1

TGF-β Ligand Cross-Subfamily Interactions in the Response of *Caenorhabditis elegans* to

Bacterial Pathogens

Emma Jo Ciccarelli[1,2], Zachary Wing[1], Moshe Bendelstein[1], Ramandeep Kaur Johal[1], Gurjot

Singh[1], Ayelet Monas[1], Cathy Savage-Dunn[1,2*]

[1] Department of Biology, Queens College, CUNY, Flushing, NY

[2] PhD Program in Biology, The Graduate Center, CUNY, New York, NY

* Corresponding author

E-mail: cathy.savagedunn@qc.cuny.edu

Abstract

The Transforming Growth Factor beta (TGF-β) family consists of numerous secreted peptide growth factors that play significant roles in cell function, tissue patterning, and organismal homeostasis, including wound repair and immunity. Typically studied as homodimers, these ligands have the potential to diversify their functions through ligand interactions that are synergistic, cooperative, additive, and/or antagonistic. In the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*, there are only five TGF-β ligands, providing an opportunity to dissect ligand interactions in fewer combinations than in vertebrates. As in vertebrates, these ligands can be divided into bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) and TGF-β/Activin subfamilies that predominantly signal through discrete signaling pathways. The BMP subfamily ligand DBL-1 has been well studied for its role in the innate immune response in *C. elegans*. Here we show that all five TGF-β ligands play a role in the immune response. We also demonstrate that multiple TGF-β ligands act cooperatively as part of this response. We show that the two BMP-like ligands – DBL-1 and TIG-2 – function independently of each other in the immune response, while TIG-2/BMP and the TGF-β/Activin-like ligand TIG-3 function cooperatively. Structural modeling supports the potential for TIG-2 and TIG-3 to form heterodimers. Finally, we show that canonical DBL-1/BMP receptor and Smad signal transducers function in the response to bacterial pathogens, while components of the DAF-7 TGF-β/Activin signaling pathway do not play a role in survival. These results demonstrate a novel potential for BMP and TGF-β/Activin subfamily ligands to interact, and may provide a mechanism for distinguishing the developmental and homeostatic functions of these ligands from an acute response such as the innate immune response to bacterial pathogens.

Introduction

TGF-β signaling is a highly conserved mechanism that plays significant roles in development in organisms ranging from invertebrates to humans (Attisano and Wrana, 1996; Derynck *et al.,* 1998; Massagué *et al.*, 1998; Morita *et al.,* 2002). This signaling family also plays an important role in the post-developmental adult in maintaining homeostasis and repair (Massagué *et al.*, 1998; Blobe *et al.*, 2000; Massagué, 2000; Massagué, 2012), as well as serving as one of the highly conserved signaling mechanisms involved in the immune response (Medzhitov and Janeway, 1998; Hoffman *et al.,* 1999; Kim *et al.,* 2002; Schulenburg *et al.,* 2004; Millet and Ewbank, 2004; Irazoqui *et al.,* 2008; Partridge *et al.,* 2010). The canonical TGF-β family signaling cascade is initiated by binding of a dimerized ligand to a heterotetrametric receptor complex and mediated through activation of the Smad proteins to regulate transcription (Wrana *et al.*, 1994; Massagué *et al.*, 1998). The human genome contains 33 TGF-β ligands, seven type I receptors, and five type II receptors (Massagué *et al.*, 1998; Huminiecki *et al.*, 2009; Wrana, 2013; Aykul and Martinez-Hackert, 2016). Currently, active research is focused on the mechanisms that mediate specific or promiscuous interactions between ligands and receptors, and the consequences for Smad signaling. These mechanisms have profound implications for normal development and disease (Silberstein and Daniel, 1987; Akhurst and Derynck, 2001; Li *et al.,* 2006; Massagué *et al.*, 2008; Pohlers *et al.,* 2009; Zamarron and Chen, 20011; Principe *et al.,* 2014). The number of potential interactions, however, increases the difficulty of these analyses. The reduced repertoire of ligands and receptors in invertebrate organisms provides an opportunity to study ligand-receptor functional interactions more completely. Due to the conservation of TGF-β signaling pathways, studies in the genetically tractable organisms

Drosophila and *C. elegans* have resulted in universal insights into conserved signaling

mechanisms.

In *C. elegans*, there are five ligands associated with TGF- β signaling: DBL-1, DAF-7, TIG-2,

TIG-3, and UNC-129. DAF-7 and TIG-3 are most appropriately classified as TGF-β/Activin-like

ligands, whereas DBL-1 and TIG-2 share the most similarity with BMP ligands in mammals

(Harpin, 2004; Patterson and Padgett, 2000). Of the five TGF-β ligands in *C. elegans*, only two

have well-characterized signaling pathways through which they signal (Patterson and Padgett,

2000; MacNeill *et al.,* 2009). The TGF-β-like ligand DAF-7 is the regulator of the dauer pathway

and its expression in favorable conditions prevents entry into the dauer larval stage (Ren *et al.,*

1996; Schackwitz *et al.,* 1996; Inoue and Thomas, 2000). The BMP-like ligand DBL-1 activates

the BMP-like pathway in the worm and plays a significant role in development (Suzuki *et al.,*

1999; Yoshida *et al.,* 2001; Wang *et al.,* 2002). UNC-129, TIG-2, and TIG-3 have been

classified (as BMP-like or TGF-β-like) based on their structural characteristics, but have not

been fully associated with all members of either the BMP-like or TGF-β-like signaling pathways

in *C. elegans* (Harpin, 2004; Patterson and Padgett, 2000).

Previous work from our lab and others has demonstrated that the BMP homolog DBL-1

functions in the innate immune response of *C. elegans* to pathogenic bacteria and fungi by

inducing the expression of antimicrobial peptide genes in response to pathogen exposure.

(Ciccarelli *et al.*, 2023; Mallo *et al.,* 2002; Zugasti and Ewbank, 2009; Zhang and Zhang, 2012).

Here we demonstrate that the DBL-1 ligand is only one of four TGF-β family ligands with a

significant and consistent role in the immune response to two gram-negative bacterial pathogens.

We show that in response to either *Serratia marcescens* or *Photorhabdus luminescens*, multiple

TGF-β family ligand mutants have a significant reduction in survival compared to control

animals. We also demonstrate that two BMP-like ligands, DBL-1 and TIG-2, act independently

of each other. In contrast, we have shown a non-additive relationship between TIG-2/BMP and

the TGF-β-like ligand TIG-3, suggesting a cooperative role for these two distinct ligands in the

immune response. Finally, we have identified signaling components with similar phenotypes to

TIG-2 and TIG-3 in response to bacterial pathogen. Our studies thus uncover novel signaling

paradigms that may act more broadly to distinguish distinct physiological outcomes regulated by

TGF-β ligands.

Materials and Methods

Nematode Strains and Growth Conditions

C. elegans were maintained on *E. coli* (DA837) using EZ worm plates containing streptomycin.

Worms were maintained at 20°C, except in experiments using dauer pathway mutants. These

strains were maintained at 15°C to prevent entry into dauer. The N2 strain is used as a control.

All strains used in this study are: N2, *daf-1(m40), daf-7(m62), daf-8(e1398), daf-14(m77),*

sma-2(e502), sma-3(wk30), sma-4(jj278), sma-6(wk7), tig-2(ok3336), tig-2(ok3416),

tig-3(tm2092), unc-129(ev554), daf-7(m62);dbl-1(wk70), tig-2(ok3416)dbl-1(wk70),

tig-2(ok3416);unc-129(ev554), tig-3(tm2092);tig-2(ok3416), tig-3(tm2092);unc-129(ev554),

tig-3(tm2092);tig-2(ok3416);unc-129(ev554), pdbl-1::GFP.

Bacteria

Control bacteria in all experiments is *E. coli* strain DA837, cultured at 37ºC. *S. marcescens* strain

Db11 (cultured at 37ºC) and *P. luminescens* (cultured at 30ºC) were used for bacterial pathogen

in survival analyses. *S. marcescens* (Db11) is seeded on EZ worm plates containing streptomycin

and grown overnight at 37ºC. *P. luminescens* is seeded on EZ worm plates with no antibiotic and

grown overnight at 30ºC.

Survival Analysis

Survival plates were prepared at least one day prior to use. Each plate was seeded with 500 μl

pathogenic bacteria in a full lawn. FuDR, at a concentration of 50 μM per plate, was used to

prevent reproduction and reduce the incidence of matricide during survival analysis. Survivals

were conducted at 20ºC, except survivals using dauer pathway mutants, which were conducted at

15ºC to minimize dauer entry (unless otherwise stated). Survival analyses were repeated for all

ligand experiments and DBL-1 pathway experiments. All graphs made using GraphPad Prism

and statistical analysis performed using Logrank/Mantel Cox test.

Fluorescence Imaging

Fluorescence imaging of the *dbl-1p*::GFP transcriptional reporter strain was done using a Zeiss

ApoTome with AxioVision software and a (20X) objective. Exposure times were kept consistent.

Image analysis and fluorescence intensity measurements were done using ImageJ software.

Fluorescence intensity was measured for ten nuclei in each of four worms per bacterial exposure

condition.

qRT-PCR Analysis

qRT-PCR analysis was performed on collected samples of N2 control animals with or without

24-hour *P. luminescens* pathogen exposure. RNA was obtained by a previously described

protocol (Yin *et al.*, 2015) and followed by use of the Qiagen RNeasy miniprep kit (Cat. No.

74104). cDNA was made using SuperScript IV VILO Master Mix (Cat. No.11756050) from

Invitrogen, Waltham, MA. qRT-PCR analysis was done using Power SYBR Green PCR Master

Mix (Cat. No. 4367659) from Applied Biosystems, Waltham, MA. qRT-PCR was repeated on

separate biological replicates. Delta delta Ct analysis was done using Applied Biosystems and

StepOne software. Graphs made using GraphPad Prism software.

Structural Modeling

SignalP 6.0 was used to predict the signal sequence for TGF-β family members. No signal

sequence for TIG-3 isoform A could be determined, and this potential isoform was not

considered further. For TIG-3 isoform B, the prodomain and mature domain are defined using a

consensus cleavage site (Newfeld and Wisotzkey, 2020). The TIG-2 cleavage site was

determined by manual sequence analysis using the (R/K)-X_n-(R/K) motif as a reference where X

is an amino acid sequence of length n such that n is even and $0 \leq n \leq 6$ (Hinck *et al.*, 2016). The

existence of multiple functional cleavage sites is common (Hinck *et al.*, 2016), and two such

sites (RSRR and KVKR) were identified. Both cleavage sites are supported by structural

modeling and preserve the cystine knot domain. The main distinction between the two sites is the

length of the initial disordered region of the mature ligand (RSRR: 134-residue vs. KVKR: 116-

residue mature form). Previously reported cleavage sites were used for the remaining TGF-β

family members (Hinck *et al.*, 2016). The full-length domain (Fig. 7C) is defined as the entire

monomer sequence, excluding the signal sequence. Dimeric structures were modeled using the

ColabFold (version 1.5.2) implementation of AlphaFold2-multimer (version 3). The

AlphaFold2_mmseqs2 notebook was run under the default settings, and amber relaxation was

applied to all five structural models. The model assigned rank one was selected for visualization

and analysis. Interchain residue contacts (Fig. 6, Fig. 7C) within 4 Å and their predicted aligned

error (PAE) value were identified using UCSF ChimeraX (version 1.5). One-dimensional amino

acid sequence tracks (Fig. 6) include only dimer-interface residues that are within a distance of 4

Å and have a low positional error (PAE < 5 Å). Images of three-dimensional structures were

rendered using PyMOL (version 2.5.4). pLDDT color coding and secondary structure annotation

of one-dimensional amino acid sequences were generated using iCn3D (version 3.24.2) and

reformatted. The alpha helices used in secondary structure labeling are modified vectors from

BioRender.com.

Results

The BMP-like Ligands DBL-1 and TIG-2 are Independently Required for *C. elegans*

Survival on Bacterial Pathogen

C. elegans has five TGF-β like ligands: DBL-1, DAF-7, UNC-129, TIG-2, and TIG-3. It is

established that loss of DBL-1, one of two BMP-like ligands in *C. elegans*, results in reduced

survival of animals on bacterial pathogen (Ciccarelli *et al.,* 2023; Mallo, 2002). In a variety of

physiological contexts, heterodimers of BMP ligands are functionally required or outperform

homodimers (Tillet *et al*., 2018; Little and Mullins, 2009; Kim *et al*., 2019; Shimmi *et al.,* 2005).

We therefore considered the possibility that DBL-1/BMP functions with the other BMP-like

ligand in the worm, TIG-2. The DBL-1 pathway has been thoroughly studied in response to

exposure to the gram-negative bacterium *Serratia marcescens*, where the worm's survival is

significantly hindered by gut colonization as a consequence of the pathogen supplanting the

normal bacterial food source (Mallo, 2002). To test the role of TIG-2/BMP, we quantified

survival of two *tig-2* mutant strains on *S. marcescens* and compared these survival rates to *dbl-1*

and N2 (wild type) control. We used *tig-2(ok3336),* a 500 bp deletion allele, and *tig-2(ok3416),*

an 800 bp deletion allele, and found that both *tig-2* mutant strains resulted in reduced survival

against bacterial infection (Fig. 1A). Survival rates for both *tig-2* mutant strains were

significantly different compared to control. The larger deletion allele resulted in a survival defect

similar to that of *dbl-1* mutants and more pronounced than the survival defect caused by the 500

bp deletion. We further tested the effect of mutating *tig-2* on immunity by analyzing the survival

of *tig-2* mutant animals on the more virulent *P. luminescens* bacteria. We found that *tig-2*

mutants survived significantly worse than control animals (Fig. 1B). Interestingly, we found that

tig-2 mutants had an even more pronounced susceptibility to *P. luminescens* infection than *dbl-1*

mutants, suggesting a more significant role for TIG-2 in response to *P. luminescens* infection.

Given that both BMP ligands function in the *C. elegans* immune response, we next considered

whether they act independently or together by determining the phenotype of double mutants. If

these ligands act independently, then we expect the double mutant to have a more severe

phenotype than the single mutants, reflecting the disruption of two independent pathways. If they

act together, such as in a heterodimer, then we expect the double mutant to have the same

phenotype as the single mutants due to the failure of individual ligands to provide physiological

function. When grown on *P. luminescens*, *tig-2dbl-1* double mutant animals demonstrated a

more pronounced reduction in survival compared to either the *tig-2* or *dbl-1* single mutant

animals (Fig. 1C). Our survival analysis shows an additive effect of these two mutations

combined. These results indicate that the two BMP-like ligands – DBL-1 and TIG-2 – act

independently of each other in the response to *P. luminescens*.

At the time of these experiments, no phenotype had been reported for *tig-2* mutants, so we were

encouraged to have identified a biological function for this ligand. To rule out a general effect on

lifespan, we followed our survival analysis with a lifespan on control *E. coli* bacteria. Both *tig-2*

mutants displayed a lifespan similar to control animals (Fig. S1). Animals mutant for *dbl-1* also

had an unaffected lifespan on control bacteria, as expected. These results indicate that the

reduced survival of *tig-2* on bacterial pathogen is specific to its susceptibility to infection and not

reflective of a lifespan phenotype. Together these results demonstrate significant roles for the

two BMP-like ligands – DBL-1 and TIG-2 – in the response to pathogenic bacterial infection,

although independent of each other.

Figure 1. The BMP-like Ligands DBL-1 and TIG-2 are Required for *C. elegans* Survival on Bacterial Pathogen.

A. Survival analysis of *dbl-1(wk70)* and two *tig-2* mutants (*tig-2(ok3416)* and *(tig-2(ok3336)*)) on *S. marcescens* bacteria. *n* values: Control (51), *dbl-1* (39), *tig-2* (43), *tig-2* (35). **B.** Survival analysis of *dbl-1(wk70)* and *tig-2(ok3416)* on *P. luminescens* bacteria. *n* values: Control (70), *dbl-1* (70), *tig-2* (73). **C.** Survival analysis of *tig-2dbl-1* double mutant on *P. luminescens. n* values: Control (94), *dbl-1* (53), *tig-2* (97), *tig-2dbl-1* (55). Statistical analysis done using Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) Test. ns $p > 0.05$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; **** $p < 0.0001$. Black asterisks denote significance relative to control, blue is significance relative to *dbl-1*, and teal is significance relative to *tig-2.*

Five TGF-β Ligands Demonstrate Involvement in Survival Against Bacterial Infection

We next were interested in determining if the remaining TGF-β ligands – DAF-7, UNC-129, and

TIG-3 – play a role in the *C. elegans* immune response. UNC-129 and TIG-3 are "orphan"

ligands without known receptors and signaling components. DAF-7 is well characterized as the

ligand in the dauer pathway, and *daf-7* mutants demonstrate a high incidence of dauer when

grown at 20°C. For this reason, the strains analyzed alongside *daf-7* were all grown to the fourth

larval stage (L4) at 15°C and shifted to 20°C when moved to pathogen plates.

We found that in mutants of any of the five TGF-β ligands, survival against pathogenic *P.*

luminescens infection is significantly reduced, with variability between trials for some ligands

(Fig. 2A and Fig. 2B). In particular, *unc-129* mutants have variable survival outcomes.

Surprisingly, *dbl-1* mutant animals also have a variable survival pattern on *P. luminescens*, in

spite of their well-characterized susceptibility to a variety of bacterial and fungal pathogens. In

contrast, TIG-2, TIG-3, and DAF-7 show consistently significant susceptibility in response to *P.*

luminescens, concordant with the hypothesis that distinct signaling mechanisms are responsible

for the specific responses against different bacterial pathogens.

To determine whether expression of any of these ligands is induced in response to pathogen, we

used qRT-PCR to evaluate expression levels of genes encoding TGF-β ligands in wild-type

animals. Upon 24-hour exposure to *P. luminescens* bacteria, the relative expression of all five

TGF-β ligand genes demonstrated no significant alteration compared to control conditions (Fig.

2C). Additionally, analysis of a *dbl-1* transcriptional reporter showed no change in fluorescence

levels on pathogen compared to control bacteria (Fig. S2). We conclude that although these

250   ligands function in response to pathogen, they are not subject to widespread transcriptional

251   induction.

Figure 2. Five TGF-β Ligands Demonstrate Involvement in Survival Against Bacterial

Infection.

A. Survival of TGF-β ligand mutants on *P. luminescens* bacteria. For this trial, strains were

grown at 15°C to avoid dauer formation by *daf-7* mutants and shifted to 20°C at L4 when

exposed to pathogen. *n* values: Control (70), *dbl-1* (70), *tig-2* (73), *daf-7* (84), *unc-129* (82). **B.**

Survival of TGF-β ligand mutants on *P. luminescens* bacteria. n values: Control (99), *dbl-1* (99),

tig-2 (108), *tig-3* (62), *unc-129* (73). **C.** qRT-PCR analysis showing relative expression of

TGF-β ligand genes upon 24-hour exposure to *P. luminescens* in Control animals. qRT-PCR data

represents repeated analyses of two biological replicates. Statistical analysis done using One-way

ANOVA with multiple comparison test. For survivals, statistical analysis done using Log-rank

(Mantel-Cox) Test. ns p > 0.05; * p ≤ 0.05; ** p ≤ 0.01; **** p < 0.0001. Black asterisks denote

significance relative to control, blue is significance relative to *dbl-1,* teal is significance relative

to *tig-2,* orange is significance relative to *daf-7*, and salmon is significance relative to *tig-3.*

Multiple TGF-β Ligand Pairs Demonstrate Cooperative Interaction in the *C. elegans*

Response to Bacterial Infection

We next looked for interactions between the remaining *C. elegans* TGF-β ligands upon exposure

to bacterial infection by testing double mutants as previously described for *tig-2dbl-1*. We

analyzed the *tig-3;tig-2* double mutant, deficient in both the BMP-like ligand TIG-2 and the

TGF-β/Activin-like ligand TIG-3, for survival on *P. luminescens*. We found that when grown on

bacterial pathogen, the *tig-3;tig-2* double mutants demonstrated a survival pattern not

significantly different from either the *tig-2* or the *tig-3* single mutants (Fig. 3A). This result

contrasts with our analysis of the BMP-like ligands DBL-1 and TIG-2, and suggests that

TIG-2/BMP and TIG-3/(TGF-β/Activin) are acting in the immune response in a cooperative

manner.

We also assessed the survival pattern of *daf-7;dbl-1* double mutants on pathogenic bacteria. For

this experiment, animals were grown at 15°C to minimize dauer entry in *daf-7* mutants. Survival

of *daf-7;dbl-1* double mutants was not significantly different compared to *dbl-1* single mutants

(Fig. 3B). The survival pattern of *daf-7;dbl-1* double mutant animals indicates a potential

relationship in which both ligands function in a single pathway. This cooperativity is intriguing

as the BMP-like ligand DBL-1 is known to signal through a different Type I receptor and

different Smads than the TGF-β/Activin-like ligand DAF-7.

Finally, we compared the survival pattern of double and triple mutants for *unc-129*. Although

unc-129 mutants have weak and variable effects on survival, the *unc-129* gene did show some

potential interactions with other ligand genes. Survival of *unc-129;tig-2* double mutants are not

significantly different from *tig-2* single mutants (Fig. S1). In contrast, in *tig-3;unc-129* double

mutants, the decreased survival of *tig-3* mutants is suppressed (Fig. S2), suggesting a potential

antagonistic interaction between UNC-129 and TIG-3. Overall, our results from these survival

analyses indicate a complex relationship between the TGF-β family ligands in the immune

response. Most surprisingly, ligands that demonstrate cooperative relationships are those from

different classes of TGF-β ligands – BMP-like TIG-2 with TGF-β/Activin-like TIG-2; and

possibly BMP-like DBL-1 with TGF-β/Activin-like DAF-7.

Figure 3. Multiple TGF-β Ligands Demonstrate Cooperative Interaction in the *C. elegans*

Response to Bacterial Infection.

A. Survival analysis of *tig-3(tm2092);tig-2(ok3416)* double mutants on *P. luminescens* bacteria.

n values: Control (73), *tig-2* (68), *tig-3* (67), *tig-3;tig-2* (71). **B.** Survival analysis of

daf-7(m62);dbl-1(wk70) double mutants on *P. luminescens* bacteria. *n* values: Control (94), *dbl-1*

(94), *daf-7* (83). For this trial, strains were grown at 15°C to avoid dauer formation by *daf-7*

mutants and shifted to 20°C at L4 when exposed to pathogen. Statistical analysis done using

Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) Test. ns p > 0.05; **** p < 0.0001. Black asterisks show significance

relative to control, blue is significance relative to *dbl-1,* teal is significance relative to *tig-2*, and

salmon is significance relative to *tig-3*.

Canonical BMP Signaling Components are Involved in the *C. elegans* Immune Response

Canonical BMP Signaling Components are Involved in the *C. elegans* Immune Response

The two TGF-β pathways in *C. elegans* are known to signal through canonical mechanisms upon

activation. DBL-1 signals through the BMP-like pathway with ligand binding to the single Type

II receptor DAF-4 and the Type I receptor SMA-6. The BMP pathway Smads – SMA-2, SMA-3,

and SMA-4 – transduce the intracellular signal allowing for gene regulation. The TGF-β/Activin-

like ligand DAF-7 signals through the TGF-β/Activin-like pathway components, including the

Type I receptor DAF-1 and the Smads DAF-8, DAF-14, and DAF-3 (Estevez *et al.*, 1993;

Savage *et al.*, 1996; Suzuki *et al.*, 1999; Krishna *et al.*, 1999; Savage-Dunn and Padgett, 2017).

Both pathways converge on the single Type II receptor DAF-4. Previous work has shown that in

response to fungal infection of the hypodermis, DBL-1 signals in a pathway utilizing only one

receptor-regulated Smad (R-Smad SMA-3) without its typical partner R-Smad SMA-2 or the Co-

Smad SMA-4 (Zugasti and Ewbank, 2009). Signaling without a Co-Smad is considered non-

canonical. We were therefore interested in which components of the BMP-like and

TGF-β/Activin-like pathways are required during bacterial infection and whether non-canonical

mechanisms are invoked.

Our survival analysis of DBL-1 pathway components shows a consistently reduced survival

pattern for R-Smad mutants *sma-2* and *sma-3* as well as for Co-Smad mutant *sma-4* (Fig. 4A).

This result is consistent with a significant role for the BMP pathway Smads in the *C. elegans*

response to bacterial pathogen, unlike the results previously shown on fungal infection. Survival

analysis of BMP pathway receptors showed a reduced survival pattern for the BMP Type I

receptor mutant *sma-6* (Fig. 4B). We observe consistently reduced survival for *sma-6* mutants,

with slight variability in the significance of the survival rate across trials.

We analyzed the survival patterns of the DAF-7 pathway mutants grown at 15°C on *P.*

luminescens bacteria and found either no phenotype or a mild survival deficit. In particular, R-

Smad mutant *daf-8* demonstrated a slightly reduced rate of survival (Fig. 4C), while neither R-

Smad mutant *daf-14* (Fig. 4C) nor Type I receptor *daf-1*(Fig. 4D) had significantly altered

survival compared to control animals. Thus, although TGF-β/Activin-like ligands DAF-7 and

TIG-3 play a role in the immune response against bacterial pathogen, they are unlikely to signal

through the canonical TGF-β/Activin signaling components.

Figure 4. Canonical BMP Signaling Components are Involved in the *C. elegans* Immune

Response.

A. Survival of DBL-1 R-Smad mutant *sma-2(e502)* and Co-Smad mutant *sma-4(jj278)* on *P.*

luminescens bacteria. *n* values: Control (103), *sma-2* (88), Control (78), *sma-4* (72). **B.** Survival

analysis of Type I receptor *sma-6(wk7)* on *P. luminescens*. *n* values: Control (88), *sma-6* (100).

C. Survival of DAF-7 pathway R-Smad mutants *daf-8(e1393)* and *daf-14(m77)* on *P.*

luminescens bacteria. *n* values: Control (90), *daf-8* (77), Control (81), *daf-14* (78). **D.** Survival

analysis of Type I receptor *daf-1(m40)* on *P. luminescens*. *n* values: Control (90), *daf-1* (86).

Statistical analysis done using Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) Test. ns $p > 0.05$; * $p \leq 0.05$; **** $p <$

0.0001.

tig-2* and *tig-3* Animals Share Reduced Survival and Pumping Rate Phenotypes with *sma-3

Mutants

Thus far, we have shown that TIG-2 (BMP) and TIG-3 (TGF-β/Activin) play more significant

roles in survival on *P. luminescens* bacteria than DBL-1/BMP, and that BMP signaling

components play a more significant role than TGF-β/Activin signaling components. These

observations suggest a model in which TIG-2 and TIG-3 signal through components previously

presumed to respond to DBL-1. To test this model, we compared *tig-2* and *tig-3* phenotypes with

those of *sma-3* and *dbl-1*. Survival analysis directly comparing *dbl-1* and *sma-3* mutants on *P.*

luminescens demonstrates that while both strains have a decreased survival pattern as compared

to control, *sma-3* mutants have a significantly reduced survival rate compared to *dbl-1* mutants

(Fig. 5A), suggesting that SMA-3 is responding to other signaling ligands instead of or in

addition to DBL-1. Notably, *tig-2* and *tig-3* survival phenotypes are highly similar to those of

sma-3 mutants (Fig. 5B), consistent with a model in which TIG-2 and TIG-3 signal through R-

Smad SMA-3 in response to *P. luminescens* pathogen.

To test this model further, we analyzed an additional phenotype associated with response to *P.*

luminescens, reduced pharyngeal pumping rate (Ciccarelli *et al.,* 2023). Pharyngeal pumping rate

analysis revealed *sma-3*, but not *dbl-1*, mutants have a significant reduction in pharyngeal

pumping rate, and this reduction is indistinguishable from that of *tig-2* and *tig-3* mutants, as well

as of the *tig-3;tig-2* double mutant (Fig. 5C-D). This similarity further strengthens the model that

TIG-2 and TIG-3 signal through SMA-3 in this context.

Figure 5. *tig-2* and *tig-3* Animals Share Reduced Survival and Pumping Rate Phenotypes

with *sma-3* Mutants.

A. Survival of *dbl-1(wk70)* and *sma-3(wk30)*. n values: Control (88), *dbl-1* (74), *sma-3* (78).

Black asterisks are compared to control. Blue asterisks are compared to *dbl-1*. **B.** Survival of

sma-3(wk30) mutants compared to *tig-2(ok3416)* and *tig-3(tm2092)*. Black asterisks are

compared to control. Pink asterisks are compared to *sma-3*. *n* values: Control (92), *sma-3* (74),

tig-2 (55), *tig-3* (54). Statistical analysis for all survivals done using Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test.

Survivals were repeated. **C.** Pumping rate per 20 seconds for *dbl-1(wk70)* compared to Control.

Statistical analysis done using t test. **D.** Pumping rate per 20 seconds for *sma-3(wk30),*

tig-2(ok3416), tig-3(tm2092), and *tig-3;tig-2*. Black asterisks are compared to Control. Pink

asterisks are compared to *sma-3*. Statistical analysis done using One-way ANOVA with Multiple

Comparison Test. *n* values for all pumping rate experiments: ten worms per strain. Pumping rate

387   experiments were repeated on independent biological samples. ns $p > 0.05$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq$

388   0.01; *** $p \leq 0.001$; **** $p < 0.0001$.

Structural Modeling of Potential Protein-Protein Interaction Between TIG-2/BMP and TIG-3/(TGF-β/Activin)

The cooperative action observed between TIG-2/BMP and TIG-3/(TGF-β/Activin) in the *C. elegans* immune response could be evidence of TIG-2/TIG-3 heterodimers. Alternatively, homodimers of TIG-2 and of TIG-3 could act together through a receptor clustering mechanism (Ramachandran *et al*., 2018). To determine whether heterodimers of TIG-2 and TIG-3 are feasible, we performed structural modeling *in silico.* Using the ColabFold (Mirdita *et al*., 2022) implementation of AlphaFold2 (Jumper *et al*., 2021), we asked whether confident structural predictions could be made for TIG-2 homodimers, TIG-3 homodimers, and TIG-2/TIG-3 heterodimers. We first analyzed interactions between mature bioactive domains, using consensus proteolytical cleavage sites (see Materials and Methods). Using the mature domain of TIG-2, we were able to generate a strongly supported model for the TIG-2 homodimer that recapitulates the well-known "butterfly" structure of TGF-β family ligand dimers (Fig. 6). In contrast, the potential for the TIG-3 mature bioactive domain to form homodimers was not supported by ColabFold, with a poor interface predicted template modeling (ipTM) score of 0.288. Using TIG-2 and TIG-3 for modeling, however, resulted in a heterodimer with a high ipTM score of 0.783, similar to that of the TIG-2 homodimer (0.875), as well as to those of known heterodimers (Fig. S6). Intriguingly, both TIG-2 and TIG-3 lack the conserved cysteine residue that mediates interchain disulfide bridges in most TGF-β family ligands (Fig. S4). Two other TGF-β family members that also lack these cysteines are BMP15 and GDF9 (Mottershead *et al.,* 2015). These ligands form stable homo- and heterodimers without interchain disulfide bridges. In fact, GDF9/BMP15 heterodimers, known as cumulin, are capable of forming from homodimers by subunit exchange (Mottershead *et al.,* 2015).

In vivo, prodomains present in the uncleaved precursors have been shown to be required for

heterodimer formation between BMP4 and BMP7 (Neugebauer *et al.,* 2015). We therefore

performed structural modeling with full-length proteins (prodomain + mature domain). In these

models, additional potential contacts between TIG-2 and TIG-3 are identified (Fig. 7). The

TIG-2/TIG-2 procomplex resembles a BMP dimer with the prodomains remaining separate from

each other, but making contacts with the mature domains (Fig. 7A, C). In the TIG-2/TIG-3

predicted procomplex, the TIG-3 prodomain makes contact with the TIG-2 prodomain and

mature domain (Fig. 7B, C). Thus, structural modeling of the full-length proteins also supports

the possibility of heterodimer formation consistent with our functional genetic analysis. This

model can now be tested with biochemical analysis of protein-protein interactions.

Figure 6. Structural Modeling of TIG-2 and TIG-3 Mature Ligand Homo- and

Heterodimer Complexes Using AlphaFold2. Left complex: 3D structures are colored by

pLDDT confidence score with deep blue corresponding to regions of very high confidence and

orange representing regions of very low confidence or disorder. Right complex: The mature

dimer as in the left panel, but colored by monomer and following geometric rotation. All

cysteine residues (underlined) in mature TIG-2 (with 15-81, 44-113, 48-115 disulfides) and TIG-

3 (with 22-26, 25-82, 54-114, 59-116 disulfides) homo- and heterodimers are paired in intrachain

disulfide bonds (gold) within the cystine knot domain. The cysteine residue that forms the

interchain disulfide bond in the mature dimer is absent in TIG-2 and TIG-3, similar to GDF-3,

GDF-9, and BMP-15 (Hinck *et al.*, 2016). Interestingly, lysine (yellow-green), with its reactive

ε-amino group upon deprotonation, is instead substituted for this cysteine residue in both TIG-2

(Lys80) and TIG-3 (Lys81). Amino Acid Sequence: Residues are colored by pLDDT score. The

monomer interface tracks consist of confidently-predicted dimer-interface contacts (see

Methods). A. Mature TIG-2(purple)/TIG-2(lavender) exhibits high confidence with respect to

per-residue structural modeling (pLDDT: 92.7), pairwise residue alignment confidence (pTM:

0.868), and dimeric interaction confidence (ipTM: 0.875). B. Mature TIG-2(purple)/TIG-3(gray-

beige) is confidently modeled regarding its structure and potential for dimerization (pLDDT:

84.9, pTM: 0.798, ipTM: 0.783). C. Mature TIG-3(brown)/TIG-3(gray-beige) falls slightly

below (pLDDT: 68.8) the threshold for a confident structure prediction (pLDDT ≥ 70), and its

predicted ability to homodimerize is very low (ipTM: 0.288). Additionally, no confidently-

predicted (pTM: 0.522) interface residues exist between TIG-3 monomers.

Figure 7. Structural Modeling of TIG-2/TIG-2 and TIG-2/TIG-3 Procomplexes Using

AlphaFold2. A. The TIG-2/TIG-2 procomplex exhibits a symmetric open-arm conformation

with monomer A in blue-violet (prodomain) and khaki (mature domain) and monomer B in light

blue-violet (prodomain) and dark khaki (mature domain). The right panel is the magnified and

rotated area defined by the gray dashed box in the left panel. Interchain residue contacts between

the mature domain (khaki) of pro-TIG-2 monomer A to the prodomain (light blue-violet) of pro-

TIG-2 monomer B are shown as gold *dashed* lines. As is true for the mature form, the TIG-3

homodimer procomplex (not shown) has significantly lower multimer metrics (pLDDT: 66.5,

pTM: 0.354, ipTM: 0.281) and thus a reduced predicted likelihood to homodimerize. B. The

TIG-2/TIG-3 procomplex adopts an asymmetric conformation, with pro-TIG-2 forming an open-

arm conformation and pro-TIG-3 (prodomain in green-cyan, mature domain in gray-beige)

presenting a crossed-arm conformation. Pro-TIG-2 contains no prodomain cysteines and hence is

not prodomain disulfide-linked to pro-TIG-3. The only two cysteines in the pro-TIG-3

prodomain are paired in an intra-prodomain 60-70 disulfide bond (*solid* gold line). The enlarged

upper panel corresponds to the upper-left dashed box following rotation to emphasize the

interchain residue contacts resulting from the prodomain of pro-TIG-3 (green-cyan) crossing

over to interact with the prodomain of pro-TIG-2 (blue-violet). Similarly to A, the right panel

corresponds to the lower-right gray dashed box and features interchain residue contacts between

the mature domain of pro-TIG-2 (khaki) and the prodomain of pro-TIG-3 (green-cyan). C. A

comparison of interchain residue contacts in TIG-2/TIG-2 (blue-violet diamonds) and TIG-

2/TIG-3 (green-cyan diamonds) procomplexes between combinatorial interacting monomer

regions (full: full-length, pro: prodomain, mat: mature domain) plotted with their predicted

aligned error value and column mean (black horizontal line). For example, the column TIG-

2(full) to TIG-3(full) contains all interchain residue contacts between pro-TIG-2 and pro-TIG-3.

Correspondingly, the column TIG-2(mat) to TIG-3(pro) includes all interchain residue contacts

between the mature domain of pro-TIG-2 to the prodomain of pro-TIG-3. The TIG-2/TIG-3

procomplex compares similarly to the TIG-2/TIG-2 procomplex with respect to full-length to

full-length (columns 1 and 2), mature domain to prodomain (columns 7 and 8), and mature

domain to mature domain contacts (columns 9 and 10).

Discussion

The multiplicity of TGF-β family ligands, receptors, and Smad signal transducers may support the generation of diverse context-dependent outcomes through combinatorial interactions. Biochemical and computational approaches are useful to identify the principles mediating the potential protein-protein interactions between these components, but these approaches must be complemented by functional in vivo analyses. The nematode *C. elegans* has five TGF-β ligands and two characterized TGF-β family signaling pathways (Patterson and Padgett, 2000; MacNeill *et al.*, 2009), providing a powerful in vivo system in which to study TGF-β ligand functions in the context of the intact organism. Critically, TGF-β signaling mechanisms are conserved in this organism. Here we demonstrate that all five TGF-β ligands play a role in the immune response against bacterial pathogen. Furthermore, two ligand pairs consisting of a BMP subfamily and a TGF-β/Activin subfamily member (TIG-2/TIG-3 and DBL-1/DAF-7) show evidence of acting together in the response to gram-negative bacterium *P. luminescens*.

These studies were initiated with the well characterized BMP-like DBL-1 signaling pathway, which is associated with significant roles in development and body size regulation but has also been shown to play an important role in the immune response against both bacterial and fungal pathogens (Mallo, 2002; Tenor and Aballay, 2008; Zugasti and Ewbank, 2009). Comparing the response to the gram-negative bacteria *S. marcescens* and *P. luminescens*, we obtained evidence implicating a level of specificity of ligand responses for particular bacteria. Although both BMP-like ligands, DBL-1 and TIG-2, play a significant role in the response against *S. marcescens,* TIG-2 has a more significant role than DBL-1 in the response against *P. luminescens*. These results suggest that the function of DBL-1 in the immune response is not a general one-size-fits-

all response to bacterial pathogen but rather a more nuanced response with some level of

pathogen specificity. Furthermore, we show that DBL-1/BMP and TIG-2/BMP have additive

roles in the response to *P. luminescens,* suggesting that they trigger independent responses.

The orphan ligand UNC-129 shows moderate and variably significant changes in survival on *P.*

luminescens, suggesting a minor or modulatory role. The TGF-β/Activin-like ligands DAF-7 and

TIG-3 demonstrated consistently significant reduced survival patterns on *P. luminescens*

suggesting involvement of these ligands in the response to this bacterial pathogen. qRT-PCR

analysis of TGF-β ligand expression shows that with 24-hour exposure to bacterial infection,

expression levels of the ligands do not significantly change from control conditions. A

dbl-1p::GFP transcriptional reporter validates these results for *dbl-1.* Taken together, we

conclude that all five of the TGF-β ligands play a role in the immune response, but not at the

level of transcriptional induction.

Analysis of the survival patterns of double mutant animals produced results indicating

interactions between multiple TGF-β family ligands. Interestingly, the interactions between pairs

of BMP-like and TGF-β/Activin-like ligands suggest cooperative interaction in a common

pathway. Specifically, the *tig-3;tig-2* double mutant survival pattern is no more severe than

either single mutant alone. Similarly, the *daf-7;dbl-1* double mutant survival is indistinguishable

from that of *dbl-1* single mutants. Of these pairs, TIG-2 and TIG-3 play a more major role in the

response to *P. luminescens.* We therefore used computational modeling to determine whether

these ligands could feasibly function as a heterodimer. Using ColabFold, we demonstrated that a

TIG-2/TIG-3 heterodimer is better supported than the TIG-3 homodimer. Furthermore, *tig-2* and

tig-3 expression overlaps in neurons such as AFD and M2. These neurons are located adjacent to

the pharynx. We have shown that SMA-3/Smad is required in pharyngeal muscle for survival on

bacterial pathogens (Ciccarelli *et al.,* 2023), so TIG-2 and TIG-3 are produced in a location

appropriate for signaling to SMA-3/Smad in the pharynx.

We also identify the canonical BMP-like pathway as required for response to *P. luminescens,*

including the Type I receptor (SMA-6), the R-Smads (SMA-2 and SMA-3) and Co-Smad

(SMA-4). In contrast, TGF-β/Activin pathway components have minimal effects. Unlike *dbl-1*

mutants*, tig-2* and *tig-3* mutants have very similar survival phenotypes to *sma-3* mutants.

Furthermore, *tig-2, tig-3,* and *sma-3* mutants share a pharyngeal pumping defect that is not seen

in *dbl-1* mutants. These similarities provide evidence that TIG-2 and TIG-3 signal through the

canonical BMP signaling pathway consisting of SMA-6 Type I receptor, and SMA-2, SMA-3,

and SMA-4 Smads in the context of bacterial pathogen survival. There is precedence for

TGF-β/Activin ligands signaling through BMP-like signaling pathways in vertebrates. For

example, in endothelial cells, TGF-β can phosphorylate presumptive BMP Smads Smad1/5

through interaction with type I receptor ALK1 rather than ALK5 (Lebrin *et al.,* 2005).

Furthermore, the BMP receptor ALK2 (ACVR1) can be activated by Activin to phosphorylate

Smad1/5, and this activity is increased by pathogenic FOP mutations (Ramachandran *et al.,*

2021). However, cooperative action between a BMP and TGF-β/Activin ligand, including

potential cross-subfamily heterodimers, has not yet been described in vertebrates to our

knowledge, and warrants further consideration.

Interestingly, nonredundant roles for TIG-2, TIG-3, and UNC-129 have recently been identified

in neuronal guidance in *C. elegans* (Baltaci *et al.,* 2022). In neuronal guidance, TIG-3/UNC-129

heterodimers are implicated, with TIG-2 being released from a different tissue. In this context,

the ligands depend on the BMP signaling components SMA-6 Type I Receptor and SMA-2,

SMA-3, and SMA-4 Smads. Relatedly, in Drosophila, three Activin ligands are required

nonredundantly to regulate photoreceptor identity through the canonical Activin signaling

components (Wells *et al.*, 2017). In addition to heterodimers, nonredundant functions of TGF-β

ligands can be explained by a receptor clustering mechanism that generates higher-order

signaling complexes (Ramachandran *et al.*, 2018). Our system provides a platform for studying

the functional interactions between multiple TGF-β ligands. Cooperativity between BMP and

TGF-β/Activin subfamily members may provide a mechanism for distinguishing the

developmental and homeostatic functions of these ligands from an acute response such as the

innate immune response to bacterial pathogens.

Acknowledgements

This work was funded by R15GM112147 to CSD (National Institutes of Health/NIGMS). Some

strains were provided by the Caenorhabditis Genetics Center, which is supported by the National

Institute of Health – Office of Research Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440). We are

grateful to the lab of Roger Pocock for sharing double and triple mutants of TGF-β ligand genes.

We thank Jan Christian for helpful comments on the manuscript. This work was carried out in

partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Ph.D. degree from the Graduate Center of City

University of New York (EJC).

References

Attisano L, Wrana JL. 1996. Signal transduction by members of the transforming growth factor-

beta superfamily. *Cytokine Growth Factor Rev* **7**:327–339. doi:10.1016/s1359-

6101(96)00042-1

Aykul S, Martinez-Hackert E. 2016. Transforming Growth Factor-β Family Ligands Can

Function as Antagonists by Competing for Type II Receptor Binding. *J Biol Chem*

291:10792–10804. doi:10.1074/jbc.M115.713487

Baltaci O, Pedersen ME, Sherry T, Handley A, Snieckute G, Cao W, Haas M, Archer S, Pocock

R. 2022. Atypical TGF-β signaling controls neuronal guidance in Caenorhabditis elegans.

iScience **25**:103791. doi:10.1016/j.isci.2022.103791

Blobe GC, Schiemann WP, Lodish HF. 2000. Role of transforming growth factor beta in human

disease. *N Engl J Med* **342**:1350–1358. doi:10.1056/NEJM200005043421807

Ciccarelli EJ, Bendelstein M, Savage-Dunn C. 2023. BMP signaling to pharyngeal muscle in the

C. elegans immune response to bacterial pathogen regulates anti-microbial peptide

expression and pharyngeal pumping. doi: 10.1101/2023.03.06.531324

Derynck R, Akhurst RJ, Balmain A. 2001. TGF-beta signaling in tumor suppression and cancer

progression. *Nat Genet* **29**:117–129. doi:10.1038/ng1001-117

Derynck R, Zhang Y, Feng XH. 1998. Smads: transcriptional activators of TGF-beta responses.

Cell **95**:737–740. doi:10.1016/s0092-8674(00)81696-7

Estevez M, Attisano L, Wrana JL, Albert PS, Massagué J, Riddle DL. 1993. The daf-4 gene

encodes a bone morphogenetic protein receptor controlling C. elegans dauer larva

development. *Nature* **365**:644–649. doi:10.1038/365644a0

Gray AM, Mason AJ. 1990. Requirment for activin A and transforming growth factor-β1 pro-

regions in homodimer assembly. *Science.* **247**:1328–1330. doi:10.1126/science.2315700

Georgi LL, Albert PS, Riddle DL. 1990. Daf-1, a C. elegans gene controlling dauer larva

development, encodes a novel receptor protein kinase. *Cell* **61**:635–645. doi:10.1016/0092-

8674(90)90475-t

Herpin A, Lelong C, Favrel P. 2004. Transforming growth factor-beta-related proteins: an

ancestral and widespread superfamily of cytokines in metazoans. *Dev Comp Immunol*

28:461–485. doi:10.1016/j.dci.2003.09.007

Hinck AP, Mueller TD, Springer TA. 2016. Structural biology and evolution of the TGF-β

family. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol*. **8**:a022103. doi:10.1101/cshperspect.a022103

Hoffmann JA, Kafatos FC, Janeway CA, Ezekowitz RA. 1999. Phylogenetic perspectives in

innate immunity. *Science* **284**:1313–1318. doi:10.1126/science.284.5418.1313

Huminiecki L, Goldovsky L, Freilich S, Moustakas A, Ouzounis C, Heldin C-H. 2009.

Emergence, development and diversification of the TGF-βsignalling pathway within the

animal kingdom. *BMC Evolutionary Biology* **9**:28. doi:10.1186/1471-2148-9-28

Irazoqui JE, Ng A, Xavier RJ, Ausubel FM. 2008. Role for beta-catenin and HOX transcription

factors in Caenorhabditis elegans and mammalian host epithelial-pathogen interactions.

Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **105**:17469–17474. doi:10.1073/pnas.0809527105

Jumper J, Evans R, Pritzel A, Green T, Figurnov M, Ronneberger O, Tunyasuvunakool K, Bates

R, Žídek A, Potapenko A, Bridgland A, Meyer C, Kohl SAA, Ballard AJ, Cowie A,

Romera-Paredes B, Nikolov S, Jain R, Adler J, Back T, Petersen S, Reiman D, Clancy E,

Zielinski M, Steinegger M, Pacholska M, Berghammer T, Bodenstein S, Silver D, Vinyals

O, Senior AW, Kavukcuoglu K, Kohli P, Hassabis D. 2021. Highly accurate protein

structure prediction with AlphaFold. *Nature* **596**:583–589. doi:10.1038/s41586-021-03819-

2

Kim DH, Feinbaum R, Alloing G, Emerson FE, Garsin DA, Inoue H, Tanaka-Hino M, Hisamoto

N, Matsumoto K, Tan M-W, Ausubel FM. 2002. A conserved p38 MAP kinase pathway in

Caenorhabditis elegans innate immunity. *Science* **297**:623–626.

doi:10.1126/science.1073759

Kim H-S, Neugebauer J, McKnite A, Tilak A, Christian JL. 2019. BMP7 functions

predominantly as a heterodimer with BMP2 or BMP4 during mammalian embryogenesis.

eLife **8**:e48872. doi:10.7554/eLife.48872

Krishna S, Maduzia LL, Padgett RW. 1999. Specificity of TGFbeta signaling is conferred by

distinct type I receptors and their associated SMAD proteins in Caenorhabditis elegans.

Development **126**:251–260. doi:10.1242/dev.126.2.251

Lebrin F, Deckers M, Bertolino P, Ten Dijke P. 2005. TGF-beta receptor function in the

edothelium. Cardiovasc Res **65**:599-608. doi: 10.1016/j.cardiores.2004.10.036.

Li M, Wan Y, Sanjabi S, Robertson A-K, Flavell R. 2006. Transforming growth factor-

regulation of immune responses. *Annual Review of Immunology* **24**:99-146. doi:

10.1146/annurev.immunol.24.021605.090737

Little SC, Mullins MC. 2009. Bone morphogenetic protein heterodimers assemble heteromeric

type I receptor complexes to pattern the dorsoventral axis. *Nat Cell Biol* **11**:637–643.

doi:10.1038/ncb1870

MacNeil LT, Hardy WR, Pawson T, Wrana JL, Culotti JG. 2009. UNC-129 regulates the balance

between UNC-40 dependent and independent UNC-5 signaling pathways. *Nat Neurosci*

12:150–155. doi:10.1038/nn.2256

Mallo GV, Kurz CL, Couillault C, Pujol N, Granjeaud S, Kohara Y, Ewbank JJ. 2002. Inducible

antibacterial defense system in C. elegans. *Curr Biol* **12**:1209–1214. doi:10.1016/s0960-

9822(02)00928-4

Massagué J. 2012. TGFβ signalling in context. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* **13**:616–630.

doi:10.1038/nrm3434

Massagué J. 2008. TGFbeta in Cancer. *Cell* **134**:215–230. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2008.07.001

Massagué J. 1998. TGF-beta signal transduction. *Annu Rev Biochem* **67**:753–791.

doi:10.1146/annurev.biochem.67.1.753

Massagué J, Chen YG. 2000. Controlling TGF-beta signaling. *Genes Dev* **14**:627–644.

Medzhitov R, Janeway CA. 1998. Innate immune recognition and control of adaptive immune

responses. *Semin Immunol* **10**:351–353. doi:10.1006/smim.1998.0136

Millet ACM, Ewbank JJ. 2004. Immunity in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Curr Opin Immunol* **16**:4–

9. doi:10.1016/j.coi.2003.11.005

Mirdita M, Schütze K, Moriwaki Y, Heo L, Ovchinnikov S, Steinegger M. 2022. ColabFold:

making protein folding accessible to all. *Nat Methods* **19**:679–682. doi:10.1038/s41592-

022-01488-1

Morita K, Flemming AJ, Sugihara Y, Mochii M, Suzuki Y, Yoshida S, Wood WB, Kohara Y,

Leroi AM, Ueno N. 2002. A Caenorhabditis elegans TGF-β, DBL-1, controls the expression

of LON-1, a PR-related protein, that regulates polyploidization and body length. *EMBO J*

21:1063–1073. doi:10.1093/emboj/21.5.1063

Mottershead DG, Sugimura S, Al-Musawi SL, Li JJ, Richani D, White MA, Martin GA, Trotta

AP, Ritter LJ, Shi J, Mueller TD, Harrison CA, Gilchrist RB. 2015. Cumulin, an oocyte-

secreted heterodimer of the transforming growth factor- β family, is a potent activator of

granulosa cells and improves oocyte quality. *J Biol Chem* **290**:24007-20.

doi:10.1074/jbc.M115.671487

Neugebauer JM, Kwon S, Kim HS, Donley N, Tilak A, Sopory S, Christian JL. 2015. The

prodomain of BMP4 is necessary and sufficient to generate stable BMP4/7 heterodimers

with enhanced bioactivity in vivo. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **112**:E2307-16. doi:

10.1073/pnas.1501449112.

Partridge FA, Gravato-Nobre MJ, Hodgkin J. 2010. Signal transduction pathways that function

in both development and innate immunity. *Developmental Dynamics* **239**:1330–1336.

doi:10.1002/dvdy.22232

Patterson GI, Padgett RW. 2000. TGF beta-related pathways. Roles in Caenorhabditis elegans

development. *Trends Genet* **16**:27–33. doi:10.1016/s0168-9525(99)01916-2

Peng J, Li Q, Wigglesworth K, Rangarajan A, Kattamuri C, Peterson RT, Eppig JJ, Thompson

TB, Matzuk MM. 2013. Growth differentiation factor 9: bone morphogenetic protein 15

heterodimers are potent regulators of ovarian functions. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*

110:E777-E785. doi:10.1073/pnas.1218020110

Pohlers D, Brenmoehl J, Löffler I, Müller CK, Leipner C, Schultze-Mosgau S, Stallmach A,

Kinne RW, Wolf G. 2009. TGF-beta and fibrosis in different organs - molecular pathway

imprints. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1792**:746–756. doi:10.1016/j.bbadis.2009.06.004

Principe DR, Doll JA, Bauer J, Jung B, Munshi HG, Bartholin L, Pasche B, Lee C, Grippo PJ.

2014. TGF-β: duality of function between tumor prevention and carcinogenesis. *J Natl*

Cancer Inst **106**:djt369. doi:10.1093/jnci/djt369

Ramachandran A, Vizán P, Das D, Chakravarty P, Vogt J, Rogers KW, Müller P, Hinck AP,

Sapkota GP, Hill CS. 2018. TGF-β uses a novel mode of receptor activation to

phosphorylate SMAD1/5 and induce epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition. *eLife* **7**:e31756.

doi:10.7554/eLife.31756

Ramachandran A, Mehić M, Wasim L, Malinova D, Gori I, Blaszczyk BK, Carvalho DM, Shore

EM, Jones C, Hyvönen M, Tolar P, Hill CS. 2021. Pathogenic ACVR1[R206H] activation by

activin A-induced receptor clustering and autophosphorylation. *EMBO J* **40**:e106317. doi:

10.15252/embj.2020106317

Savage C, Das P, Finelli AL, Townsend SR, Sun CY, Baird SE, Padgett RW. 1996.

Caenorhabditis elegans genes sma-2, sma-3, and sma-4 define a conserved family of

transforming growth factor beta pathway components. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **93**:790–

794. doi:10.1073/pnas.93.2.790

Savage-Dunn C, Padgett RW. 2017. The TGF-β Family in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Cold Spring*

Harb Perspect Biol **9**:a022178. doi:10.1101/cshperspect.a022178

Schulenburg H, Kurz CL, Ewbank JJ. 2004. Evolution of the innate immune system: the worm

perspective. *Immunol Rev* **198**:36–58. doi:10.1111/j.0105-2896.2004.0125.x

Shimmi O, Umulis D, Othmer H, O'Connor MB. 2005. Facilitated transport of a Dpp/Scw

heterodimer by Sog/Tsg leads to robust patterning of the Drosophila blastoderm embryo.

Cell **120**:873–886. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2005.02.009

Silberstein GB, Daniel CW. 1987. Reversible inhibition of mammary gland growth by

transforming growth factor-beta. *Science* **237**:291–293. doi:10.1126/science.3474783

Suzuki Y, Yandell MD, Roy PJ, Krishna S, Savage-Dunn C, Ross RM, Padgett RW, Wood WB.

1999. A BMP homolog acts as a dose-dependent regulator of body size and male tail

patterning in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Development* **126**:241–250.

doi:10.1242/dev.126.2.241

Tenor JL, Aballay A. 2008. A conserved Toll-like receptor is required for Caenorhabditis

elegans innate immunity. *EMBO Rep* **9**:103–109. doi:10.1038/sj.embor.7401104

Tillet E, Ouarné M, Desroches-Castan A, Mallet C, Subileau M, Didier R, Lioutsko A, Belthier

G, Feige J-J, Bailly S. 2018. A heterodimer formed by bone morphogenetic protein 9

(BMP9) and BMP10 provides most BMP biological activity in plasma. *J Biol Chem*

293:10963–10974. doi:10.1074/jbc.RA118.002968

Valera E, Isaacs MJ, Kawakami Y, Izpisua Belmonte JC, Choe S. 2010. BMP2/6 heterodimer is

more effective than BMP-2 or BMP-6 homodimers as inductor of differentiation of human embryonic stem cells. *PLoS One*. **5**:e11167. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0011167

Walton KL, Makanji Y, Wilce MC, Chan KL, Robertson DM, Harrison CA. 2009. A common biosynthetic pathway governs the dimerization and secretion of inhibin and related transforming growth factor b (TGFb) ligands. *J Biol Chem* **284**: 9311–9320. doi:10.1074/jbc.M808763200

Wang J, Tokarz R, Savage-Dunn C. 2002. The expression of TGFbeta signal transducers in the hypodermis regulates body size in C. elegans. *Development* **129**:4989–4998. doi:10.1242/dev.129.21.4989

Wells BS, Pistillo D, Barnhart E, Desplan C. 2017. Parallel Activin and BMP signaling coordinates R7/R8 photoreceptor subtype pairing in the stochastic Drosophila retina. *eLife* **6**:e25301. doi:10.7554/eLife.25301

Wisotzkey RG, Newfeld SJ. 2020. TGF-β prodomain alignments reveal unexpected cysteine conservation consistent with phylogenetic predictions of cross-subfamily heterodimerization. *Genetics* **214**:447-465. doi: 10.1534/genetics.119.302255

Wrana JL. 2013. Signaling by the TGF-β Superfamily. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol* **5**:a011197. doi:10.1101/cshperspect.a011197

Wrana JL, Attisano L, Wieser R, Ventura F, Massagué J. 1994. Mechanism of activation of the TGF-β receptor. *Nature* **370**:341–347. doi:10.1038/370341a0

Yin J, Madaan U, Park A, Aftab N, Savage-Dunn C. 2015. Multiple cis elements and GATA

factors regulate a cuticle collagen gene in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Genesis* **53**:278-284. doi:

10.1002/dvg.22847

Yoshida S, Morita K, Mochii M, Ueno N. 2001. Hypodermal expression of Caenorhabditis

elegans TGF-beta type I receptor SMA-6 is essential for the growth and maintenance of

body length. *Dev Biol* **240**:32–45. doi:10.1006/dbio.2001.0443

Zamarron BF, Chen W. 2011. Dual roles of immune cells and their factors in cancer

development and progression. *Int J Biol Sci* **7**:651–658. doi:10.7150/ijbs.7.651

Zhu J, Braun EL, Kohno S, Antenos M, Xu EY, Cook RW, Lin SJ, Moore BC, Guillette Jr LJ,

Jardetzky TS, Woodruff TK. 2010. Phylogenomic analyses reveal the evolutionary origin

of the inhibin α-subunit, a unique TGFβ superfamily antagonist. *PLoS ONE* **5**: e9457.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0009457

Supplemental Figures

Figure S1. Lifespan analysis of *dbl-1(wk70), tig-2(ok3416),* and *tig-2(ok3336)* on nonpathogenic

E. coli strain DA837. n values: Control (51), *dbl-1* (41), *tig-2* (56), *tig-2* (51).

Figure S2. Reporter imaging of *dbl-1p::*GFP transcriptional reporter on control *E.* coli and 24-

hour infection on *P. luminescens* bacteria. No significance.

Figure S3. Survival analysis of *unc-129(ev554);tig-2(3416), unc-129(ev554);tig-3(tm2092),* and

tig-3(tm2092);unc-129(ev554);tig-2(ok3416). n values: Control (73), *tig-2* (68), *unc-129* (70),

unc-129;tig-2 (83), *tig-3* (67), *tig-3;unc-129* (83), *tig-3;unc-129;tig-2* (79). Statistical analysis

for survival analyses done using Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) Test.

```
TIG-3.B     ----------NAPNFDVMVFQP-NTVTAGTSDCVGCCVIPFYVNFTEIGWNDWILSPPGF    49
INHA_HUMAN  ------STPLMSWPWSPSALRLLQRPPEEPAAHANCHRVALNISFQELGWERWIVYPPSF    54
GDF9_HUMAN  -GQETVSSELKK-PLGPASFNLSEYFRQFLLPQNECELHDFRLSFSQLKWDNWIVAPHRY    58
BMP15_HUMAN -QADGISAEVT-----------ASSSKHSGPENNQCSLHPFQISFRQLGWDHWIIAPPFY    48
INHBA_HUMAN -------------------------GLECDGKVNICCKKQFFVSFKDIGWNDWIIAPSGY    35
TIG-2       --------------------SESAYFEKPNENERCQRKGLYVDFDILGWKQWVIAPEGF    39
BMP2_HUMAN  ---------------------QAKHKQRKRLKSSCKRHPLYVDFSDVGWNDWIVAPPGY    38
DBL-1       SAQTGNSERKNR--------KKGRKHHNTEAESNLCRRTDFYVDFDDLNWQDWIMAPKGY    52
                                     *     : :.*   : *. *:: *   :

TIG-3.B     YANVCSDTVC--------ST-----ESDEVYQFMKAAISDLPEPKCA--PNYYGSVDMIV    94
INHA_HUMAN  IFHYCHGGCGLHIPPNLSLP----VPGAPPTPAQPYSLLPGAQPCCAALPGTMRPLHVRT    110
GDF9_HUMAN  NPRYCKGDCPRAVGHRYGSP----VHTMVQNIIYEKLDSSVPRPSCV--PAKYSPLSVLT    112
BMP15_HUMAN TPNYCKGTCLRVLRDGLNSP----NHAIIQNLINQLVDQSVPRPSCV--PYKYVPISVLM    102
INHBA_HUMAN HANYCEGECPSHIAGTSGSSLSFHSTVINHYRMRGHSPFANLKSCCV--PTKLRPMSMLY    93
TIG-2       SAFYCSGDCSAPFSKEMNAT----SHAIVQSTLHRVRPNSTTPAKCA--PSSLGSYKILF    93
BMP2_HUMAN  HAFYCHGECPFPLADHLNST----NHAIVQTLVNSVN-SKIPKACCV--PTELSAISMLY    91
DBL-1       DAYQCQGSCPNPMPAQLNAT----NHAIIQSLLHSLRPDEVPPPCCV--PTETSPLSILY    106
                 * .                                   *   *          :

TIG-3.B     ALS-PRDIRKTRVHGLRALSCSCT    117
INHA_HUMAN  TSDGGYSFKYETVPNLLTQHCACI    134
GDF9_HUMAN  IEP-DGSIAYKEYEDMIATKCTCR    135
BMP15_HUMAN IEA-NGSILYKEYEGMIAESCTCR    125
INHBA_HUMAN YDD-GQNIIKKDIQNMIVEECGCS    116
TIG-2       VDQ-NKQVQIKRYRDMVVDECGCH    116
BMP2_HUMAN  LDE-NEKVVLKNYQDMVVEGCGCR    114
DBL-1       MDV-DKVIVIREYADMRVESCGCR    129
                .       .: .   * *
```

Figure S4. Multiple Sequence Alignment using Clustal Omega of Mature TIG-3, Inhibin α, GDF-9, BMP-15, Inhibin βA, TIG-2, BMP-2, and DBL-1. The conventional dimerization cysteine is highlighted in gold and replaced by lysine (yellow-green) in TIG-2 and TIG-3 and by serine (cyan) in GDF-9 and BMP-15. Consensus symbols (asterisk, colon, period) are defined according to standard Clustal Omega notation.

A

```
      >TIG-2                                              >TIG-3, isoform B
  1   MLFEFSILLGFLVPRGDSKGIYFVEERNGKTYTQPLTGQATDKIGEQIRE      1   MHFFTRFHYCFVITIISINASSLSIERQKRQLLSALNLSSRPPLIHQAPV
 51   LFNIDINPNGPAVKANNYVSTYMKRLYKQLENYEHGENHNEEEVNAWLSA     51   IPDSMSTSRKHDLYGGVLDKITLEPNRKSWTCLTPESLVKDCFQYSINSI
101   DRIVSHMAQEVSHRLDDGSYSIRFAKEHVPAKEGQSIVRAQLRIHIQGIV    101   NHEILSASLIIDPKDTNISIVVYEVDELFGELQYVDRFEIRETLDKYHFD
151   SPVFFYIEDTNLPGDTVLVSSDDPTVVTDVTTMVDRWSHLQLSTLPIVTA    151   ISHLFHKWMKQKSSDKMIKIEITNSNTQNVINAL**SVLR**NAPNFDVMVFQP
201   RASTNDELKIEAFLVIALKDEDAGPPKKRSRRSASTTPISAPPMRQ**KVKR**    201   NTVTAGTSDCVGCCVIPFYVNFTEIGWNDWILSPPGFYANVCSDTVCSTE
251   SESAYFEKPNENERCQRKGLYVDFDILGWKQWVIAPEGFSAFYCSGDCSA    251   SDEVYQFMKAAISDLPEPKCAPNYYGSVDMIVALSPRDIRKTRVHGLRAL
301   PFSKEMNATSHAIVQSTLHRVRPNSTTPAKCAPSSLGSYKILFVDQNKQV    301   SCSCT
351   QIKRYRDMVVDECGCH
```

B

Protein	Subfamily[a]	Species	Uniprot Entry	Signal Sequence[b]	(Prodomain ⊃ Cleavage Site)		Mature Domain
TIG-2	BMP	*C. elegans*	O16273	MLFEFSILLGFLVPRGDS	…PMRQ	KVKR[c]	SESA…
TIG-3	Activin	*C. elegans*	A0A8S4QGI4	MHFFTRFHYCFVITIISINASS	…INAL	SVLR[a]	NAPN…
BMP-2	BMP	*H. sapiens*	P12643	MVAGTRCLLALLLPQVLLGGAAG	…PLHK	REKR[d]	QAKH…
BMP-6	BMP	*H. sapiens*	P22004	MPGLGRRAQWLCWWWGLLCS	…RQQS	R[d]	NRST…
BMP-15	BMP	*H. sapiens*	O95972	MVLLSILRILFLCELVLFMEHRAQM	…ESLL	RRTR[d]	QADG…
GDF-9	BMP	*H. sapiens*	O60383	MARPNKFLLWFCCFAWLCFPISLG	…SSHH	RHRR[d]	GQET…
Inh-βA	Activin	*H. sapiens*	P08476	MPLLWLRGFLLASCWIIVRS	…HPHR	RRRR[d]	GLEC…
Inh-βB	Activin	*H. sapiens*	P09529	MDGLPGRALGAACLLLLAAGWLGPEAW	…HRIR	KR[d]	GLEC…
Inh-α	TGF-β	*H. sapiens*	P05111	MVLHLLLFLLLTPQGGHS	…SGGE	RARR[d]	STPL…

a. Source: Newfeld and Wisotzkey, 2020
b. Source: SignalP 6.0
c. Source: Manual sequence analysis
d. Source: Hinck et al., 2016

Figure S5. Structural Modeling Sequence Data. A. Annotated TIG-2 and TIG-3 isoform B

amino acid sequences. The signal sequence is underlined, and the cleavage site is in boldface.

The prodomain includes the cleavage site, which separates the prodomain from the mature

ligand. Cysteine residues participating in intrachain disulfide bonds are highlighted in gold. The

lysine residue that replaces the dimerization cysteine is colored yellow-green. B. Subfamily,

species, Uniprot entry, signal sequence, and cleavage site for modeled TGF-β family members.

Figure S6. Benchmarking AlphaFold2 Structure Predictions against Experimentally Tested

TGF-β Family Complexes. TIG-2 and TIG-3 structure predictions benchmarked against

predictions for experimentally reported dimers (Valera *et al.*, 2010; Peng *et al.*, 2013;

Mottershead *et al.*, 2015; Walton *et al.*, 2009) and the non-homodimeric inhibin α-subunit

complex (Zhu *et al.*, 2010). Average pLDDT divided by 100 (navy), pTM (khaki), and ipTM

(amber) metrics are grouped for each complex. Lavender and gray dashed lines correspond to

TIG-2/TIG-3 and TIG-3/TIG-3 ipTM scores, respectively. Monomers are color-coded according

to TGF-β subfamily, with BMP in blue-violet and TGF-β/Activin in green-cyan. Both mature

and procomplexes of the TIG-2 homodimer and TIG-2/TIG-3 heterodimer converge with known

dimers. In contrast, the mature and pro-forms of the TIG-3 homodimer markedly diverge with

inhibin α that does not homodimerize. Mature activin A, the inhibin βA homodimer, groups with

mature inhibin α despite the established ability of inhibin βA to homodimerize. Activin A

procomplex, however, expectedly groups with the reported dimers. The mature and pro results

together support the necessity of prodomain-mediated dimerization for activin A, as previously

shown (Gray and Mason, 1990). Reported non-disulfide-linked mature dimers include GDF-

9/GDF-9, GDF-9/BMP-15, and BMP-15/BMP-15. Procomplex multimer metrics are observably

lower (except for pTM and iPTM scores for activin A and inhibin B) than the equivalent mature

form.