Fps1 (P-Fps1). The relative intensities, P-Fps1/Pma1 at 0.1 and 25

MPa, were quantified in an ImageQuant LAS4000 mini. (C) Wild-type, *slt2Δ*, *hog1Δ*, *swi4Δ*, and *swi6Δ*

cells were cultured in SC medium with or without 1 M sorbitol at 0.1 or 25 MPa. (D) Wild-type cells

were cultured in SC medium with or without 1 M sorbitol at 0.1 or 25 MPa for 3 h. Western blotting

was performed as in Fig. 3D. (E) *slt2Δ* cells expressing Fps1, Fps1^{S537A} or Fps1^{S537E} were cultured in SC

medium at 0.1 or 25 MPa. (F) The Ypk1 phosphorylation-site mutants were cultured in SC medium at

0.1 or 25 MPa. (G) The Fps1 phosphorylation-site mutants were cultured in SC medium at 0.1 or 25

MPa. Data are presented as mean ± standard deviation of three independent experiments.

Fig. 9. Model depicting Wsc1-dependent high-pressure signaling pathway in yeast. When pressure is

applied to the cell, an excessive influx of water into the cell occurs. Perturbation of the cell wall by high

pressure causes further water influx, and the cell becomes at a risk of rupture. To prevent this, Wsc1

detects cell wall stretching and activates the CWI pathway. Once the CWI pathway is activated, Slt2

kinase phosphorylates the aquaglyceroporin Fps1. Phosphorylated Fps1 promotes its opening, which

allows cells to expel glycerol, adjusting the osmotic pressure balance across the plasma membrane.

TORC2-Ypk1 pathway is independent of the regulation of Fps1 under high pressure.

Fig. S1. TORC2-mediated Ypk1 phosphorylation by high pressure. (A) High pressure causes the

dissociation of a fraction of Slm1 from the eisosomes and its migration to TORC2. Wild-type cells co-

expressing Slm1-GFP and Lsp1-mCherry, or those co-expressing Slm1-GFP and Avo3-3×mCherry,

were cultured in SC medium at 0.1 or 25 MPa for 5 h. The cells were observed using confocal laser

microscopy immediately after depressurization. Colocalizations were analyzed in more than 50 cells

from three independent experiments using the cellSens software and represented by the PCC. (B) High

pressure promotes the phosphorylation level of Ypk1. Ypk1 and phosphorylated Ypk1 were detected

from whole cell extracts via western blotting, using antibodies for Ypk1 and phospho-PKC (pan) (zeta

Thr410) (190D10), respectively. The relative intensities, P-Ypk1/Adh1 and Ypk1/Adh1, were quantified

in an ImageQuant LAS4000 mini.

Fig. 1. Mochizuki et al.

Fig. 2. Mochizuki *et al.*

Fig. 3. Mochizuki *et al.*

A

	Preculture	Nocodazole	0.1 MPa, 5 h	25 MPa, 5 h
Swi4-GFP	69%	11%	17%	46%
DIC				

(n > 300)

Pressure (MPa)

B

0.1 MPa

25 MPa

*** $P < 0.001$
(n = 3)

Fig. 5. Mochizuki *et al.*

Fig. 6. Mochizuki *et al.*

0.1 MPa, 24 h

Wild type	*fps1*Δ

25 MPa, 24 h

Wild type	*fps1*Δ

Fig. 7. Mochizuki *et al*.

Fig. 8. Mochizuki *et al*.

Atmospheric pressure

H$_2$O

Fps1

Wsc1

Cell wall

PM

TORC2   Slm1/2   Eisosome

Ypk1
P
P

→ Sphingolipid synthesis
→ Actin organization
? → Endocytosis

High pressure

Dan1   Glycerol
?
Cwp1
H$_2$O
Wsc1
Cell wall
Fps1
P
PM
Rom2 m2
Membrane tension
P
Slt2
P
?
High pressure
Nucleus   SBF complex
Swi4 Swi6

Fig. 9. Mochizuki *et al*.

Fig. S1. Mochizuki *et al*.