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* were significantly protected

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

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

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

dependent while TM resistance was *pmk-1* independent. Inhibition of P-glycoproteins

with verapamil suppressed tunicamycin resistance and expression of P-glycoprotein

xenobiotic detoxification genes was elevated in *osm-3* mutants. The nuclear hormone

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

tunicamycin resistance in a cholesterol-dependent fashion. 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). Follo- 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. We found that the TM resistance of *osm-3*

mutants is independent from its longevity and pathogen resistance phenotypes.

Further, we showed that P-glycoproteins mediate TM resistance in Dyf animals and

we found that the nuclear hormone receptor *nhr-8* mediates *osm-3* drug resistance.

The "Green Theory" of ageing proposes that the accumulation of toxic endo- and

xenobiotic debris contributes to physiological decline with age (Afschar et al., 2016,

Gems and McElwee, 2005). 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 and longlived *C. elegans* mutants (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 eighth exon, which prevents normal cilia development causing the Dyf phenotype (Figure 1A, Figure 1-figure supplement 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, promote 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 at the WT lethal dose of 10 μg/mL TM (Figure 1D,F). In

contrast, 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,F, Figure 1-figure

supplement 1B-J). Our data thus suggest phenotypic differences regarding TM

resistance among the larger class of chemosensory defective mutants.

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

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

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

treatment. We performed transcriptomic analyses 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 UPR^{ER} induction in the TM-treated *osm-3* mutants compared to the WT

(Figure 2-figure supplement 1). A hallmark of UPR^{ER} 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 an *hsp-4*::GFP reporter construct, 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 2B,C). This observation

corroborates the results from the transcriptome analysis.

One potential explanation for a suppressed UPR^{ER} response in *osm-3* mutants might

be a general defect in the stress signaling pathway. To address this possibility, we

sought to activate the UPR by alternate means. The ER membrane protein SEL-

1/HRD3 is a cofactor of the HRD1 ubiquitin ligase complex involved in ER-associated

degradation (ERAD)(Hampton et al., 1996). Using *sel-1* RNAi to inhibit ERAD, we

observed a robust activation of the *hsp-4*::GFP reporter, suggesting a functional

UPR^{ER} response upon ER stress (Figure 2D,E). We further used DTT treatment to

induce ER stress and found normal levels of *hsp-4*::GFP induction and *xbp-1* splicing

(Figure 2F) in *osm-3* mutants. Together, these observations rule out that the reduced

response to TM observed in *osm-3* mutants was due to a defect in UPR signaling.

TM resistance in *osm-3* mutants is independent from *daf-16* or the 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, 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). A previous study by Henis-Korenblit et al. had shown

elevated *hsp-4*::GFP levels during *daf-16* knockdown in a *daf-2* mutant (Henis-

Korenblit et al., 2010). We therefore asked whether the knockdown of *daf-16* would

sensitize *osm-3* mutants to TM. Interestingly, knock-down of *daf-16* by RNAi did not

rescue the *hsp-4*::GFP response after TM treatment (Figure 3-figure supplement 1).

Given the 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 further surprised to find that *daf-2* mutants failed to develop

on 10 μg/mL TM while *osm-3* mutants fully developed (Figure 3C). 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, UPR[ER] 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 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 suppressed by loss of the PMK-1 p38 mitogen-activated

protein kinase (MAPK) pathway (Figure 3D). With this in mind, we tested whether *pmk-*

1 mutation could suppress the *osm-3* TM resistance. The *osm-3; pmk-1* double mutant

was fully resistant to TM, while the *pmk-1* single was sensitive (Figure 3E). Taken

together, insulin signaling and the MAPK pathway, two major stress response

pathways in *C. elegans* that have links to ER protein quality control, are not required

for TM resistance in *osm-3* mutants.

P glycoprotein inhibition suppresses *osm-3* TM resistance

Given the lack of ER stress in TM-treated *osm-3* mutants along with the genetic

separation of TM resistance from insulin or MAPK signaling, we hypothesized that TM

might be cleared from worm tissues through xenobiotic detoxification. To test this, we

used verapamil (VPL) to inhibit P-glycoproteins (PGPs) that secrete toxins. PGPs are

a conserved family of ATP binding cassette (ABC) transporters found on the cell

membrane (Sangster, 1994) and *C. elegans* have 15 PGP genes. 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 4A).

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 4B). Similarly, *osm-3* mutants fully developed to adults in the presence of

6 μg/mL ivermectin that is lethal to WT animals (Figure 4C). 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 (Figure 4-figure supplement 1A,B). While paraquat and hydrogen

peroxide are both oxidative stressors, paraquat acts indirectly via the mitochondria

(Castello et al., 2007) while hydrogen peroxide is a primary cause for oxidative

damage. Thus, we view paraquat as a xenobiotic stressor. Given the involvement of

PGP-dependent xenobiotic detoxification in TM resistance of *osm-3* mutants , we

wondered about its role in the longevity of *osm-3* mutants. Notably, VPL did not shorten

osm-3 lifespan (Figure 4D). Moreover, VPL did not affect WT lifespan (Figure 4D and

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

supplement 1C). Together, these data support the conclusion that the xenobiotic stress

resistance and longevity phenotypes of *osm-3* mutants are mediated by independent

pathways.

NHR-8 signaling regulates xenobiotic detoxification response through PGPs

VPL treatment suggested a role for PGPs in the TM resistance of *osm-3* mutants.

Using quantitative PCR we found a significant upregulation of *pgp-3*, *pgp-5*, *pgp-8*,

pgp-11, and *pgp-13* in *osm-3* mutants (Figure 5A). 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, 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 was sufficient for TM

resistance using a transgenic overexpressor (Magner et al., 2013). Of note, we found

a significant upregulation of *pgp-8* in *nhr-8* transgenic animals (Figure 5C). In a

developmental TM dose response assay, we found that overexpression of *nhr-8* in WT

worms results in significant TM resistance (Figure 5D). Characterization of UPR^{ER}

signaling using the *hsp-4::*GFP reporter showed that *pgp-8* RNAi sensitizes *osm-3*

mutants to TM. This experiment was done at 20 μg/mL TM to induce a mild ER stress

in *osm-3* mutants. Together, these data suggest that TM stress resistance in *osm-3*

mutants is due to effective xenobiotic detoxification that is mediated by NHR-8 and

PGPs. Consistent with previous studies (Magner et al., 2013), we found that *nhr-8*

mutation shortened lifespan and that it, likewise, shortened *osm-3* survival (Figure 5-

figure supplement 1).

Sterol signals modulate TM resistance

We next wanted to further understand the systemic signals that control xenobiotic

detoxification of TM. The NHR-8 ligand remains unknown, but is likely a sterol molecule

derived from cholesterol metabolism (Magner et al., 2013). We thus tested the role of

cholesterol in TM resistance and found that omitting cholesterol from the culture plate

for one generation leads to TM hypersensitivity in both WT and *osm-3* animals

(Figure 6A). Developmental cholesterol dose response assays in the presence of TM

confirmed that WT TM resistance is cholesterol dependent (Figure 6B). In *nhr-8* and

osm-3; nhr-8 double mutants, however, cholesterol treatment failed to protect from TM

developmental toxicity. This demonstrates a key role of NHR-8 in mediating TM

resistance downstream from sterol signals. To corroborate a role of cholesterol derived

signals in TM resistance, we used the *hsp-4*::GFP reporter and found that high

cholesterol significantly reduced TM-induced ER stress (Figure 6C). Consistent with

this, *pgp-8* was upregulated by high cholesterol treatment (Figure 6D). These

observations suggest cell-nonautonomous regulation of xenobiotic detoxification of TM

by cholesterol-derived ligands that enhance PGP expression via NHR-8.

Discussion

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In this study, we found that *osm-3* mutants as well as other 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 UPR^{ER} 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

cholesterol and the nuclear hormone receptor NHR-8. Broad inhibition of PGPs using

verapamil or loss of *nhr-8* significantly re-sensitized *osm-3* mutants to TM.

Consistently, NHR-8 overexpression or high cholesterol treatment resulted in TM

resistance in WT animals.

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 (Denzel and Antebi, 2015); 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 xenobiotic detoxification via PGPs is sufficient for TM resistance but not

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

and longevity, respectively. Whether the longevity phenotype of *osm-3* mutants would

be suppressed by *nhr-8* disruption is difficult to assess as *nhr-8* mutants themselves

show decreased survival (Magner et al., 2013).

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*, likely through a sterol ligand. 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. Given our observation that

supplementation with cholesterol is itself sufficient for TM resistance in WT worms one

might further investigate the link between neuronal states and the specific 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

Key Resources Table				
Reagent type (species) or resource	**Designation**	**Source or reference**	**Identifiers**	**Additional information**
strain, strain background (*E. coli*)	HT115 [*L4440::sel-1*]	Source Bioscience	CELE_F45D3.5	Ahringer RNAi library
strain, strain background (*E. coli*)	HT115 [*L4440::daf-16*]	Source Bioscience	CELE_R13H8.1	Ahringer RNAi library
strain, strain background (*E. coli*)	HT115 [*L4440::pgp-8*]	Source Bioscience	CELE_T21E8.3	Ahringer RNAi library
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*osm-3(dh441)IV*	other	AA1962	available from A. Antebi or M.S. Denzel
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*daf-16(mu86)I*	CGC	CF1038	
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*pmk-1(km25)IV*	CGC	KU25	
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*osm-3(dh441)IV; nhr-8(hd117)IV*	this paper	MSD420	available from M.S. Denzel
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*osm-3(dh441)IV; daf-16(mu86)I*	this paper	MSD422	available from M.S. Denzel

genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*osm-3(dh441)IV; pmk-1(km25)IV*	this paper	MSD423	available from M.S. Denzel
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*daf-6(e1377)X*	CGC	CB1377	
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*odr-1(n1936)X*	CGC	CX2065	
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*odr-3(n2150)V*	CGC	CX2205	
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*osm-6(p811)V*	CGC	PR811	
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*tax-4(p678)III*	CGC	PR678	
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*nhr-8(hd117)IV*	other	AA968	available from A. Antebi or M.S. Denzel
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*N2; dhEx451(nhr-8::gfp; coel::RFP)*	CGC	AA1027	
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*osm-3(dh441)IV; zcIs4 [hsp-4::GFP]V*	other	AA2774	available from A. Antebi or M.S. Denzel
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*zcIs4[hsp-4::GFP]V*	CGC	SJ4005	
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*che-11(e1810)V*	CGC	CB3330	

genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*daf-10(e1387)IV*	CGC	CB1387	
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*osm-1(p808)X*	CGC	PR808	
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*dyf-1(mn335)I*	CGC	SP1205	
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*che-2(e1033)X*	CGC	CB1033	
genetic reagent (*C. elegans*)	*osm-5(p813)X*	CGC	PR813	
commercial assay or kit	Direct-zol RNA Microprep	Zymo Research	R2060	
commercial assay or kit	SMARTer Stranded RNA-Seq HT Kit	Takara	634838	
commercial assay or kit	Ribo-zero Gold kit	Illumina	MRZG12324	
chemical compound, drug	Tunicamycin	Calbiochem	CAS 11089-65-9	
chemical compound, drug	Dithiothreitol	Sigma Aldrich	CAS 3483-12-3	
chemical compound, drug	Methyl viologen dichloride hydrate	Sigma Aldrich	CAS 75365-73-0	Paraquat
chemical compound, drug	Ivermectin	Sigma Aldrich	CAS 70288-86-7	
chemical compound, drug	Verapamil hydrochloride	Sigma Aldrich	CAS 152-11-4	

chemical compound, drug	Cholesterol	Sigma Aldrich	CAS 57-88-5	
chemical compound, drug	1,1′-Dioctadecyl-3,3,3′,3′-tetramethylindocarbocyanine perchlorate	Sigma Aldrich	CAS 41085-99-8	DiI
software, algorithm	R statistical software	cran.r-project.org	DESeq2 1.16.1	PMID: 25516281
other	Reference Genome	ENSEMBL	WBCel235	

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 pouring the plates.

Modified NGM plates containing no cholesterol were made by using standard NGM

without the addition of cholesterol. NGM agar plates containing 5, 25 or 50 μg/mL

Cholesterol were used for development when specifically stated. These modified NGM

plates were then supplemented with drugs as described above. All of the drug

development assays were performed using *E. coli* OP50 or *E. coli* HT115 bacteria. For

the developmental TM dose response assay with the *nhr-8* transgenic dhEx451 strain

in Figure 5D, the transgene transmission rate was reported on a separate plate for

each condition that was then used for the calculation of the successfully developed

proportion of animals.

ER stress quantification

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 and imaged using a Leica fluorescent stereo-

microscope. For RNAi experiments, animals were raised on control and *daf-16*, *sel-1*

or *pgp-8* RNAi. Synchronized day 1 adults were transferred to vehicle or TM containing

plates seeded with control or experimental RNAi. After 6 hours of stress, GFP levels

were measured using the Biosorter. GFP values were normalized to time of flight. At

least 100 animals were analyzed per condition. For RNA isolation, day 1 adults were

treated with 10 mM DTT in S Basal buffer containing *E. coli* OP50 for 2 hours and then

snap frozen.

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 Table 2 for list of qPCR primers used in this study. Primer efficiency was tested and was always above 90%.

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 Table 1 for lifespan statistics. Each survival experiment was performed at least twice.

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. 20 to 50 animals were used in each experimental condition.

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

411 plates to crawl around the plate and remove any excess *E. coli* OP50 off of their bodies.

412 They were then transferred to the PA14 containing plates and incubated at 25°C. The

413 animals were scored every 12 hours until all animals were dead. At least 75 animals

414 were used in each experimental condition.

Heat stress survival assay

416 Day 1 synchronized *C. elegans* were transferred to fresh NGM plates seeded with *E.*

417 *coli* OP50. These plates were transferred to a 35°C incubator, where they were evenly

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

419 scored for live worms every 2 hours until all of the worms were dead. 20 to 50 animals

420 were used in each experimental condition.

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

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

434 > 9 were used for library construction. 2.5 µg of total RNA was subjected to ribosomal

435 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) (Love et al., 2014). 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. 20 to 50 animals were

used in each experimental condition.

Data availability

Raw sequencing data were deposited to the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO)

under the accession number GSE144675.

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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593

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Dye filling defective *C. elegans* mutants are resistant to tunicamycin
A. Red fluorescence and differential interference contract confocal microscopy images of WT and *osm-3(dh441)IV C. elegans* after DiI treatment.
B. Developmental tunicamycin (TM) resistance assay using the indicated concentrations 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. Developmental TM resistance assay with WT and *daf-10(e1387)V* mutants.
E. Developmental TM resistance assay with WT and *odr-3(n2150)V* mutants.
F. Table of dye filling phenotype and TM resistance. In the dye filling column, + is positive for DiI filling as in Figure 1A and - is Dyf. In the TM resistant column, + is resistant and - is not resistant to 10 µg/mL TM.

Figure 1 Supplement 1
A. *osm-3(dh441)IV* has a C to T mutation at position 3796925 of exon 8.
B – J. Developmental TM resistance assay with WT, *odr-1(n1936)X*, *tax-4(p678)III*, *che-11(e1810)V*, *daf-10(e1387)V*, *osm-1(p808)X, osm-6(p811)V, dyf-1(mn335)I*, *che-2(e1033)X* and *osm-5(p813)X* mutants.

Figure 2. Tunicamycin-induced 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 = upregulated and blue = downregulated.
B. Green fluorescent images of WT and *osm-3(dh441)IV* animals in the *hsp-4*::GFP reporter 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.
D. Green fluorescent images of WT and *osm-3(dh441)IV* animals in the *hsp-4*::GFP background after development on control or *sel-1* RNAi. Worms are outlined in the images.
E. Biosorter analysis of *osm-3(dh441)IV* vs. WT animals in the *hsp-4*::GFP background raised on control or *sel-1* RNAi. Data are mean +SEM, n=3, ** p<0.005 *** p<0.0001 by two-way ANOVA.
F. Quantitative PCR measuring relative *hsp-4* and spliced and unspliced *xbp-1* mRNA levels in WT and *osm-3(dh441)IV animals* after 2 hours of 10 mM DTT treatment. Data are mean +SEM, n=3, * p<0.05, ** p<0.001, *** p<0.0001 by two-way ANOVA.

Figure 2 Supplement 1
A. Quantitative PCR measuring relative mRNA expression of indicated genes in WT animals and *osm-3(dh441)IV* mutants after 6 hours of vehicle or TM treatment.

Figure 3. Tunicamycin 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. Developmental resistance assay using 10 μg/mL TM with WT, *osm-3(dh441) IV*, *daf-16(mu86) I*, and *osm-3(dh441) IV; daf-16(mu86) I* animals.

C. Developmental resistance assay using 10 μg/mL TM with WT, *osm-3(dh441) IV* and *daf-2(e1370) III* animals.

D. *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*.

E. Developmental resistance assay using 10 μg/mL TM with WT, *osm-3(dh441)IV*, *pmk-1(km25)IV*, and *osm-3(dh441)IV; pmk-1(km25)IV* animals.

Figure 3 Supplement 1

A. Biosorter analysis of *osm-3(dh441)IV* vs. WT animals in the *hsp-4*::GFP background raised on control or *daf-16* RNAi. Data are mean +SEM, n=4, *** p<0.0001 by two-way ANOVA.

Figure 4. P-glycoprotein inhibition suppresses *osm-3* tunicamycin resistance

A. Developmental TM resistance assay using the PGP inhibitor verapamil (VPL) 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.

B. Developmental paraquat resistance assay of WT animals and *osm-3(dh441)IV* mutants using 0.2 mM paraquat and vehicle control. Data are mean +SD, n=3, *** p < 0.001 by two-way ANOVA.

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

D. 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.

Figure 4 Supplement 1

A. Heat shock assay at 35°C in WT and *osm-3(dh441)IV* animals on day 1 of adulthood. WT mean survival = 7 hours, *osm-3(dh441)IV* mean survival = 6 hours, p<0.01

B. Hydrogen peroxide survival assay using 1μM H_2O_2 on day 1 of adulthood in WT and *osm-3(dh441)IV* animals. WT mean survival = 7 hours, *osm-3(dh441)IV* mean survival = 6 hours, no significant difference

C. WT development on 0 to 1μM Verapamil. No significant difference in development.

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. Developmental TM resistance 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. Quantitative PCR measuring relative *pgp-8* mRNA expression in WT and *nhr-8* overexpressing (*nhr-8* OE) extrachromosomal array dhEx451[*coel::rfp;nhr-8::gfp*]. Data are mean +SEM, n=3, * $p<0.05$ by t-test.

D. Developmental dose response TM resistance assay using the indicated TM concentrations 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. At least 100 animals were used in each condition. Transmission rates of the extrachromosomal array was assayed on parallel plates.

E. Biosorter analysis of *osm-3(dh441)IV* in the *hsp-4*::GFP background raised on control or *pgp-8* RNAi after 6 hours of control or 20 μg/mL TM treatment. Data are mean +SEM, n=3, * $p<0.05$, *** $p<0.0001$ by two-way ANOVA.

Figure 5 Supplement 1

A. Demographic lifespan analysis of WT, *osm-3(dh441)IV, nhr-8(hd117)IV* and *osm-3(dh441)IV;nhr-8(hd117)IV* animals. WT mean lifespan = 22 days, *osm-3(dh441)IV* mean lifespan = 24 days $p<0.0001$ compared to WT, *nhr-8(hd117)IV* mean lifespan = *14* $p<0.0001$ compared to WT, *osm-3(dh441)IV;nhr-8(hd117)IV* mean lifespan = 19 days $p<0.0001$ compared to WT.

Figure 6. Sterol signals modulate TM resistance

A. Developmental dose response TM resistance assay using the indicated TM concentrations with WT animals and *osm-3(dh441)IV* mutants raised on 0 or 5 μg/mL cholesterol.

B. Cholesterol dose response developmental assay with WT, *osm-3(dh441)IV*, *nhr-8(hd117)IV* and *osm-3(dh441)IV; nhr-8(hd117)IV* animals on vehicle or 5 μg/mL TM.

C. Biosorter analysis of WT animals with the *hsp-4*::GFP reporter raised on 0 or 50 μg/mL cholesterol after 6 hours of vehicle or 5 μg/mL TM treatment. Data are mean +SEM, n=3, * $p<0.05$, *** $p<0.0001$ by two-way ANOVA.

D. Quantitative PCR measuring relative *pgp-8* mRNA expression in WT animals raised on 0 or 5 μg/mL cholesterol. Data are mean +SEM, n=3, * $p<0.05$ by t-test.

Figure 1. Dye filling defective *C. elegans* mutants are resistant to tunicamycin

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-2(e1033)X	-	+
che-11(e1810)V	-	+
daf-6(e1377)X	-	+
daf-10(e1387)V	-	+
dyf-1(mn335)I	-	+
osm-1(p808)X	-	+
osm-3(dh441)IV	-	+
osm-5(p813)X	-	+
osm-6(p811)V	-	+

Figure 2. Tunicamycin induced ER stress response is blunted in osm-3

Figure 3. Tunicamycin resistance in *osm-3* is not *daf-16*/IIS or *pmk-1* dependent

Figure 4. P-glycoprotein inhibition supresses *osm-3* TM resistance

Figure 5. *nhr-8* signaling regulates xenobiotic detoxification response through PGPs

Figure 6. Sterol signals modulate TM resistance

A.

B.

C.

D.

Supplementary Figure 1.

Supplementary Figure 2.

A.

Supplementary Figure 3.

A.

Supplementary Figure 4.

A.

Survival at 35° C

B.

H$_2$O$_2$ Survival

C.

Wild type development to L4/Adult

Supplementary Figure 5.

A.