P. aeruginosa disrupts ARP-2/3 mediated apical F-actin organization to induce
intestinal deformation in *C. elegans*

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SUMMARY

Apico-basal polarity is crucial for maintaining cortical actin organization and regulating
secretory functions in intestinal epithelium. The opportunistic pathogen, *Pseudomonas*
aeruginosa, exploits the interplay between cell polarity and cytoskeletal machineries
to subvert host defenses. Mechanistic insights into such pathogen-induced
cytoskeletal alterations have largely been derived from *in-vitro* epithelial monolayers,
which may not capture the influences of multicellular physiology such as tissue
mechanics, and innate immunity. Here, we show that the extracellular *P. aeruginosa*
disrupts apical polarity in *C. elegans* enterocytes, leading to fragmentation of ARP-2/3
clusters and disorganization of apical F-actin. This disruption causes shedding of
actin-rich vesicles into lumen and a pronounced apical deformation. Inhibition of CDC-
42-ARP-2/3-mediated actin polymerization or PI3K-AKT signalling attenuated
enterocyte deformation and extended the lifespan of *C. elegans* upon *P. aeruginosa*
exposure. Our findings reveal a conserved strategy by which *P. aeruginosa* exploits
cellular polarity machinery to disrupt host actin organization during extracellular
infection of the intestinal epithelium.

Keywords : actin cytoskeleton/ CDC-42 / cell polarity / *P. aeruginosa*/ Host-pathogen
interactions

INTRODUCTION

Constantly exposed to a diverse micro-organisms, the intestinal epithelium acts as a frontline sentinel for immune surveillance, detecting perturbations caused by dysbiosis, distinguishing harmless commensals from pathogens, and mounting context-appropriate immune response. During infection, bacterial pathogens elicit a wide range of responses from intestinal epithelial cells - some orchestrated by the pathogens to promote their survival and dissemination, and others initiated by the host to limit damage and trigger innate immunity. Unlike professional immune cells, enterocytes lack canonical pathogen recognition receptors (PRRs) that detect microbe-associated molecular patterns (MAMPs). Instead, they respond to pathogen effector activity and the disruptions they cause to physiological processes and cellular homeostasis, collectively termed "patterns of pathogenesis". These include damage associated molecular patterns (DAMPs) triggered by pathogen effectors. Studies in model organisms such as *Drosophila melanogaster* and *Caenorhabditis elegans (C. elegans)* have highlighted the role of effector-triggered, cell autonomous surveillance in epithelial tissue (Stuart *et al*, 2013; Tse-Kang *et al*, 2025; Vance *et al*, 2009).

C. elegans, a bacterivorous soil nematode, inhabits microbe-rich environments and encounters a broad spectrum of microorganisms, including pathogens (Berg *et al*, 2016; Schulenburg & Félix, 2017). While a protective cuticle (Gravato-Nobre *et al*, 2005) and sophisticated pathogen-avoidance behaviours (Lei *et al*, 2024; Melo & Ruvkun, 2012; Pereira *et al*, 2020; Prakash *et al*, 2021; Singh & Aballay, 2019b; Zhang *et al*, 2005) limits pathogen exposure, the intestinal epithelium remains the primary site of infection due to the worm's bacterial diet. Ingested bacteria are mechanically ground in the pharynx before entering the lumen, yet some pathogens survive, proliferate, and colonize the intestine. The *C. elegans* intestine is composed of 20 polarized epithelial cells arranged longitudinally, with apical surfaces facing the central lumen and basolateral surface engaged in cell-cell and cell-matrix adhesions (Dimov & Maduro, 2019; McGhee, 2007). The apical surface is enriched in microvilli, providing the primary site for host-pathogen interaction (MacQueen *et al*, 2005a) (Fig. 1A). Polarity is maintained by structural and signalling complexes: the Crumbs complex (CRB-1, CRB-3, MAGUK-2) and the PAR complex (comprising PAR-3, PAR-6, PKC-3 kinase and CDC-42 GTPase) localize apically, while the Scribble complex (LET-

413, LGL-1, and DLG-1) and PAR-1 kinase localize basolaterally. Lipids are also polarized, with phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate [PI(4,5)P_2 or PIP_2] enriched apically and phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-trisphosphate [PI(3,4,5)P_3 or PIP_3] basolaterally. This polarity is reinforced by polarity complexes, cytoskeletal organization, membrane trafficking, and junctional assemblies. (Armenti & Nance, 2012; Bossinger *et al*, 2004; Legouis *et al*, 2000; Winter *et al*, 2012). Membrane polarity is also essential for the spatial localization and activation of Rho family GTPases (Jaffe & Hall, 2005). In particular, CDC-42 activates the ARP-2/3 complex to promote branched actin polymerization, essential for the assembly and maintenance of apical microvilli (Bernadskaya *et al*, 2011; Ma *et al*, 1998; Martin-Belmonte *et al*, 2007; Shafaq-Zadah *et al*, 2012; Thuenauer *et al*, 2022). During infection many pathogens employ diverse virulence strategies to subvert the host polarity and actin cytoskeletal machinery to alter cellular shape and mechanics (Ruch & Engel, 2017). This facilitates intracellular entry and spread, or extracellular effector-induced inflammation and tissue damage (Bastounis *et al*, 2022; Colonne *et al*, 2016). Conversely, epithelial cells may actively reorganize actin as part of their defense response. Thus, plasma membrane polarity-actin cytoskeleton cross talk is vital for epithelial integrity during infection (Fleiszig *et al*, 1997; Tran *et al*, 2014).

The opportunistic pathogen, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* a major cause of nosocomial infections and infects a wide range of hosts, including *C. elegans* (Balla & Troemel, 2013; Mahajan-Miklos *et al*, 1999; Tan *et al*, 1999a). In worms, *P. aeruginosa* infection induces diverse stress responses, mitotic quiescence, and apoptosis (Kuss-Duerkop & Keestra-Gounder, 2020; Pellegrino *et al*, 2014; Dunbar *et al*, 2012; McEwan *et al*, 2012; Bollen *et al*, 2024). In the absence of professional immune cells, *C. elegans* upon detecting infection, activates innate immune signalling such as the TIR-1-p38 MAP kinase and the DAF-2/DAF-16 insulin/IGF-1 pathways (Peterson *et al*, 2023). DAF-2 dependent phosphorylation of PI3K/AGE-1 recruits AKT-1/AKT-2 kinases that in turn phosphorylate DAF-16. This kinase cascade results in cytoplasmic retention of DAF-16, thereby regulating gene expression (Ewbank, 2006). DAF-16 is known to induce expression of antimicrobial genes, detoxifying enzymes and bacterial avoidance (Balla & Troemel, 2013; Cohen & Troemel, 2015; Irazoqui *et al*, 2010; Peterson *et al*, 2022; Pukkila-Worley & Ausubel, 2012). Avoidance behaviour is also

triggered by mechanical cues, such as intestinal distension ("bloating"), mediated by

TRPM channels (Filipowicz *et al*, 2021; Kumar *et al*, 2019; Singh & Aballay, 2019b,

2019a). Here, we investigated the mechanism underlying cytoskeletal remodelling and

polarity disruption following *P. aeruginosa* infection. We find that *P. aeruginosa*

exploits PI3K-AKT pathway to perturb CDC-42-ARP-2/3-mediated actin organization

in *C. elegans* enterocytes. The resultant disruption in epithelial polarity and discharge

of actin rich vesicles from the apical surface locally alters the surface mechanics

resulting in a deformed intestinal lumen surface that is associated with decreased

organism viability.

RESULTS

***Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infection results in *C. elegans* intestinal deformation**

Consistent with previous studies, exposure to *P. aeruginosa* strain PA14 resulted in

reduced *C. elegans* survival (TD_{50}^{PA14} ~3 days) compared to *E. coli* (OP50) (TD_{50}^{OP50}

~8 days) (Fig. 1B). This lethality has been partly attributed to the colonization of the

intestinal lumen by *P. aeruginosa* (Tan *et al*, 1999a). To examine the impact of *P.*

aeruginosa infection on host cytoskeletal organization, we imaged *C. elegans*

intestines expressing mCherry fused to the N-terminus of ACT-5, the intestine-specific

actin isoform (MacQueen *et al*, 2005b; Szumowski *et al*, 2016). In *E. coli*-fed worms,

ACT-5 appeared as a smooth parallel lining along the intestinal lumen (Fig. 1B and

1C; blue arrowhead, OP50). Despite age related intestinal distension (Egge *et al*,

2019; Irazoqui *et al*, 2010; Singh & Aballay, 2019a), the ACT-5 signal remained

smooth even after 3 days on *E. coli* (Fig.1C; red double-headed arrows in OP50/day-

3, and S1A). Although lumen was distended following *P. aeruginosa* exposure (Fig.

1C, red double-headed arrows in PA14 day-3, and Fig S1A), apical surface

characteristics were markedly distinct. In contrast to the smooth surface seen in *E.*

coli-fed animals, *P. aeruginosa*-fed worms displayed extensive wrinkles and surface

deformations (Fig. 1C; PA14,filled red arrowheads), with vesicle-like structures

budding outward from the deformed apical surface (Fig. 1C; PA14, red arrows in

enlarged ROI). Compared to only ~4% (2/54) of *E. coli*-fed worms, ~48%(27/56) of *P.*

aeruginosa-exposed worms showed such deformations after 1-day (Fig. 1C). By day-

3, the incidence rose to ~83% (43/52) in *P. aeruginosa*-fed worms compared to ~19%

(10/52) on *E. coli* (Fig. 1D).

Magnitude of intestinal deformation depends on the duration *of P. aeruginosa*

infection

To quantify changes in intestinal morphology, we defined a dimensionless "apical

deformation index" (δ_{apical}), as the ratio of apical lumen length to total worm length (Fig.

1E). *E. coli*-fed worms consistently maintained '$\delta_{apical}^{OP50}=1$', whereas *P. aeruginosa*

exposure resulted in '$\delta_{apical}^{PA14}>1$', with values increasing over time, indicating

progressive deformation (Fig. 1F). Tracking individual worms revealed that those fed

with *E. coli* , the value of δ_{apical}^{OP50} remained ~1, but in worms exposed to *P.*

aeruginosa, deformation was evident by day-1 and worsened over subsequent days

(Fig. 1G). In acute infection assays, 12-hour exposure did not cause significant

deformation, whereas 24-hour exposure induced noticeable apical distortion even

after transfer back to *E.coli* (Fig. S1B). To test whether deformation extended beyond

the apical surface, we examined transgenic worms co-expressing LET-413::mCherry

and DLG-1::GFP, the Scribble and Discs Large orthologs in *C. elegans,* as markers

for basolateral surface and adherens junctions (AJ), respectively (Bossinger *et al*,

2004; Legouis *et al*, 2000; McMahon *et al*, 2001; Riga *et al*, 2021). Neither AJ

positioning nor basal deformation index (δ_{basal}) was significantly altered by *P.*

aeruginosa exposure (Fig. 5A and S1C). However, lateral surfaces showed LET-413

enrichment and altered morphology (Fig. 5A and 5C), indicating that deformation was

restricted to apical and lateral domains.

Next we confirmed that the intestinal deformation was independent of oocytes or

uterine expansion following fertilization by examining males (Fig. S1D and S1E). F-

actin staining using Phalloidin-AlexaFluor647 and LifeACT::mRuby expression

showed visible apical deformation specifically upon *P. aeruginosa* exposure,

eliminating the possibility that the infection phenotype might be an artifact of

mCherry::ACT-5 transgene expression (Fig. S1F and S1H, red filled arrowheads).

Finally, we validated the phenotype using additional apical/sub-apical markers: PGP-

1::GFP, ERM-1::GFP, PAR-6::GFP, and IFB-2::GFP, that localized to apical

membrane, microvillar structure or subapical positions, respectively (Fig. 1H) (Geisler

et al, 2020; Göbel *et al*, 2004; Sepers *et al*, 2022). In all cases, *P. aeruginosa* exposure

resulted in clear deformation of the apical surface topology.

'Slow killing' assay, typically uses nematode growth media (NGM) containing 0.35%

peptone (Tan *et al*, 1999a). To minimize any confounding effects from elevated

peptone concentrations on intestinal epithelial response, we conducted our infections

on standard NGM containing 0.25% peptone, optimised for *C. elegans* growth

(Stiernagle, 2006). We observed intestinal deformation in worms infected on 0.35%

peptone media indistinguishable from 0.25% peptone (Fig. S1I and S1J). Our lifespan

assays mirrored previously reported kinetics using 0.35% peptone-containing NGM

(Figure 1A) (Tan *et al*, 1999a). Thus we confirmed that our infection conditions

faithfully recapitulate chronic *P. aeruginosa* infection, leading to progressive apical and

lateral intestinal deformation.

CDC-42 mediates *Pseudomonas*-induced intestinal deformation

Members of RHO family GTPases, primarily RHO-1, RAC-1, and CDC-42, are key

upstream regulators of F-actin assembly and organization, that co-ordinate actin

dynamics in a spatiotemporally controlled manner (Ann Mack & Georgiou, 2014; Jaffe

& Hall, 2005). *P. aeruginosa* -infecting MDCK cells disrupt RHO signalling through

effector proteins that interfere with GTPase-activating proteins (GAPs), leading to the

disorganization of actin architecture (Cowell *et al*, 2005; Kazmierczak & Engel, 2002;

Krall *et al*, 2000; Pederson *et al*, 1999; Sun & Barbieri, 2004). To test whether *P.*

aeruginosa-induced surface deformation in *C. elegans* enterocytes might similarly

depend on RHO GTPase-mediated actin re-organization, we individually depleted

RHO-1, CED-10 (RAC-1), and CDC-42 in adult worms expressing intestinal

mCherry::ACT-5, and subsequently exposed them to *P. aeruginosa* or *E. coli*. As in

the RNAi control, exposure to *P. aeruginosa* resulted in apical deformation in *rho-*

1(RNAi) or *ced-10(RNAi)* animals (Fig. 2A, S2A and S2B). In contrast, *cdc-42(RNAi)*

worms exposed to *P. aeruginosa* displayed no deformation (Fig. 2A and 2B). This lack

of deformation was not due to impaired pathogen sensing in *cdc-42(RNAi)* worms (Fig.

S2D and S2E) (Estes *et al*, 2010). Consistent with its role in suppressing intestinal

deformation, *cdc-42(RNAi)* worms exhibited significantly extended lifespan (8 days)

compared to RNAi controls (4 days) upon *P. aeruginosa* exposure (Fig. 2C).

***P. aeruginosa* infection leads to cytoplasmic accumulation of G-actin**

The absence of intestinal deformation in *cdc-42(RNAi)* worms prompted us to

investigate the intracellular localization of CDC-42 and its downstream effector, the

actin nucleating ARP-2/3 complex, during *P. aeruginosa* infection. We used worms co-

expressing ARX-2::TagRFP (an essential subunit of the ARP-2/3 complex) at its

endogenous locus, and CDC-42::GFP, expressed exogenously under the native *cdc-*

42 promoter (Neukomm *et al,* 2014; Wu *et al,* 2017). In control animals maintained on

E. coli, both CDC-42 and ARX-2 localized predominantly to the apical membrane of

the enterocytes, with little accumulation in the cytoplasm over 2 days of exposure (Fig.

2D and 2G; OP50 panel and Fig. S2C). Upon exposure to *P. aeruginosa*, both

cytoplasmic and apical CDC-42 levels increased markedly (Fig. 2D enlarged ROI, 2E

and 2F). Cytoplasmic levels of ARX-2 also increased (~2.6 fold) (Fig. 2H) though

apical ARX-2 remained unchanged relative to *E. coli* (Fig. 2I). Intracellular actin

mirrored that of ARX-2, with ~2.5 fold increase in cytoplasmic levels but none in apical

levels (Fig. 2J- 2L). Surprisingly, Phalloidin-AlexaFluor647 staining and

LifeACT::mRuby did not show any cytoplasmic staining, suggesting that the

accumulated cytoplasmic actin pool is primarily G-actin (Fig. S1F-S1H). Thus, the

increased cytoplasmic levels following *P. aeruginosa* infection reflects accumulation

of G-actin rather than loss of F-actin from the apical surface.

***P. aeruginosa*-induced disruption of cortical actin results in apical surface**

deformation

It seemed counterintuitive that apical ARX-2 and ACT-5 intensities did not increase

despite CDC-42 enrichment. To clarify this conundrum, we measured apical levels of

ACT-5 and ARX-2 in *cdc-42(RNAi)* worms, and found them to be significantly reduced

(see OP50 panels in Figs. 3A, S3A, S3B and S3D). Thus apical actin and ARP-2/3

complex are sensitive to CDC-42-depletion, but not to *P. aeruginosa*-induced CDC-

42-enrichment. The absence of deformation in *cdc-42(RNAi)* animals could therefore

reflect a direct effect of CDC-42 depletion or an indirect effect via reduced ARP-2/3-

mediated F-actin polymerization. To distinguish these, we depleted ACT-5 or ARX-2

in worms co-expressing CDC-42::GFP and ARX-2::TagRFP. Due to *act-5(RNAi)*-

associated developmental defects, analyses were restricted to day 1 post-infection.

Strikingly, *act-5(RNAi)* and *arx-2(RNAi)* worms, like *cdc-42(RNAi)* showed rescue of

deformation phenotype following infection despite elevated CDC-42 levels (red open

arrowheads in Fig.3C-E,3G and S3E).

To probe the function of ARP-2/3 dependent actin polymerization in *P. aeruginosa*-

induced intestinal deformation, we analysed worms co-expressing mCherry::ACT5

and an apical membrane maker, PGP-1::GFP. In control worms fed with *E. coli*, ACT-

5 and PGP-1 were uniformly co-localized at the apical surface (Fig. 3F; control panel).

In *arx-2(RNAi)* intestines, apical actin was absent and instead appeared as

cytoplasmic aggregates, even when fed with *E. coli* (Fig. 3F; *arx-2(RNAi)* red filled

arrowheads). This ruled out cytoplasmic actin accumulation as a possible cause of *P.*

aeruginosa-induced deformation. ARP-2/3 disruption has been implicated in

cytoplasmic mislocalization of membrane bound components such as DLG-1 and

ERM-1 (Bernadskaya *et al*, 2011). PGP-1 displayed diffused apical localization in *arx-*

2(RNAi) intestines (Fig. 3F; *arx-2(RNAi)* red hollow arrowheads). These results

suggested the central role of ARP-2/3 polymerized actin in maintenance of apical

membrane organization. Importantly, CDC-42 and ARX-2 maintained apical

localization even in the absence of actin (Fig. 3F and 3G), confirming their upstream

role in the actin polymerization pathway. Collectively, these results demonstrate that

rescue of apical deformation in *cdc-42(RNAi)* and *arx-2(RNAi)* intestines following *P.*

aeruginosa exposure was due to disruption of ARP-2/3 mediated actin polymerization.

Fragmented ARP-2/3 clustering and F-actin disorganization drive release of

membrane vesicles into the intestinal lumen following *P. aeruginosa* exposure.

Although overall intensities of apical ARX-2 and ACT-5 were comparable between

worms exposed to *P. aeruginosa* and *E. coli* (Fig. 2I and 2L), their surface localization

patterns were markedly distinct. In *E. coli*-fed worms, ARX-2 was evenly distributed at

the apical surface (Fig. 4A; OP50, cyan arrowhead) essential for contiguous actin

polymerization, supporting brush border integrity (Bidaud-Meynard *et al*, 2021;

MacQueen *et al*, 2005b; Stutz *et al*, 2015). In contrast, *P. aeruginosa*-infected animals

exhibited fragmented ARX-2 clusters, interspersed with ARX-2-depleted regions (Fig.

4A; PA14, white arrows). We sought to correlate the cortical actin distribution with this

fragmented ARP-2/3 localization using worms co-expressing mCherry::ACT-5 and

ARX-2::GFP. Medial confocal sections of intestines from this strain when exposed to

P. aeruginosa resulted in apical actin to protrude as a 'bud-like' structure into the

lumen, emerging from ARX-2-free apical surface (Fig 4B; actin protrusions - yellow

arrowheads, fragmented ARP-2/3 – cyan arrows and Fig. 1C; red arrows in enlarged

ROI). By day-2, these protrusions pinched off as vesicles, coinciding with apical

surface deformation (Fig. 1C; day-2 PA14 panel - red arrows in enlarged ROI and Fig.

4D -cyan arrows in enlarged ROI). Lattice light sheet microscopy of the intestinal

lumen surface of animals expressing mCherry::ACT-5 exposed to *P. aeruginosa*

expressing GFP revealed extracellular pinching of actin rich vesicles from the apical

surface into the lumen (Fig. 4C; enlarged ROI, cyan arrows).

To determine whether these extracellular actin structures were membrane-enclosed,

we examined worms co-expressing mCherry::ACT-5 and PGP-1::GFP.   Medial

confocal images on day-2 post-infection revealed apical buds at various stages: initial

protrusion (Fig. 4D; ROIs 1a & 2a), membrane pinching (1b & 2b), and free vesicles

in the lumen (cyan arrows, 1c & 2c). Intensity line-scan analysis confirmed that these

vesicles consisted of cortical actin cores surrounded by PGP-1::GFP-labelled apical

membrane. LifeACT::mRuby labeled these vesicles, indicating filamentous actin

content (Fig. 4E). We estimated the vesicle diameter to be $\sim 0.59\,\mu$m (Fig. S4A). These

results support the view that *P. aeruginosa* exposure led to disordered ARP-2/3

localization at the apical lumen surface destabilising cortical actin organization,

resulting in the release of F-actin rich vesicles from the apical surface into lumen.

P. aeruginosa infection disrupts apical polarity of enterocyte epithelium

Fragmented ARP-2/3 clustering and vesicle shedding suggested a loss of apical

membrane identity. *P. aeruginosa* attachment to MDCK cells triggers a transient

PI(3,4,5)P$_3$ accumulation at the apical surface, resulting in the loss of apical

membrane identity (Kierbel *et al*, 2007, 2005; Thuenauer *et al*, 2022). To check if *P.*

aeruginosa might cause a similar disruption to the polarity in *C. elegans* intestinal

epithelium, we analysed the localization of the *C. elegans* Scribble homolog, LET-413

and the cell junction marker, DLG-1. The LET-413 complex and DLG-1 have been

reported to be essential for maintenance of basolateral domains in *C. elegans* by

regulating the localization of apical polarity components (Bossinger *et al*, 2004;

McMahon *et al*, 2001). In *E. coli*-fed worms, the localization of LET-413 was limited to

the basolateral membrane with the apical surface largely devoid of any LET-413 (Fig.

5A; OP50 panel, basolateral surface -yellow filled arrowhead, apical surface -yellow

asterisks) (Legouis *et al*, 2000). Upon exposure to *P. aeruginosa,* we observed a

significant increase in LET-413 levels along the apical and lateral membranes (Fig.

5A; PA14 panel, apical surface - yellow arrows, lateral membrane- yellow open

arrowhead, 5B and 5C), indicating disruption in cell polarity. *P. aeruginosa* infection

did not affect the position of AJ(Fig. 5A; cyan arrows).

The absence of intestinal deformation in *cdc-42(RNAi)* animals prompted us to

investigate if CDC-42 might also regulate apico-lateral polarity following *P. aeruginosa*

exposure. To this end, we checked the localization of LET-413 in control (L4440) and

cdc-42(RNAi) worms. The enhanced apical localization of LET-413 in the intestines of

control (L4440) worms was significantly diminished in *cdc-42(RNAi)* animals following

P. aeruginosa exposure (Fig. 5D). Conversely, we did not detect any disturbance to

the apical localization of CDC-42 and ARP-2/3 in *let-413(RNAi)* intestines, in

agreement with previous reports indicating that LET-413 depletion has minimal effect

on epithelial polarity (Fig S5A) (Riga *et al*, 2021). Moreover, similar to control animals,

P. aeruginosa exposure of *let-413(RNAi)* worms resulted in apical surface deformation

as well as elevated cytoplasmic levels of CDC-42 (S5A and S5B). Taken together,

these results suggest that upon exposure to *P. aeruginosa,* the apical surface *C.*

elegans intestine acquires basolateral characteristics in a CDC-42-dependent

mechanism.

PI3K-AKT signalling is required for CDC-42 mis-localization and intestinal deformation

Disruption of the PI3K-AKT pathway impedes *P. aeruginosa* infection in MDCK cells

(Kierbel *et al*, 2005). Similarly, long-lived *C. elegans* mutants such as *akt-1, akt-2* and

age-1/PI3K exhibit resistance to *P. aeruginosa* (Evans *et al*, 2008; Garsin *et al,* 2003)

suggesting a conserved host response to *P. aeruginosa* infection between mammalian

epithelium and *C. elegans* enterocytes. To examine the conservation in cellular

response to *P. aeruginosa* between mammals and *C. elegans,* we diminished PI3K-

AKT signalling by a simultaneous depletion of AKT-1 and AKT-2 using RNAi and

checked the intestinal localization of LET-413, CDC-42 and ARX-2. Depletion of AKT-

1/AKT-2, like in *cdc-42(RNAi)* worms, prevented the apical localization of LET-413

following *P. aeruginosa* infection (Fig. 5D). Evidence for crosstalk between CDC-42

dependent actin assembly and PI3K-AKT in mammalian cells prompted us to measure

CDC-42 and ARX-2 levels in the intestines of *akt-1(RNAi)+akt-2(RNAi)* and *age-*

1(RNAi) animals following *P. aeruginosa* exposure (McCormick *et al*, 2019; Yang *et*

al, 2012). Intestinal epithelium of animals depleted of AKT or AGE-1 displayed

diminished apical and cytosolic ARX-2 localization compared to control animals (Fig.

5E, S5D - S5G), and also did not display apical deformation following *P. aeruginosa*

exposure (Fig. 5F). Our results, taken together with earlier studies on MDCK cells

(Kierbel *et al*, 2007) suggests that PI3K dependent apical enrichment of PI(3,4,5)P$_3$

following exposure to *P. aeruginosa*, disrupts apical membrane polarity and de-

localizes ARP-2/3 dependent actin assembly from the apical surface resulting in

intestinal deformation. These findings re-enforces the importance of polarity disruption

as a key event following *P. aeruginosa* infection and prior to intestinal deformation.

349   Extracellular localization of *Pseudomonas* is sufficient to induce intestinal
350   deformation

Pseudomonas aeruginosa functions both as an extracellular and intracellular

pathogen infecting a wide range of hosts (Resko *et al*, 2024). Transient activation of

PI3K pathway resulting in apical membrane acquiring basolateral characteristics was

resulted in internalization of *P. aeruginosa* by MDCK cells (Kierbel *et al*, 2005).

Electron microscopy studies of *P. aeruginosa* -infected *C. elegans* intestine have also

reported *Pseudomonas* invasion into enterocytes (Irazoqui *et al*, 2010; Xue *et al*,

2024). To determine whether intestinal deformation in *C. elegans* results from *P.*

aeruginosa breaching the epithelial barrier, we performed live confocal imaging of

infection using GFP-expressing *E. coli* or *P. aeruginosa*. Unlike *E. coli* (OP50-GFP),

which were in very few numbers even after two days of exposure, *P. aeruginosa*

(PA14-GFP) cells formed visible aggregates throughout the intestinal lumen as early

as one-day post infection (Fig. 6A). Interestingly, apical surfaces adjacent to these

aggregates displayed mild contortions, which progressed into pronounced

deformation by day 2 (Fig. 6A; red filled triangles in bottom row-PA14). Orthogonal

reconstruction (YZ plane) of confocal (XY) planes revealed that PA14-GFP localization

remained restricted to the lumen with no detectable signal in the cytoplasm of the

intestinal cells (Fig.6A; PA14 panel). These observations were confirmed using lattice
light-sheet microscopy (Fig. 4C and Supplementary Movie S1). To test whether apical
surface deformation is a general enterocyte response to any pathogen, we conducted
parallel infection assays using *Salmonella enterica* serovar *typhimurium* (Stm), a
Gram-negative bacterium known to modulate CDC-42 activity during mammalian
infections (Bandyopadhyay *et al*, 2024) and cause lethality in *C. elegans (*Fig. S6A)
(Aballay *et al*, 2000; Desai *et al*, 2019). Stm-GFP infection in worms expressing
mCherry::ACT-5, resulted in efficient intestinal colonization by day 2 similar to *P.*
aeruginosa (Fig. S6B). However, despite this robust lumen colonization, in contrast to
P. aeruginosa , Stm-exposed intestines did not display any surface deformation (Fig.
6A; middle row, yellow open arrowheads). Taken together, these results indicate that
the intestinal deformation is a pathogen-specific response by the *C. elegans*
enterocyte to extracellular *Pseudomonas* infection.

Physical association between live *P .aeruginosa* and the intestinal surface is not
essential for apical deformation

Given the key role for physical association with host cells in *P. aeruginosa*
pathogenesis (via various adhesins, including flagella, type IV pili, type III secretion
system (T3SS), and lectins (Bucior *et al*, 2012; Comolli *et al*, 1999; Thuenauer *et al*,
2022), we asked whether a direct attachment of *P. aeruginosa* to the apical membrane
of *C. elegans* intestine was necessary to trigger tissue deformation. First, we tested if
exposure to live microbes is essential for inducing deformation of apical surface, by
exposing animals to heat-killed *E. coli* or *P. aeruginosa* instead of live bacteria. Since
worms displayed no noticeable defects in growth, maturation or egg laying, we
concluded that heat-killed bacteria as food source was not nutritionally limiting.
However, unlike live *P. aeruginosa*, heat-killed *P. aeruginosa* failed to induce intestinal
deformation (Fig. 6B; open red triangle). Our observation agrees with previous reports
showing heat-killed *P. aeruginosa* does not elicit immune responses in *C.* elegans
(Irazoqui *et al*, 2010). Since extracellular *P. aeruginosa* induces intestinal deformation,
we hypothesized that secreted factors may mediate this effect. To test this, we
exposed worms to cell-free filter-sterilized supernatant collected from *P. aeruginosa*

398 or *E. coli* cultures. Remarkably, a 12-hour exposure to *P. aeruginosa* supernatant

399 alone was sufficient to trigger apical surface deformation in the *C. elegans* intestine

400 (Fig. 6C).

401 The global response regulator, GacA governs the expression of numerous virulence

402 factors secreted by *P. aeruginosa,* including toxins and components in biofilm

403 regulation (Barta *et al*, 1992; Kitten *et al*, 1998; Parkins *et al*, 2001; Reimmann *et al*,

404 1997) and has also been implicated in inducing developmental defects and activating

405 the unfolded protein response (UPR) in *C. elegans* intestinal epithelium (Pellegrino *et*

406 *al*, 2014). To assess the role of GacA in apical surface deformation, we exposed

407 mCherry::ACT-5-expressing worms to *E. coli*, *P. aeruginosa* or a *gacA* deletion mutant

408 (PA14*ΔgacA*) strain. The intestines of worms exposed to PA14*ΔgacA* exhibited an

409 intermediate level of intestinal deformation compared to those infected with wild-type

410 PA14 (Fig. 6D and 6E). Importantly, a *gacA* deletion mutant (PA14*ΔgacA*) retains

411 partial pathogenicity, causing ~50% lethality in infected worms (Fig. 6F) (Feinbaum *et*

412 *al*, 2012; Tan *et al*, 1999b). These results suggest that while GacA partially contributes

413 to *P. aeruginosa* pathogenesis in *C. elegans*, a GacA-independent mechanism also

414 exists, through which the pathogen elicits tissue surface deformation. Taken together,

415 these results support the view that while intestinal distension is a general tissue

416 response to microbial colonization of the lumen, mechanical deformation of apical

417 surface is a specific response to extracellular heat-labile component from *P.*

418 *aeruginosa*.

420 **DISCUSSION**

421 Here we report that *P. aeruginosa* exposure induces two distinct morphological

422 alterations in the *C. elegans* intestine; (a) lumenal distension, reflected by increased

423 intestinal width, and (b) deformation of the apical surface, seen as wrinkling of the

424 lumen. While lumen distension has been previously described as a general response

425 to microbial colonisation, we show that apical surface deformation is specific to *P.*

426 *aeruginosa* exposure.

P. aeruginosa infection in MDCK cells recruit PI3K to the attachment sites, causing

PIP_3 enrichment, apical mis-localization of basolateral proteins, and disruption of

epithelial polarity through perturbation of the Rho GTPases - RHO-1, RAC-1 and CDC-

42 (Aktories, 2011; Kazmierczak & Engel, 2002; Kierbel *et al*, 2007; Krall *et al*, 2000).

Consistent with this, we find that inhibition of either PI3K-AKT signalling or CDC-42-

dependent actin assembly diminished both intestinal deformation and pathogen-

induced lethality. *P. aeruginosa* infection also led to apical mis-localization of the

basolateral marker LET-413, indicating a loss of apical membrane identity, though no

apical markers were mis-localized basolaterally. The rescue observed in *cdc-42(RNAi)*

animals further implicated CDC-42 in pathogen-induced actin remodelling. However,

depletion of the downstream polarity factor, LET-413, failed to rescue deformation,

suggesting that CDC-42 contributes primarily via actin assembly rather than polarity

regulation. Supporting this, depletion of ACT-5 or disruption of ARP-2/3 phenocopied

cdc-42(RNAi). In line with previous reports (Kierbel *et al*, 2005; Paradis & Ruvkun,

1998), we noted that attenuation of PI3K-AKT signalling rescued the intestinal

deformation by limiting ARP-2/3 mis-localization. Thus, manipulations that prevent

deformation were also found to extend survival, supporting a strong correlation

between intestinal cell surface mechanics and organism viability. These results

highlights the central role of CDC-42-ARP-2/3-mediated actin polymerization in *P.*

aeruginosa-induced deformation.

In uninfected animals, ARP-2/3, together with actin-binding proteins such as PLST-1

and FLN-2, forms evenly distributed apical clusters (Bidaud-Meynard *et al*, 2021).

ARP-2/3 polymerizes contiguous F-actin to support microvillar structures (Fig. 4A). *P.*

aeruginosa infection fragmented these clusters, disrupting local actin organization,

and destabilized the apical surface, promoting vesiculation of actin-rich membrane into

the lumen. Because apical actin structures in enterocytes show minimal mobility, their

disruption cannot be rapidly replenished, leading to progressive surface destabilization

(Bernadskaya *et al*, 2011; Bidaud-Meynard *et al*, 2021) (Fig. 6G). This is consistent

with electron micrographs showing actin protrusions in MDCK cells (Kierbel *et al*,

2005) and reports of microvillar loss and host debris accumulation in the *C. elegans*

lumen during *P. aeruginosa* infection (Irazoqui *et al*, 2010; Xue *et al*, 2024).

Intriguingly, depletion of ARX-2 or ACT-5 prevented vesicle release and surface

deformation, suggesting that a uniform depletion of ARP-2/3 or actin reduces the
availability of F-actin for vesiculation. A similar protective effect was observed in
MDCK cells, where Latrunculin A-mediated actin depolymerization attenuated *P.*
aeruginosa infection by up to 60-fold (Kazmierczak *et al*, 2004). CDC-42 upregulation
and activation have been reported in polarized MDCK cells (Kazmierczak *et al*, 2004).
While *P. aeruginosa* infection in *C. elegans* enterocytes led to cytoplasmic
accumulation of CDC-42, ARP-2/3 and actin, we suspect the accumulated CDC-42
and ARP-2/3 pools to be largely inactive, given that the cytoplasmic actin is primarily
G-actin. In mammals, RHO-mediated actin regulation and homeostasis are monitored
by pyrin- and NOD-dependent pathways, but no equivalent surveillance has been
reported in *C. elegans* (Mostowy & Shenoy, 2015). Although cytoplasmic actin
accumulation correlated with infection, it did not directly cause deformation. Whether
it may be sensed as a pattern of pathogenesis remains to be addressed. Moreover,
MAPK signalling remained intact in *cdc-42(RNAi)* animals following infection,
indicating that CDC-42 depletion does not impair microbial sensing.

P. aeruginosa is generally considered as an extracellular pathogen and its intracellular
lifestyle is usually associated with tissue injury. While *P. aeruginosa* has been shown
to infiltrate the cytoplasmic space in many host systems, we have not observed
epithelial breach in our experiments in the *C. elegans* intestine. The *C. elegans*
epithelium, similar to a fully confluent monolayer of polarized MDCK cells*,* is refractory
to intracellular *P. aeruginosa* infection. The surface deformation phenotype could,
however, be recapitulated by exposure to cell-free supernatant from *P. aeruginosa*
cultures but not by heat-killed bacteria suggested the role of a heat-labile factor. Given
the extracellular lifestyle of *P. aeruginosa* in polarized epithelia, extracellular
membrane vesicles (OMVs) rich in surface components, quorum-sensing molecules,
toxins and other virulence factors, are plausible mediators of deformation signal
(Bauman & Kuehn, 2009, 2006; Kuehn & Kesty, 2005; Mashburn & Whiteley, 2005).
Thus extracellular *P. aeruginosa* exploits PI3K-AKT activation to perturb ARP-2/3-
mediated actin organization, leading to the loss of apical polarity and cytoskeletal
integrity in *C. elegans* enterocytes. Our findings reveal an evolutionarily conserved
strategy by which *P. aeruginosa* subverts actin regulation during extracellular infection.
We speculate that pathogen-mediated disruption of polarity impairs apically directed

transport and secretion of antimicrobial peptides, and surface-binding lectins. An

attenuated antimicrobial response could allow bacterial proliferation in the lumen and

a rapid spreading of the bacteria in the population.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**:** D.A.N and A.P conceived the project. D.A.N, T.S and A.P designed the
experiments. D.A.N and T.S performed experiments. D.A.N and T.S analysed the data with input from
A.P. A.P wrote the manuscript with input from D.A.N and T.S.

Figure 1: *P. aeruginosa* infection deforms the apical surface of intestinal

epithelium in *C. elegans*

(A) Schematic illustration of *C. elegans* intestinal epithelium depicting different regions of the

enterocyte.

(B) Representative Kaplan-Meier survival plot of N2 worms infected with *P. aeruginosa* (PA14-

magenta) or *E. coli* (OP50-grey) at 25⁰ C. (n = 100 worms, N=2)

(C) Medial confocal sections of *C. elegans* intestines expressing mCherry::ACT-5 localized to

apical surface. While lumen distension increases with age in animals exposed to with *P.*

aeruginosa or *E. coli* (red double headed arrows), intestinal surface deformation is seen only

upon exposure to with *P. aeruginosa* (red filled arrowheads), but not *E. coli* (blue ROI; blue

filled arrowheads). with *P. aeruginosa* infection also led to actin vesicles budding of apical

surface (Red ROI; red arrows).

(D) Bar graphs showing increased percentage of intestinal deformation with increase in the

duration of exposure to with *P. aeruginosa*.

(E) Schematic showing the estimation of deformation index (δ^{apical}) of apical surface

(F) Representative violin plot showing quantification of deformation index of apical surface

shown in Fig.1C. (N=3; n= 10 worms per treatment per set).

(G) Plot showing progressive deformation of apical surface of intestinal lumen from individual

worms measured over 3 days following *P. aeruginosa* or *E. coli* exposure. (n=5)

(H) Medial confocal images of *C. elegans* expressing fluorescently labelled apical markers

upon exposure to *P. aeruginosa* or *E. coli*. ERM-1::eGFP (apical regions containing microvilli),

PAR-6::mNeonGreen (apical PAR polarity complex), IFB-2::wScarlet (intermediate filaments),

PGP-1::GFP (apical plasma membrane).

Scale bar is 20 μm. P-values were calculated by Mann-Whitney U test. ****p<0.0001, ***p

<0.001, and * p <0.05

Figure 2: Exposure to *P. aeruginosa* results in cytoplasmic mis-localization of CDC-42, ARX-2 and ACT-5

(A) RNAi mediated depletion of *cdc-42*, but not *rho-1 or ced-10* rescues the *PA-14* induced intestinal deformation. Red filled arrowheads arrow heads show deformed regions of the lumen, while red open arrow heads denote the smooth intestinal lumen surface in *cdc-42(RNAi)* worms.

(B) Quantification showing reduced deformation index of intestines in *cdc-42(RNAi)* worms compared to L4440 (control) upon *P. aeruginosa* exposure for two days*.* Measurements are plotted as violin plot indicating median and interquartile of each data set. (N = 3; n=27))

(C) Representative Kaplan-Meier survival plot of *cdc-42(RNAi)* or L4440 (control) worms subjected to *P. aeruginosa* or *E. coli* infection. CDC-42 depletion partially rescues *P. aeruginosa* induced shortening of lifespan (TD50$^{cdc42(RNAi)}$ = 8 days, TD50^{control} = 4 days) (N=2; n= 50 worms per set and per condition)

(D, G and J) Medial cross-sections of intestinal lumen of *C. elegans* expressing (D) CDC-42::GFP, (G) ARX-2::TagRFP, and (J) mCherry::ACT-5 following exposure to *E. coli* or *P. aeruginosa*. Images shown are pseudo-colored to highlight changes in the intensity. Warm colors represent higher intensity and lower intensity by the dimmer colors. Cyan arrows indicate the cytoplasmic enrichment of these proteins in animals infected with *P. aeruginosa*. Where visible, nuclei of the intestinal cells are marked with letter 'n'. Scale bar -20 μm.

(E and F) Violin plots showing cytoplasmic (E) and apical (F) intensities of CDC-42::GFP upon *P. aeruginosa* or *E. coli* infection. Measurements are mean ±95% C.I. Each dot represents one animal and the data shown is the cumulation of three independent experiments (N=3; n=33).

(H and I) Violin plots indicating cytoplasmic (E) and apical (F) intensities of ARX-2::TagRFP upon *P. aeruginosa* or *E. coli* infection. Measurements are mean ±95% C.I. Each dot represents individual worm (N=2; n≥21)

(K and L) Violin plots of cytoplasmic (E) and apical (F) intensity measurements of mCherry::ACT-5 upon *P. aeruginosa* or *E. coli* infection. Measurements are mean ±95% C.I. Each dot represents individual worm (N=2; n≥14)

Scale bar is 20 μm. P-values were calculated by Mann-Whitney U test. ****$p<0.0001$, ***$p<0.001$, **$p<0.01$ and * $p<0.05$.

Figure 3: Inhibition of ARP-2/3 dependent actin polymerization prevents *P. aeruginosa* -induced apical surface deformation

(A) Intestinal lumen marked by mCherry::ACT-5 from control and *cdc-42(RNAi)* animals exposed to *P. aeruginosa* or *E. coli*. Red arrowheads indicate rescue of intestinal deformation in *cdc-42(RNAi)* animals.

(B) Cytoplasmic ACT-5 intensity quantified from intestinal epithelium of control and *cdc42(RNAi)* worms, day 2 post infection. Quantifications are mean ±95% C.I. (n ≤ 14).

(C) Confocal images of intestinal epithelium from control and *arx-2(RNAi)* animals co-expressing CDC-42::GFP and ARX-2::tagRFP, and subjected to *E. coli* and *P. aeruginosa* infection. All images are from 2- days post infection. Open red arrows indicate rescue of the intestinal deformation.

(D) Quantification of cytoplasmic CDC-42::GFP in control and *arx-2(RNAi)* animals following 2-day exposure to *P. aeruginosa* or *E. coli*. The violin plot shows the distribution of data with median and interquartile for each data set. p-values n≥8 for all the sets. expect n= 5 for PA14 *arx-2 (RNAi)*.

(E) Violin plot showing apical deformation index quantification for *arx-2(RNAi)* animals exposed to *E. coli* or *P. aeruginosa*. Plot shows the median and interquartile of each data set. (n ≤ 11).

(F) Medial plane image of intestinal lumen co-expressing PGP1::GFP and mCherry::ACT5 subjected to control (L4440) and *arx-2* RNAi followed by *E. coli* and *Pseudomonas* exposure. All the images are from one day post *E. coli* and *Pseudomonas* exposure.

(G) Medial plane image of intestinal lumen co-expressing CDC42::GFP and ARX2::TagRFP subjected to control (L4440, empty vector) and *act-5* RNAi followed by *E. coli* and *Pseudomonas* exposure. All the images are from one day post *E. coli* and *Pseudomonas* exposure. Open red arrow marks represent rescue of the intestinal deformation.

unless otherwise specified, Scale bar is 20 μm. P-values were calculated by Mann-Whitney U test. ****$p<0.0001$, ***$p <0.001$, and * $p <0.05$.

Figure 4: Fragmented ARP-2/3 disrupts actin assembly leading to extracellular vesicle release from apical surface

(A) Intensity visualization of medial confocal images of *C. elegans* intestines expressing ARX-2::TagRFP showing a fragmented distribution of ARX-2 (cyan arrows) on day-2 post *P. aeruginosa* exposure. ARX-2 shows a contiguous localization in worms exposed to *E. coli* (cyan arrowheads). Surface intensity of plots of enlarged ROIs highlights the fragmentation. Scale bar -10 *µ*m.

(B) *C. elegans* co-expressing ARX-2::GFP and mCherry::ACT-5 showing actin structures (yellow arrowheads) permeating into the lumen from ARX-2-free regions (cyan arrows). Scale bar -10 *µ*m.

(C) Lattice light sheet images acquired 2 days post exposure of PA14-GFP or OP50-GFP -fed *C. elegans* expressing intestinal mCherry::ACT5. Images were acquired in 13.3X objective and represented as maximum intensity projection in volume mode. Cyan arrows in enlarged ROI indicate the vesicles emerging from apical surface into the lumen.

(D) Membrane bound actin rich vesicles bud off from intestinal apical surface following 2-day *P. aeruginosa* exposure (cyan arrows in ROI). Enlarged ROI shows vesicles at various stages of budding – (a) initial bulging, (b) bud formation, and (c) released vesicle. An intensity linescan drawn across the extracellular vesicle indicates actin (magenta) surrounded by the apical plasma membrane marked by PGP-1::GFP (green). Scale bar - 5 *µ*m.

(E) LifeACT::mRuby localizes to F-actin in the apical vesicles (cyan arrow) of *C. elegans* intestines exposed to *Pseudomonas*. Scale bar - 10 *µ*m.

P-values were calculated by Mann -Whitney U test. ****$p<0.0001$, ***$p <0.001$, and * $p <0.05$.

Figure 5 : *P. aeruginosa* induced polarity disruption is mediated via PI3K-AKT

kinase pathway

(A) LET-413 shows enhanced accumulation in the apical (yellow arrow) and lateral (yellow

arrowhead) surfaces *C. elegans* enterocytes upon *P. aeruginosa* infection. DLG-1 marks cell

junctions (cyan arrows). Double asterisks shows absence of LET-413 at the apical surface in

intestines of *C. elegans* exposed to *E. coli.*

(B and C) Quantification of (B) apical, and (C) lateral LET413 levels in enterocytes of worms

following *E. coli* (OP50) or *P. aeruginosa* (PA14) infection. Each data point represents

individual worm. Measurements are plotted as violin plot indicating median and interquartile

of each data set. (n=12).

(D) Depletion of AKT-1 and AKT-2, or CDC-42 rescues *P. aeruginosa* induced loss of polarity.

In contrast to control (L4440; yellow asterisks), apical recruitment of LET-413 in response to

P. aeruginosa infection is absent in *akt-1/akt-2(RNAi)* and *cdc-42(RNAi)* (yellow asterisks)*.*

(E) Disruption of PI3K-AKT pathway abrogates *P. aeruginosa* induced mis-localization of

CDC-42, ARX-2 and actin. Medial confocal plane of intestinal lumen co-expressing CDC-

42::GFP and ARX-2::TagRFP subjected to *akt-1/akt-2 and age-1* RNAi followed by *E. coli* and

Pseudomonas exposure for two days. Closed yellow arrow indicate intestinal deformation.

Yellow asterisks denote rescue of deformation.

(F) Violin plot showing apical deformation index(δ^{apical}) quantification for *akt-1/akt*2 and *age-*

1(RNAi) animals exposed to *E. coli* or *P. aeruginosa* for two days. Plot shows the median and

interquartile of each data set (N =2, n≥22).

Scale bar in 20 *µ*m. P-values were calculated by Mann -Whitney U test. ****p<0.0001, ***p

<0.001, and **p <0.01

Figure 6: Extracellular *P. aeruginosa* can induce intestinal deformation in *C.*
elegans

(A) Confocal medial images of intestinal epithelium from *C. elegans* expressing ACT-
::mCherry and exposed to GFP expressing *E. coli* (top panel), *S. typhymurium* (middle panel)
and *P. aeruginosa* (bottom panel) for 3-days post infection. Dashed lines indicate cross-
sectional plane whose orthogonal view is presented adjacent to the image. Red hollow (*E. coli*
) and yellow (*S. typhimurium)* arrowheads indicate intestinal distension (bloating), but smooth
lumen surface. Red filled arrowheads indicate the deformation of the intestine in worms
infected with *P. aeruginosa*.

(B) Medial confocal images of intestines from *C. elegans* expressing mCherry::ACT-5 animals
grown on heat killed *E. coli* (top panel) and *P. aeruginosa* (bottom panel). Hollow red arrow
indicates the absence of intestinal deformation upon exposure to heat killed *P. aeruginosa*.

(C) Medial confocal section of intestinal epithelium expressing mCherry::ACT5 exposed to 12
h of bacterial supernatant as indicated. Closed red arrows indicates intestinal deformation.

(D) Medial confocal images of intestines from *C.* elegans expressing mCherry::ACT-5
exposed to *E. coli*(OP50) (top panel), *P. aeruginosa* (PA14) (middle panel) and *P. aeruginosa*
(PA14ΔgacA) (bottom panel). Filled red arrows indicates intestinal deformation.

(E) Quantification of deformation index (δ^{apical}) of the apical intestinal surface in C. elegans
expressing intestinal mCherry::ACT-5 exposed to *E. coli*(OP50) ,*P. aeruginosa* (PA14) and *P.*
aeruginosa. Each data point represents individual animal and measurements are plotted as
violin plot indicating median and interquartile of each data set. (n =10)

(F) Kaplan- Meier survival plot of worms described in Fig. 6A upon exposure to *E. coli*(OP50),
P. aeruginosa (PA14) and *GacA* deleted *P. aeruginosa* (PA14*ΔgacA*) . Worms were grown on
E. coli till L4 stage and transferred on to the respective infection plates. (n = 50 worms, N=2)

(G) Schematic of the proposed mechanism for *P. aeruginosa* induced intestinal apical surface
deformation in *C. elegans.*
Scale bar in 20 *µ*m. P-values were calculated by Mann -Whitney U test. ****p<0.0001, ***p
<0.001, and * p <0.05

Graphical Abstract

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