NHR-8 regulated P-glycoproteins uncouple xenobiotic stress resistance from longevity in chemosensory *C. elegans* mutants

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Abstract

Longevity is often associated with stress resistance, but whether they are causally

linked is incompletely understood. Here we investigate chemosensory defective

Caenorhabditis elegans mutants that are long-lived and stress resistant. We find that

mutants in the intraflagellar transport protein gene *osm-3* are completely protected

from tunicamycin-induced ER stress. While *osm-3* lifespan extension is fully dependent

on the key longevity factor DAF-16/FOXO, tunicamycin resistance is not. *osm-3*

mutants are protected from bacterial pathogens, which is fully *pmk-1* p38 MAP kinase

dependent. Transcriptomic analysis revealed enhanced expression of P-glycoprotein

xenobiotic detoxification genes in *osm-3* mutants and chemical inhibition of P-

glycoproteins with verapamil suppressed tunicamycin resistance. Of note, the nuclear

hormone receptor *nhr-8* is necessary and sufficient to regulate P-glycoproteins and

tunicamycin resistance. We thus identify a cell-nonautonomous regulation of

xenobiotic detoxification and show that separate pathways are engaged to mediate

longevity, pathogen resistance, and xenobiotic detoxification in *osm-3* mutants.

Introduction

Chemosensation is a genetically tractable phenotype in various model organisms. In *C. elegans*, many mutants with defective chemosensation have been identified. Sensory phenotypes are complex in nature and many of the classical chemosensory mutants were originally characterized by their behavioral phenotypes. Odr mutants for example have an abnormal odorant response while Osm (osmotic avoidance abnormal) mutants do not avoid high salt environments (Bargmann, 2006). In mutants like *tax-4* and *odr-1*, mutations in components of neuronal G-protein coupled receptor (GPCR) signaling cause atypical chemosensory behavior (Bargmann, 2006). These mutants are not only characterized by a failure to adequately respond to their environment, but show additional phenotypes linked to various life traits including pathogen resistance, increased lifespan and drug detoxification (Gaglia et al., 2012, Apfeld and Kenyon, 1999, Dent et al., 2000). Many chemosensory mutants are long lived and this phenotype depends on the DAF-16/FOXO transcription factor that is regulated by the insulin signaling pathway (Apfeld and Kenyon, 1999).

Beyond mutations in GPCRs, variants in genes involved in the development of amphid sensory neurons can lead to chemosensory defects. One example are mutations in intraflagellar transport (IFT) proteins that prevent full cilia development of amphid sensory neurons (Inglis et al., 2007). Alterations in the IFT genes *osm-3* and *daf-10* physically disrupt the development of neuronal dendrites that project toward the tip of the nose where they are exposed to the outer environment (Inglis et al., 2007). Thus, IFT mutants are usually characterized by defects in the chemical perception of their environment. Further, developmental defects in lumen formation of the amphid head channel in *daf-6* mutants prevent the direct contact of amphid sensory neurons with the outside (Perens and Shaham, 2005).

In wild type (WT) worms, amphid and phasmid sensory neurons can be visualized using the red lipophilic dye DiI, which fluorescently stains them bright red. The dye is passively taken up by sensory neurons when they are fully developed and in contact with the environment. Dye filling defective (Dyf) *C. elegans* are defined by an inability to take up DiI into their sensory neurons (Inglis et al., 2007). The Dyf phenotype arises in *daf-6* animals and also in many IFT mutants. Interestingly, Dyf mutants have unique stress resistance phenotypes that act via different signaling pathways. One such Dyf mutant, *daf-10(m79)*, has a unique resistance to pathogenic bacteria that was proposed to be downstream of sensory input (Gaglia et al., 2012). Further, pairs of amphid head neurons, such as ASH and ASJ that often become disrupted in Dyf mutants help coordinate the innate immune response to bacterial stress after infection (Meisel et al., 2014). Longevity is often associated with activation of physiological stress pathways and has been shown to be regulated by the insulin signaling pathway in Dyf *C. elegans* (Apfeld and Kenyon, 1999).

Conserved mechanisms of longevity and stress resistance have additionally been linked to hyposmia in higher model organisms. In *Drosophila melanogaster*, loss of the putative chemoreceptor *Or83b* has been shown to significantly increase lifespan (Libert et al., 2007). Further, mice with ablated olfactory sensory neurons, have a unique metabolic signature that protects them from high-fat diets (Riera et al., 2017).

While the olfactory machinery is seemingly more complex in higher organisms, *C. elegans* have unique phenotypes associated with the loss or alteration of their sensory neurons. First, unbiased screens for drug resistance have independently identified the Dyf phenotype as a common feature in drug resistant *C. elegans* (Fujii et al., 2004, Menez et al., 2016, Collins et al., 2008). Selection for resistance to the anthelmintic drug ivermectin was shown to enrich for Dyf mutants in several forward genetic screens (Menez et al., 2016, Page, 2018, Dent et al., 2000). Follow up work

identified P-glycoproteins, a class of ATP binding cassette (ABC) transporters, as the

drivers behind ivermectin resistance in Dyf mutants (Ardelli and Prichard, 2013).

Second, some chemosensory mutants, such as *daf-10*, show resistance to pathogenic

bacteria (Gaglia et al., 2012).

Here, we characterize a long-lived Dyf mutant, *osm-3*, that was previously

identified in a forward genetic screen for resistance to the potent ER stressor

tunicamycin (TM). From this screen, we reported the role of the hexosamine

biosynthetic pathway in TM resistance and longevity (Denzel et al., 2014). Our aim

was to uncover the mechanism by which Dyf mutants are resistant to TM.

Characterization of this phenotype demonstrates that TM resistance is independent

from the *osm-3* longevity and pathogen resistance phenotypes. Further, using

transcriptomics and functional analyses, we showed that P-glycoproteins mediate TM

resistance in Dyf animals. In addition, we found that the nuclear hormone receptor *nhr-*

8 mediates *osm-3* drug resistance. Thus, our work highlights drug resistance as a

unique characteristic of Dyf mutants and functionally uncouples it from known stress

response pathways that have been implicated in stress resistance and longevity of

chemosensory mutants.

Results

Dye filling defective *C. elegans* mutants are resistant to TM

TM is commonly used to induce endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress by inhibiting the addition of N-glycans to nascent polypeptides (Parodi, 2000, Heifetz et al., 1979). In *C. elegans*, where the ER machinery is conserved, treatment with TM is toxic and induces the ER unfolded protein response. In fact, on plates containing TM at concentrations above 4 μg/mL, newly hatched larvae die at early developmental stages (Shen et al., 2001). Previously, we had carried out an ethyl methane-sulfonate (EMS) mutagenesis screen to identify TM resistant *C. elegans* (Denzel et al., 2014). The largest cohort of classifiable mutants presented dye filling defects (Dyf) (Figure 1A). Dyf mutants are uniquely characterized by their inability to take up the lipophilic red fluorescent dye DiI in their ciliated amphid neurons (Inglis et al., 2007).

Among the Dyf mutants from the TM resistance screen, we found new alleles of genes previously linked to ciliary development. The mutant allele we selected for our investigation, *osm-3(dh441) IV* (this allele will be referred to as *osm-3),* carries a premature stop in the third exon, which prevents normal cilia development causing the Dyf phenotype (Figure 1A, Supplementary Fig 1A;). *osm-3* is a member of the kinesin family involved in axonal transport and development and mutants are known to show a Dyf phenotype (Inglis et al., 2007). While WT worms fail to develop on TM at concentrations above 4 μg/mL, *osm-3* mutants fully develop at concentrations at least up to 10 μg/mL TM (Figure 1B). Loss of OSM-3*,* as well as other Dyf mutations, promotes longevity in *C. elegans* (Apfeld and Kenyon, 1999). Demographic lifespan analysis of *osm-3* indeed confirmed extended lifespan in our point mutant (Figure 1C and Supplementary Table 1). *osm-3* mutants, and Dyf mutants in general, have never been described as TM resistant especially at concentrations as high as 10 μg/mL.

To further explore whether the Dyf phenotype is linked to TM resistance we

tested other Dyf mutants that were previously described as long lived in the literature

(Apfeld and Kenyon, 1999). To our surprise, all Dyf mutants that we tested proved to

be significantly TM resistant (Figure 1D, 1F). On the other hand, the long-lived

chemosensory mutants *odr-1(n1936) X* and *odr-3(n2150) V* that display no Dyf

phenotype were only slightly TM resistant (Figure 1E, 1F). Our data thus suggest that,

among the larger class of chemosensory defective mutants, TM resistance is

specifically found in Dyf mutants.

A.

B.

C.

D.

E.

F.

	Dye Filling	Tunicamycin Resistant
Wild type	+	-
odr-1(n1936)X	+	-
odr-3(n2150)V	+	-
tax-4(p678)III	+	-
che-11(e1810)V	-	+
daf-6(e1377)X	-	+
daf-10(e1387)V	-	+
osm-1(p808)X	-	+
osm-3(dh441)IV	-	+
osm-6(p811)V	-	+

Figure 1. Dye filling defective *C. elegans* mutants are resistant to TM
A. Red fluorescence and differential interference contract confocal microscopy images of WT and *osm-3(dh441) IV C. elegans* after DiI treatment.
B. TM developmental assay with WT animals and *osm-3(dh441) IV* mutants.
C. Demographic lifespan analysis of WT and *osm-3(dh441) IV* animals. WT mean lifespan = 24 days, *osm-3(dh441) IV* mean lifespan = 29 days, p < 0.0001.
D. TM development assay with WT and *daf-10(e1387) V* mutants
E. TM development assay with WT and *odr-3(n2150) V* mutants
F. Table of dye filling phenotype and TM resistance. In the dye filling column, + is filled and - is Dyf. In the TM resistant column, + is resistant and - is not resistant to 10 μg/mL TM.

ER stress response is blunted in *osm-3* mutants

TM treatment activates the ER unfolded protein response (ER UPR); we thus

characterized the overall transcriptional response of *osm-3* mutants upon TM

treatment. We performed transcriptomic analysis on *osm-3* and WT worms after

6 hours of TM treatment. Notably, the gene ontology (GO) terms related to ER stress

and ER protein folding showed significant upregulation in WT animals but not in *osm-*

3 mutants (Figure 2A). qPCR analysis of UPR target genes further confirmed that there

was no ER UPR induction in the TM-treated *osm-3* mutants compared to the WT

(Supplementary Figure 2). A hallmark of ER UPR induction in *C. elegans* is the

upregulation of the molecular chaperone HSP-4/BiP (Shen et al., 2001). Upon TM

treatment of *osm-3* mutants carrying a *hsp-4*::GFP reporter, there was no significant

increase in the GFP signal compared to the untreated control, while in the WT the GFP

levels were significantly increased (Figure 2A, 2B). This observation corroborates the

results from the transcriptome analysis.

A. TM treated Wild type vs. *osm-3(dh441)IV*

Figure 2. ER stress response is blunted in *osm-3* mutants
A. DAVID gene ontology (GO) terms that are enriched in TM-treated WT compared to TM-treated *osm-3(dh441) IV* worms. Red GO terms are upregulated and blue downregulated.
B. Green fluorescent images of WT and *osm-3(dh441) IV* animals in the *hsp-4*::GFP background after 6 hours of 10 μg/mL TM treatment. Worms are outlined in the images.
C. Biosorter analysis of *osm-3(dh441) IV* vs. WT animals in the *hsp-4*::GFP background after 6 hours of control or TM treatment. Data are mean + SEM, n = 4, *** p<0.0001 by two-way ANOVA.

TM resistance in *osm-3* mutants is not mediated through *daf-16* or PMK-1/p38

MAPK pathway

The lifespan extension observed in chemosensory defective *C. elegans* as well as in *Drosophila* has been shown to be at least partially insulin signaling dependent (Apfeld and Kenyon, 1999, Libert et al., 2007). Therefore, we performed a demographic lifespan analysis to determine the role of the insulin signaling pathway in the lifespan extension of *osm-3* mutants. Indeed, the *osm-3* lifespan extension was fully *daf-16* dependent, as the lifespan of the *osm-3; daf-16* double mutants was identical to the *daf-16* lifespan (Figure 3A and Supplementary Table 1). To our surprise, the *osm-3; daf-16* double mutant was resistant to TM while *daf-16* single mutants do not develop at 10 μg/mL TM (Figure 3B). Further, knock-down of *daf-16* by RNA interference did not rescue the *hsp-4*::GFP response after TM treatment (Figure 3C). Given previous links between the insulin signaling pathway and the ER stress signaling (Henis-Korenblit et al., 2010, Kyriakakis et al., 2017, Matai et al., 2019, Labbadia and Morimoto, 2014), we were surprised to find that *daf-2* mutants failed to develop on 10 μg/mL TM while *osm-3* mutants fully developed (Figure 3D). Together, this evidence suggests that the *osm-3* lifespan extension and TM drug resistance are uncoupled and instead appear to act via independent or parallel pathways.

In *C. elegans, Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PA14 is a pathogen that is often used to study innate immunity. Of note, ER UPR targets have been implicated in the innate immune response of *C. elegans* during PA14 infection (Richardson et al., 2010, Haskins et al., 2008). As the ER thus plays a role in innate immunity and as TM disrupts ER function, we speculated that *osm-3* mutants would be more robust on PA14 than WT. Indeed, *osm-3* mutants were more resistant to PA14 than WT, however this increased pathogen resistance was fully explained by the PMK-1 p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathway (Figure 3E). With this in mind, we tested

185   whether *pmk-1* mutation could suppress the *osm-3* TM resistance. The *osm-3; pmk-1*

186   double mutant was fully resistant to TM, while the *pmk-1* single was fully sensitive

187   (Figure 3F). Taken together, insulin signaling and the MAPK pathway, two major stress

188   response pathways in *C. elegans* that have links to ER protein quality control,

189   seemingly have no impact on *osm-3*'s TM resistance.

Figure 3. TM resistance in *osm-3* mutants is not *daf-16* or *pmk-1* dependent

A. Demographic lifespan analysis of WT, *osm-3(dhh441) IV*, *daf-16(mu86) I* and *osm-3(dh441) IV; daf-16(mu86) I* animals. WT mean lifespan = 22 days, *osm-3(dh441) IV* mean lifespan = 25 days p < 0.005 compared to WT, *daf-16(mu86) I* mean lifespan = 16 days p < 0.0001 compared to WT, *osm-3(dh441) IV; daf-16(mu86) I* mean lifespan = 16 days p < 0.0001 compared to WT.

B. TM developmental assay with WT, *osm-3(dh441) IV*, *daf-16(mu86) I*, and *osm-3(dh441) IV; daf-16(mu86) I* animals.

C. Biosorter analysis of *osm-3(dh441) IV* vs. WT in the *hsp-4*::GFP background raised on control or *daf-16* RNAi plates after 6 hours of control or TM treatment. Data are mean + SEM, n = 4, *** p<0.001 by two-way ANOVA.

D. TM developmental assay with WT, *osm-3(dh441) IV* and *daf-2(e1370) III* animals.

E. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PA14 survival assay with WT, *osm-3(dh441) IV*, *pmk-1(km25) IV*, and *osm-3(dh441) IV; pmk-1(km25) IV* animals. WT mean survival = 44 hours, *osm-3(dh441) IV* mean

survival = 58 hours p <0.001 compared to WT, *pmk-1(km25) IV* mean survival = 31 hours p <0.001 compared to WT, *osm-3(dh441) IV; pmk-1(km25) IV* mean survival = 34 hours p <0.001 compared to WT and p = 0.06 compared to *pmk-1(km25) IV*.

F. TM developmental assay with WT, *osm-3(dh441) IV*, *pmk-1(km25) IV*, and *osm-3(dh441) IV; pmk-1(km25) IV* animals.

P-glycoproteins are significantly enriched in *osm-3* mutants

The unique nature of Dyf drug resistance led us to investigate differences in

overall gene expression under basal conditions. Our transcriptomic analysis revealed

differential expression of P-glycoproteins (PGPs) in unstressed *osm-3* mutants

compared to WT. Specifically, we found that the PGPs *pgp-2*, *pgp-4* and *pgp-14* were

significantly upregulated in *osm-3* (Figure 4A). PGPs are a conserved family of ATP

binding cassette (ABC) transporters found on the cell membrane (Sangster, 1994).

C. elegans have 15 PGP genes. A comparison between control and TM treated WT

and *osm-3* mutants showed no further enrichment of these PGPs upon TM treatment

(Figure 4B). These findings led us to ask whether PGP upregulation is the driver of TM

drug resistance in *C. elegans*.

P glycoprotein inhibition suppresses *osm-3* TM resistance

We tested whether elevated PGP expression might be responsible for the

xenobiotic stress resistance in *osm-3* mutants. The PGP inhibitor verapamil (VPL) has

been used to specifically inhibit PGP activity, re-sensitizing worms to the antihelmintic

compound ivermectin (Menez et al., 2016). Indeed, 1 nM VPL significantly suppressed

development of *osm-3 C. elegans* in the presence of TM, while having no effect on

controls without TM (Figure 4C).

Dyf *C. elegans* mutants have been independently identified in drug resistance

screens (Fujii et al., 2004, Menez et al., 2016, Dent et al., 2000). Consistent with these

findings, we observed that *osm-3* mutants were resistant to 200 nM methyviologen

dichloride (paraquat), as they fully develop at a concentration that is toxic to WT

C. elegans (Figure 4D). Similarly, *osm-3* mutants fully developed to adults in the

presence of 6 μg/mL ivermectin that is lethal to WT (Figure 4E). In contrast, *osm-3*

mutants showed no difference to WT animals in heat stress assays or in the presence

of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) suggesting that *osm-3* mutants are not resistant to non-

xenobiotic stressors (Supplementary Figure 4A, 4B). Together, these observations

suggest that *osm-3* mutants, and potentially Dyf mutants as a group, are significantly

resistant to xenobiotic stress.

Having explained the TM resistance of *osm-3* mutants through PGP dependent

xenobiotic detoxification, we wondered about its role in the longevity of *osm-3* mutants.

Notably, VPL did not shorten *osm-3* lifespan. Moreover, VPL did not affect WT lifespan

(Figure 4F and Supplementary Table 1) and had no visible effect on WT development

(Supplementary Figure 4C). Together, these data support the conclusion that the

xenobiotic stress resistance and longevity phenotypes of *osm-3* mutants are mediated

by fully independent pathways.

Figure 4. P-glycoproteins are significantly enriched in *osm-3* mutants

A. Volcano plot showing the global transcriptional changes in *osm-3(dh441) IV* compared to WT animals; *pgp-2*, *pgp-9* and *pgp-14* are labeled.

B. *pgp-2*, *pgp-9* and *pgp-14* expression levels in control and TM treated animals from transcriptomic data. Data are mean + SD, n = 4, * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.005$ by t-test.

C. Verapamil (VPL) supplementation assay for development on TM using 10 μg/mL TM supplemented with vehicle or 1 nM VPL. Data are mean + SD, n = 3, *** $p < 0.001$ by two-way ANOVA.

D. Paraquat developmental assay of WT and *osm-3(dh441) IV* mutants using 0.2 mM paraquat and a vehicle control. Data are mean + SD, n = 3, *** $p < 0.001$ by two-way ANOVA.

E. Ivermectin developmental assay of WT and *osm-3(dh441) IV* mutants using 6 ng/mL ivermectin and a vehicle control. Data are mean + SD, n = 3, *** $p < 0.001$ by two-way ANOVA.

F. Demographic lifespan analysis on vehicle and VPL treated WT and *osm-3(dh441) IV* worms. Vehicle treated: WT mean lifespan = 19 days; *osm-3(dh441) IV* mean lifespan = 24 days $p < 0.0001$

compared to WT vehicle. VPL treated: WT mean lifespan = 19 days; *osm-3(dh441) IV* mean lifespan = 22 days, p < 0.005 compared to WT Vehicle.

NHR-8 signaling regulates xenobiotic detoxification response through PGPs

The nuclear hormone receptor NHR-8 has been linked to xenobiotic

detoxification and PGP regulation in *C. elegans* (Menez et al., 2019, Lindblom et al.,

2001). Indeed, using quantitative PCR we found that the upregulation of PGP

expression in *osm-3* mutants was suppressed in the *osm-3; nhr-8* double mutant

(Figure 5A). This led us to ask whether *osm-3* TM resistance was dependent on NHR-

8 signaling. Indeed, the *osm-3; nhr-8(hd117) IV* double mutant was not resistant to TM

while the *osm-3* mutant fully developed (Figure 5B), suggesting that NHR-8 is

necessary for *osm-3* TM resistance. We next asked if NHR-8 is sufficient for TM

resistance using a transgenic overexpressor line (Magner et al., 2013). Indeed, we

found that overexpression of *nhr-8* in WT worms results in significant TM resistance

(Figure 5C).

Figure 5. *nhr-8* signaling regulates xenobiotic detoxification response through PGPs
A. Quantitative PCR measuring relative PGP mRNA expression in WT, *osm-3(dh441) IV*, *nhr-8(hd117) IV* and *osm-3(dh441) IV; nhr-8(hd117) IV* animals. Data are mean + SEM, n = 3, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.001, *** p < 0.0001 by two-way ANOVA.
B. TM developmental assay on 10 μg/mL TM and control with WT, *osm-3(dh441) IV*, *nhr-8(hd117) IV* and *osm-3(dh441) IV; nhr-8(hd117) IV* animals. Data are mean + SD, n = 3, * p < 0.05, *** p < 0.0001 by t-test.
C. TM developmental assay with transgenic animals containing an *nhr-8* overexpressing extrachromosomal array dhEx451[*coel::rfp;nhr-8::gfp*]. "-Ex Array" do not visibly contain the extrachromosomal array as judged by the co-injection marker and "+Ex Array" contain the extrachromosomal array. Data are mean + SEM, n = 3, * p<0.05 and *** p < 0.005 by two-way ANOVA.

Discussion

In this study, we found that Dyf mutants are resistant to the ER toxin TM. Instead

of an activated stress signaling status that might explain the TM resistance, *osm-3* Dyf

mutants show no ER UPR induction upon TM treatment. Consistent with previous

findings (Apfeld and Kenyon, 1999) the lifespan extension of *osm-3* was *daf-16*

dependent. Despite the established link between the insulin signaling pathway and

stress resistance, the TM resistance in *osm-3* mutants was not insulin signaling

dependent. Further, while *osm-3* mutants were pathogen resistant, this resistance was

fully dependent on the PMK-1/p38 MAPK pathway. We were surprised that neither of

the two pathways weakened the TM resistance phenotype. Dyf *C. elegans* drug

resistance is not specific to TM, as we also observed resistance to paraquat and

ivermectin. While paraquat and ivermectin resistance have been previously reported

in Dyf mutants (Dent et al., 2000, Fujii et al., 2004, Menez et al., 2016), no studies

have demonstrated similar resistance mechanisms in Dyf *C. elegans* mutants to TM.

Our findings show that this resistance is due to increased PGP expression in Dyf

worms. Importantly, we demonstrate regulation of PGPs by the nuclear hormone

receptor NHR-8. Broad inhibition of PGPs using verapamil or loss of *nhr-8* significantly

resensitized *osm-3* mutants to TM. Consistently, NHR-8 overexpression resulted in TM

resistance in WT animals. These data show that *nhr-8* is necessary and sufficient for

TM resistance.

Given that improved protein homeostasis is one of the cellular hallmarks of

longevity (Lopez-Otin et al., 2013), we presumed that selection for TM resistance

would serve as a proxy phenotype for longevity given that TM specifically targets ER

protein folding. More specifically, we expected that high fidelity ER protein quality

control would be the driver of longevity in these mutants. Previous findings describing

increased hexosamine biosynthetic pathway flux (Denzel et al., 2014) or constitutive

XBP-1 activation (Taylor and Dillin, 2013) have linked protein homeostasis to longevity

and stress resistance; therefore the connection between TM resistance and longevity

seemed apparent. Given that Dyf mutants are resistant to pathogenic bacteria through

enhanced ER homeostasis, we also speculated that TM resistance might serve as a

proxy phenotype for pathogen resistance. On the contrary, we found that increased

PGP expression is sufficient to drive detoxification in TM resistance but not longevity

in *osm-3* mutants. *pmk-1* and *daf-16* were behind pathogen resistance and longevity,

respectively.

Adding another dimension to the cell-nonautonomous regulation of innate

immunity (Aballay, 2013), we propose that the nervous system regulates systemic

xenobiotic detoxification *C. elegans*. Our data suggest that mutants with defective

amphid neurons have increased PGP expression. Several PGPs have been shown to

be expressed in non-neuronal tissue (Lincke et al., 1993, Sheps et al., 2004).

Moreover, we found that PGP expression is regulated by *nhr-8*, which has also been

shown to be expressed in the intestine of *C. elegans* (Magner et al., 2013). Combining

this previous information with our finding that Dyf mutants are resistant to several

uniquely toxic drugs, we conclude that neuronal signaling controls drug resistance

through nuclear hormone signaling. To this end one might further investigate the link

between neuronal states and the cholesterol-derived signal that drives these drug

resistance phenotypes.

PGPs are likely regulated in *C. elegans* to help them combat toxins found in

their natural habitat. Toxic metabolites are undoubtedly common in the soil where

C. elegans are found. The drugs used in our study, ivermectin (a derivative of

avermectin) (Burg et al., 1979) and TM, were first discovered as antibiotics that are

produced by soil bacteria (Takatsuki et al., 1971). Because *C. elegans* have no

adaptive immune response, having PGPs as part of their innate immune system allows

them to clear toxic molecules they may encounter in the wild. While Dyf mutants do

not occur in the wild, our data nonetheless demonstrate a link environmental sensing

and drug resistance.

In humans, PGPs have been implicated in drug resistant malignancies (Lehne,

2000). Using *C. elegans* as a tool to study the cross talk between tissues, one might

be able to better understand how extracellular signaling drives ABC transporter

expression in chemotherapy resistant cancer. Further studies in cell culture might also

further characterize TM, as well as other toxic metabolites, as substrates for *C. elegans*

PGPs.

Materials and Methods

Worm maintenance

C. elegans nematodes were cultured using standard husbandry methods at 20°C on nematode growth media (NGM) agar plates seeded with *E. coli* strain OP50 unless otherwise stated (Brenner, 1974).

Dye filling assay in *C. elegans*

The dye filling assay was performed on a synchronized population of day 1 adults. 40-60 adult worms were placed in M9 containing 10 μg/mL DiI. They were left at room temperature for two hours in the staining medium, then transferred to NGM plates seeded with *E. coli* OP50. The worms were then allowed to crawl on the food for one hour to allow for the dye to be cleared from the gut. The worms were scored for dye filling using a Leica SPX-8 confocal microscope or a Leica fluorescent stereo-microscope. Images were taken using the confocal microscope.

Drug resistance assays

NGM plates containing either TM, paraquat or ivermectin were used in developmental assays to test for resistance. To this end, we performed a 4h egg lay on NGM plates at room temperature then transferred the eggs to control and drug containing plates and recorded the number of eggs per plate. After incubation for four days at 20°C, plates were scored by counting the total number of L4 larvae or adults on each plate. Paraquat plates were prepared by adding 1M methyl viologen dichloride (paraquat) directly onto seeded NGM plates for a final concentration of 200 μM and allowed to dry immediately before use. Ivermectin plates were prepared by adding ivermectin directly to the NGM medium at a final concentration of 6 μg/mL before

329 pouring the plates. Modified NGM plates containing no cholesterol were made by using

330 standard NGM without the addition of cholesterol. These modified NGM plates were

331 then supplemented with drugs as described above. All of the drug development assays

332 were performed using *E. coli* OP50 bacteria.

ER stress quantification by *hsp-4*::GFP

Synchronized day 1 adults were transferred to control and TM containing NGM

plates seeded with OP50. After 6 hours of stress induction *hsp-4*::GFP levels were

measured by large particle flow cytometry in both the WT and *osm-3(dh441)IV*

background using the Union Biometrica Biosorter. For *daf-16* knockdown by RNAi,

animals were raised on control and *daf-16* RNAi. Synchronized day 1 adults were

transferred to control or TM containing plates seeded with control or *daf-16* RNAi. After

6 hours of stress, GFP levels were measured using the Biosorter. GFP values were

normalized to time of flight.

Quantitative PCR

For ER stress induction day 1 adults were washed from their plates and

transferred to either control or TM containing plates, where they were incubated for 6h.

The animals were then washed off using M9 and snap frozen in trizol. Unstressed

synchronized animals were collected at day 1 of adult hood for RNA extraction. RNA

was prepared using Zymo Research Direct-zol RNA Microprep kit. SYBR green was

used to perform quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR). See Supplementary Materials for list of

qPCR primers used in this study.

Lifespan analysis

Adult lifespan analysis was performed at 20°C on mutant and WT *C. elegans*. The animals were synchronized in a four-hour egg lay. Animals were scored as dead or alive every second day until the end of the experiment. Animals were transferred every day for the first seven days. Statistical analysis on the Kaplan-Meier survival curves was performed using Microsoft Excel. See Supplementary Materials for lifespan statistics.

Hydrogen peroxide survival assay

1M hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) was added to unseeded NGM plates to a final concentration of 1 μM and allowed to dry for several minutes. Synchronized day one adults were then transferred onto the plates and incubated at 25°C. The animals were then scored every 2 hours for survival.

Pathogenic bacteria survival assay

The *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain PA14 was grown in LB media and seeded onto high peptone NGM plates and incubated for 12 hours at 37°C immediately before the start of the experiment. Day one animals were first transferred to unseeded NGM plates to crawl around the plate and remove any excess *E. coli* OP50 off of their bodies. They were then transferred to the PA14 containing plates and incubated at 25°C. The animals were scored every 12 hours until all animals were dead.

Heat stress survival assay

Day 1 synchronized *C. elegans* were transferred to fresh NGM plates seeded with *E. coli* OP50. These plates were transferred to a 35°C incubator, where they were

evenly distributed throughout the incubator to ensure even heat exposure. The plates

were scored for live worms every 2 hours until all of the worms were dead.

Sample collection and RNA purification for sequencing

For RNA sequencing we used day one adults that were hatched within one hour.

To achieve this synchronization, we washed all adults and larvae of plates with M9 and

allowed the eggs on hatch for one hour. The freshly hatched L1 larvae were then

washed off and transferred to fresh plates seeded with OP50 and incubated at 20°C

until they developed to adults. At day one of adulthood, animals were washed from

their plates and transferred to either control or TM containing plates, where they were

incubated for 6 hours. The animals were then washed off using M9 and snap frozen in

trizol. All biological replicates were collected and prepared using a snaking collection

method to reduce batch effects. Total RNA was purified using Zymo Research Direct-

zol RNA Microprep kit.

RNA-seq library preparation

RNA quality was assessed using Agilent's Bioanalyzer platform, and samples

with RIN > 9 were used for library construction. 2.5 µg of total RNA was subjected to

ribosomal RNA (rRNA) depletion using the Illumina's Ribo-zero Gold kit (Illumina),

according to the manufacturer's protocol. Strand specific RNA-seq libraries were then

constructed using the SMARTer Stranded RNA-Seq HT Kit (Clontech #634839),

according to the manufacturer's protocol. Based on rRNA-depleted input amount, 15

cycles of amplification were performed to generate RNA-seq libraries. Paired-end

150 bp reads were sent for sequencing on the Illumina HiSeq-Xten platform at the

Novogene Corporation (USA). The resulting data was then analyzed with a

standardized RNA-seq data analysis pipeline (described below).

RNA-seq analysis pipeline

cDNA sequences of worm genes were obtained through ENSEMBL Biomart for

the WBCel235 build of the *C. elegans* genome (Ensemble release v94; accessed

2018-12-03). Trimmed reads were mapped to this reference using kallisto 0.43.0-1 and

the –fr-stranded option (Bray et al., 2016). All subsequent analyses were performed in

the R statistical software (https://cran.r-project.org/). Read counts were imported into

R, and summarized at the gene level. Differential gene expression was estimated using

the 'DESeq2' R package (DESeq2 1.16.1) [PMID: 25516281]. David analysis (version

6.8) was performed to identify significantly enriched gene ontology terms.

Developmental verapamil (VPL) resistance assay and lifespan analysis

Plates containing 10 μg/mL TM were supplemented with 1 nM VPL by adding

VPL solved in DMSO onto the plates. Plates were allowed to dry for 6h before eggs

were transferred to them to determine developmental resistance to TM. Plates were

then scored after 4 days to determine the relative number of L4 larvae or adults.

Lifespan assays were performed as above, however the animals were transferred to

fresh VPL containing plates every second day for the whole lifespan assay.

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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