

# Virulence

## Pmr-1 gene affects susceptibility of *Caenorhabditis elegans* to *Staphylococcus aureus* infection through glycosylation and stress response pathways alterations.

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Abstract:	<p>Calcium signaling can elicit different pathways involved in an extreme variety of biological processes. Calcium levels must be tightly regulated in a spatial and temporal manner in order to be efficiently and properly utilized in the host physiology. The Ca<sup>2+</sup>-ATPase, encoded by pmr-1 gene, was first identified in yeast and localized to the Golgi and it appears to be involved in calcium homeostasis. PMR-1 function is evolutionary conserved from yeast to human, where mutations in the orthologous gene ATP2C1 cause Hailey-Hailey disease. In this work, we used the <i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i> model system to gain insight into the downstream response elicited by loss of pmr-1 gene. We found that pmr-1 knocked down animals not only showed defects in the oligosaccharide structure of glycoproteins at the cell surface but also were characterized by reduced susceptibility to bacterial infection. Although increased resistance to the infection might be related to lack of regular recognition of <i>C. elegans</i> surface glycoproteins by microbial agents, we provide genetic evidence that pmr-1 interfered nematodes mounted a stronger innate immune response to Gram-positive bacterial infection. Thus, our observations indicate pmr-1 as a candidate gene implicated in mediating the worm's innate immune response.</p>
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Dear Editor,

please find enclosed the manuscript entitled "***Pmr-1* gene affects susceptibility of *Caenorhabditis elegans* to *Staphylococcus aureus* infection through glycosylation and stress response pathways alterations**", to be considered for publication as an Original Research Article in *Virulence*.

The manuscript reports our recent findings on the involvement of *pmr-1* gene, encoding a Ca<sup>2+</sup> ATPase, in glycosylation process and in *C. elegans* resistance to the Gram-positive bacterium *Staphylococcus aureus*.

In particular, *pmr-1* mutant worms, obtained with RNA interference by feeding, showed an increased survival capacity compared to wild-type individuals, following infection of *Staphylococcus aureus* pathogen. This increased resistance seemed to be related to defects in the oligosaccharide structure of glycoproteins of the cell surface caused by their altered glycosylation. The lack of regular recognition of *C. elegans* surface glycoproteins by *S. aureus* could, in fact, determine the difficult adhesion of the bacterium to the nematode and the reduction of its pathogenicity. *Pmr-1* worms also showed increased oxidative stress resistance, a stimulation of innate immunity responses and an altered intestinal glycocalyx, observed by TEM analysis.

Therefore, this study represents a first step in understanding the role of PMR-1 protein in the host-microorganism interaction in *C. elegans*.

We hope this work can be of interest for the journal.

The manuscript has not been submitted for publication elsewhere.

Best regards

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***Pmr-1* gene affects susceptibility of *Caenorhabditis elegans* to *Staphylococcus aureus* infection through glycosylation and stress response pathways alterations.**

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27    **Abstract**

28    Calcium signaling can elicit different pathways involved in an extreme variety of biological  
29    processes. Calcium levels must be tightly regulated in a spatial and temporal manner in order to be  
30    efficiently and properly utilized in the host physiology. The Ca<sup>2+</sup>-ATPase, encoded by *pmr-1* gene,  
31    was first identified in yeast and localized to the Golgi and it appears to be involved in calcium  
32    homeostasis. PMR-1 function is evolutionary conserved from yeast to human, where mutations in  
33    the orthologous gene ATP2C1 cause Hailey-Hailey disease. In this work, we used the  
34    *Caenorhabditis elegans* model system to gain insight into the downstream response elicited by loss  
35    of *pmr-1* gene. We found that *pmr-1* knocked down animals not only showed defects in the  
36    oligosaccharide structure of glycoproteins at the cell surface but also were characterized by reduced  
37    susceptibility to bacterial infection. Although increased resistance to the infection might be related  
38    to lack of regular recognition of *C. elegans* surface glycoproteins by microbial agents, we provide  
39    genetic evidence that *pmr-1* interfered nematodes mounted a stronger innate immune response to  
40    Gram-positive bacterial infection. Thus, our observations indicate *pmr-1* as a candidate gene  
41    implicated in mediating the worm's innate immune response.

43    **Introduction**

44    *Pmr-1* gene encodes a P-type ATPase that regulates Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Mn<sup>2+</sup> homeostasis. PMR-1 is located  
45    in the Golgi apparatus and it is involved in glycosylation, protein sorting and ER-associated protein  
46    degradation in the secretory pathway as demonstrated by studies on the homologous protein of  
47    *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Kluyveromyces lactis* yeasts ( Uccelletti et al., 2005; Durr et al.,  
48    1998; Sorin et al., 1997; Antebi and Fink, 1992). Indeed, a normal concentration of the Ca<sup>2+</sup> ion  
49    inside the Golgi apparatus and the Endoplasmic Reticulum seems to be necessary for the functional  
50    activity of the enzymes involved in N- and O-glycosylation, as well as for a regular secretion of  
51    glycoproteins and a normal degradation associated with the ER of misfolded proteins (Bravo et al.,  
52    2013). In human, mutations on the PMR-1 orthologues ATP2C1, cause Hailey-Hailey-disease

(HHD) (Hu et al., 2000). HHD, is an autosomal dominant skin disorder in which despite the association of mutation of ATP2C1 with the disease, its *in vivo* role remains poorly investigated (Cialfi et al., 2016; Manca et al., 2011; Cialfi et al., 2010). The yeast model has provided important information that can explain how in Hailey-Hailey disease loss of ATP2C1 affects human keratinocytes homeostasis (Ficociello et al., 2018). In yeast, inactivation of *pmr-1* leads to multiple alterations, compatible with the observed defects in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  homeostasis; however, the dysregulation in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{Mn}^{2+}$  signaling is supposed to elicit a plethora of downstream alterations that are posited to have different roles in both the yeast phenotype and in the Hailey-Hailey pathogenesis (Ficociello et al., 2016). Similarly to yeast, in *C. elegans* animal model, PMR-1 is involved in regulation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  handling and plays an essential role during its embryonic development. (Cho et al., 2005; Praitis et al., 2013).

In this work, the anti-pathogen response of nematode in combination with specific mutant worms was exploited as an opportunity at identifying the signaling pathways associated with altered *pmr-1* function. Indeed, the anti-microbial defense mechanism of *C. elegans* involves pathways that, although do not appear to be primarily engaged with microbial infection, can dramatically alter pathogen resistance. For example, glycosylation is a key modification of proteins and lipids and is involved in various important intermolecular interactions, such as cell signal transduction, differentiation and adhesion, leading to the formation of glycan bindings that are essential for cell viability, communication and developmental processes (Helenius and Aebi, 2001). In mammalian gastrointestinal tract, external stimuli can modify the expression of glycosyltransferase enzymes, altering the level of glycosylation and causing either an increase or a reduction of the barrier function against pathogens (Cayuela, 2000). In the gastrointestinal mucus gel, glycosylated proteins can be membrane-bound, creating a glycocalyx, or secreted, sharing an important protection function (Hansson, 2012). Pathogen infection usually involves host cells adhesion, colonization and, in some cases, invasion of tissues. During pathogen colonization, bacteria normally interact with glycan structures of the host glycocalyx (Hooper and Gordon, 2001). This interaction

determines that the glycosylation state of both host and pathogen changes in response to the presence of the other. Thus, the glycosylation state of the host critically determines protection against pathogens. (Parsons et al., 2014; Moran et al., 2011; Pizarro-Cerdá and Cossart, 2006; Schachter, 2004; Cipollo et al., 2002). In addition, to cope with host adhesion, pathogen response in *C. elegans* is closely associated with stress, which evokes highly conserved MAP kinases, involved in aging, DNA damage oxidative stress (Finkel and Holbrook, 2000). In this work, to gain mechanistic insight into the downstream changes due to PMR-1 defects, the impact of *pmr-1* gene knockdown in the glycosylation process and in the response to pathogens was evaluated, using the nematode *C. elegans* as an *in vivo* model system.

88

## 89 **Results**

### 90 ***Pmr-1* silencing altered glycoconjugates and enzymes expression in *C. elegans***

In order to evaluate the effect of the inactivation of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase PMR-1 in *C. elegans* on glycosylation process, the *pmr-1* gene was silenced by feeding RNAi. Real-Time qPCR analysis demonstrated that, after 48 hours of treatment, the gene silencing occurred. Indeed, the levels of *pmr-1* transcript of individuals subjected to RNA interference, normalized for the housekeeping gene *act-1*, were considerably lower (about 70%) than the transcript derived from nematodes treated with the empty vector (Fig. S1). Different lectins were used to characterize cellular surfaces and surface coat of wild type nematodes after RNAi treatment.

The use of lectins allowed us to evaluate the presence of alterations of glycoproteins on *C. elegans* mutant surfaces. With Con-A lectin staining, the fluorescence was considerably less intense throughout the body of the nematode in *pmr-1* worms with respect to control (Fig. 1). The ABA lectin labeling was more evident in the region of the pharynx and gut of *pmr-1* nematodes, compared to control nematodes. Moreover, an altered fluorescent signal was also observed in vulva of *pmr-1* nematodes, when AAA staining was carried out (Fig. 1). On the contrary, no changes were observed when nematodes were treated with UEA or GNA lectin staining (Fig. S2). These data

105 indicate that silencing *pmr-1* gene expression dramatically alters *C. elegans* glycoproteins  
106 abundance and distribution.

107 In order to identify possible alterations in gene expression involved in glycosylation processes, real-  
108 time qPCR analysis was performed for the N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferase *gly-11*, the GDP-  
109 mannose 4,6-dehydratase *gmd-2* and mucin-like *let-653* and *osm-8* transcripts. The results showed  
110 that *pmr-1* silencing induced an increased transcription of *gly-11* and *let-653*, and a reduction in the  
111 mRNA levels for *gmd-2* and *osm-8*, further supporting the involvement of *pmr-1* gene in  
112 glycoconjugates formation (Fig 2).

### 113 ***Pmr-1* suppression in *C. elegans* induced resistance to *Staphylococcus aureus* infection**

114 Glycoconjugates have been implicated in modulation of the nematode response to infection. Since  
115 *pmr-1* mutants showed an altered glycoconjugates pattern, we evaluated the effect of *pmr-1*  
116 silencing to bacterial infections. Toward this aim, RNAi interfered nematodes were exposed to the  
117 Gram-positive pathogen *Staphylococcus aureus* and its effects on worm physiology were evaluated.  
118 We found that *pmr-1* nematodes exhibited an increased lifespan when compared to wild-type  
119 animals. In particular, the median survival was of 7 days in the *pmr-1* worms and 1 day in the  
120 control nematodes (Fig. 3A). *C. elegans* lifespan has been linked to the control of intestinal  
121 bacterial accumulation (Portal-Celhay et al., 2012). Additionally, bacterial colonization and  
122 proliferation in the worm's intestine is considered an important contributor to bacterial virulence  
123 (Darby, 2005). To investigate the relationship between *S. aureus* load and the *pmr-1* worms  
124 increased longevity, we measured the numbers of viable bacteria (Colony Forming Units, CFU)  
125 recovered from infected worms. In the control worms grown in the presence of *S. aureus* by day 2,  
126 when the >50% have died, the intestinal load was  $> 5 \times 10^4$  CFU/worm. In contrast, *pmr-1* worms  
127 had about 60% lower colonization by *S. aureus* (Fig. 3) consistent with their increased lifespans.  
128 Furthermore, to assess the significance of our observations, we investigated how different bacterial  
129 species affect colonization and lifespan of *pmr-1* defective worms. Thus, *pmr-1* worms were  
130 exposed to either Gram-positive pathogen *Enterococcus faecalis* or Gram-negative bacteria

131 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. We found that lifespan of *pmr-1* defective worms exposed to *E. faecalis*  
132 was higher than the wild type control resembling the response of *pmr-1* worms exposed to *S. aureus*  
133 (Fig. 4A). In particular, the median survival was of about 8 days in the *pmr-1* worms and 3 day in  
134 the control nematodes. In contrast, we found that the response to *P. aeruginosa* did not show  
135 significant differences between mutant and control populations (Fig. 4B).

136 Additionally, evaluation of *C. elegans* survival in response to either *Candida albicans* or Gram-  
137 negative *Escherichia coli* ETEC K88 exposure showed a similar lifespan between *pmr-1* and  
138 control worms (Fig. 4C and data not shown, respectively).

139 These observations indicate that defective *pmr-1* function selectively influences signaling pathways  
140 that are specific to Gram-positive bacterial infection.

#### 141 ***Pmr-1* mutant worms showed microvilli surrounded by a dense glycocalyx**

142 In the intestinal tract, carbohydrate-protein interactions have important roles in distinct aspect of the  
143 host-microbe interaction. These interactions regulate host-microbe exchange of nutrient with a  
144 mutual benefit to both organisms (Cabreiro and Gems, 2013). These interactions are also involved  
145 in both pathogen recognition and in the cellular interaction that lead to pathogen neutralization  
146 (Kim 2008). Additionally, microbe-host interaction alters the worm intestinal structure that might  
147 either facilitate or inhibit pathogen recognition and neutralization (Jiang et al., 2018). Thus, to  
148 evaluate possible alterations in the intestinal lumen of *pmr-1* worms and to gain insight into the  
149 mechanisms involved in its resistance to *S. aureus* infection, we imaged *C. elegans* using  
150 transmission electron microscopy (TEM). In 3-days adults, by TEM analysis the intestinal  
151 morphology appears uniform in its size and shape in both *pmr-1* and control worms. Cross and  
152 longitudinal sections revealed intestinal cells linked by adherens junctions at their apical borders.  
153 They form a narrow lumen bordered by dense microvilli and coated along the entire luminal surface  
154 by a dense glycocalyx (Fig. 5a and d) which functions to protect microvilli from physical or toxic  
155 injury. These also serves for enzyme digestive localization and filtration of absorbed components  
156 (Lehane, 1997).



157 After *S. aureus* infection, bacteria were visible in the intestinal lumen of both *pmr-1* and control  
158 worms (Fig. 5b and e). However, in control animals bacteria accumulated in the intestinal lumen  
159 that becomes dilated, displaying shorter microvilli relative to the infected worms (Fig. 5b).  
160 Additionally, in control nematodes dark staining individual bacteria strictly adhered to or were even  
161 embedded into microvilli (Fig. 5b and c), suggesting that they might be responsible of local damage  
162 via degradation of the microvilli, a process already described during aging (Fig. 5b and c).  
163 Differently, the intestinal apical surface of *pmr-1* worms showed the typical dense brush border  
164 constituted of microvilli surrounded by a dense glycocalyx (Fig. 5f). This is consistent with a  
165 protective role of the glycoproteins composing the glycocalyx that, despite the persistent bacterial  
166 infection, might maintain the intestinal lumen integrity and appear to be protected from bacterial  
167 invasion.

#### 168 ***Pmr-1* influenced oxidative stress response before and during infection**

169 In worms exposed to bacterial infection, an antioxidant stress response is required for the survival  
170 of worms, since it provides protection against oxidative stress produced by pathogenic bacteria  
171 (Chávez et al., 2007). In light of the extended lifespan of nematodes infected with *S. aureus*, we  
172 hypothesized that oxidative stress response genes will be upregulated in *pmr-1* worms. The *sod-3*  
173 gene in *C. elegans* encodes the mitochondrial MnSOD isoform 3 of superoxide dismutase. In  
174 nematodes, as in mammals, the SOD family enzymes represent the first line of defense against  
175 oxidative stress, contributing to neutralize reactive oxygen species (ROS) through the reaction that  
176 transforms superoxide ion into hydrogen peroxide and molecular oxygen. Then, hydrogen peroxide  
177 can be neutralized by catalase or glutathione peroxidase, but SOD proteins are the only ones able to  
178 neutralize the superoxide ion (Moreno-Arriola et al, 2014). Thus, expression of *sod-3* gene was  
179 examined using quantitative real-time PCR in control and *pmr-1* worms. The expression of *sod-3*  
180 gene was significantly higher in the *pmr-1* strain compared to control (Fig. 6A). Using a SOD-  
181 3::GFP transgenic strain as a read-out of both SOD-3 protein expression and of antioxidant stress  
182 response activation, we observed a strong induction of the SOD-3::GFP reporter in *pmr-1* worms

(Fig. 6B). Consistently, endogenous ROS level was also decreased upon *pmr-1* treatment (Fig. 6C). As shown in Fig. 6D, fluorescence signal of SOD-3 protein was also increased in response to pathogen exposure both in *pmr-1* and in control worms. Interestingly, when fed with *S. aureus*, ROS levels were robustly reduced in *pmr-1* nematodes compared to control (Fig. 6E). The reduced oxidative stress levels were also consistent with the higher fluorescence signal of SOD-3 protein (Fig. 6E). In *C. elegans*, SKN-1, the orthologue of the mammals NRF2, mainly control the transcription of several enzymes that sustain the detoxification reactions in response to ROS. Consistently, SKN-1 is required for the survival of the worms and provides protection against pathogenic bacteria. (An and Blackwell, 2003). Therefore, we investigated whether the extended lifespan of the *pmr-1* worms fed *S. aureus* was associated with the expression of *skn-1* gene. We observed that SKN-1::GFP transgenic *pmr-1* nematodes constitutively express SKN-1 protein with a higher fluorescence detected at the level of intestinal cell nuclei, as compared to control (Fig. 7A and B). Additionally, SKN-1 expression resulted in significantly increased in the *pmr-1* worms compared to the control worms after *S. aureus* infection (Fig. 7C and D). Therefore, collectively these observations indicate that the life-extending effect of *pmr-1* inhibition might be mediated through activation of an antioxidant response.

#### ***Pmk-1* gene was involved in innate immunity responses mediated by *pmr-1***

In response to infection by pathogens, ROS generation plays a key role in worm innate immunity. However, aberrant upregulation of ROS production can also be detrimental to the host. Thus, ROS levels must be tightly regulated to be efficiently utilized by the host-defense response. In this context, the p38 MAPK family member 1 (PMK-1) appears to be the most commonly evoked factor in the worm's pathogen defense. Loss of *pmk-1* not only had a significant negative effect on pathogen resistance but also negatively contribute to worm lifespan (Ermolaeva and Schumacher, 2014). In this dual activity of *pmk-1*, two parallel downstream pathways work to mediate its effects. *Pmk-1* regulates both the transcriptional activation of the majority of innate immune response genes through ATF-7 and the activation of the antioxidant response through SKN-1. Thus, to investigate

209 the mechanism of the increased lifespan of *pmr-1* worms in response to *S. aureus* infection,  
210 transcriptional levels of *pmk-1* and the related SAPK/ERK (*sek-1*) (Kim et al., 2002; Singh et al.,  
211 2006), were evaluated. In *pmr-1* worms , an increase expression of *pmk-1* transcripts was observed  
212 as compared to control (Fig. 8A). Conversely, *sek-1* transcripts resulted reduced in *pmr-1*  
213 nematodes compared to control animals (Fig. 8B).

214 To determine the overall contribution of both PMK-1 and SEK-1 kinases on worm defense to *S.*  
215 *aureus*, we measured susceptibility to infection in animals lacking expression of either *pmk-1* or  
216 *sek-1* after RNAi-mediated knockdown of *pmr-1*. RNAi-mediated knockdown of *pmr-1* in *sek-1*  
217 mutant strain exhibited reduced susceptibility to *S. aureus* similarly to the wild-type animals treated  
218 with RNAi-*pmr-1* alone (Fig. 8D). Conversely, RNAi-mediated knockdown of *pmr-1* in *pmk-1*  
219 mutant strain, exhibited enhanced susceptibility to the *S. aureus* infection (Fig. 8). An important  
220 requisite of the pathogen defense response is the activation of the endoplasmic reticulum unfolded  
221 protein response (UPR/ER) to ensure tolerance and survival to the infection (Miles et al., 2019).  
222 The protein folding stress response system is regulated by the transcription factor HSF-1, which  
223 inactivation it has been shown to render worms infection sensitive (Douglas et al., 2015). To test  
224 whether HSF-1 is involved in the protection to *S. aureus* infection observed in *pmr-1* animals we  
225 analyzed the effect of *hsf-1* mutation in this context. As shown in Fig. 8, *pmr-1* animals were  
226 characterized by increased *hsf-1* expression. Consistently, *pmr-1* treatment in *hsf-1* mutant strain  
227 were more susceptible to *S. aureus* than control animals (Fig. 8). These results indicate that *pmr-1*  
228 inactivation leads to protection by eliciting multiple antimicrobial defense pathways.

#### 229 ***Pmr-1* silencing enhanced resistance in *C. elegans bus-4* mutants**

230 It has been proposed that pathogens bind to a surface exposed glycan epitope and worm mutants in  
231 either O- and N-glycosylation are resistant to infection due to failure of pathogens to bind to the  
232 host surface (Darby et al., 2007; Cipollo et al., 2004). According to our observations, it seems likely  
233 that *pmr-1* inactivation leads to protection against infection by eliciting multiple antimicrobial  
234 defense pathways. However, it is possible that a PMR-1-dependent signaling is required for the

production or surface exposure of a glycan epitope. In yeast, we and others have shown a dual role of *pmr-1* in the secretory pathway and in N and O-linked glycosylation. Thus, we investigate whether the increased lifespan in *pmr-1* animals could be linked to the altered surface expression of glycans. Towards this aim, we performed RNAi-mediated knockdown of *pmr-1* in animals with loss of function of *bus-4* which encodes a glycosyltransferase (Gravato-nobre et al., 2011). *Bus-4* mutants are resistant to *S. aureus* infection as they not only have changes in O- and N glycans but also marked changes in the expression of the surface glycan peptides *let-653* and *osm-8* (Parson et al . 2014). We found that *bus-4* mutants exhibited reduced susceptibility to *S. aureus* similarly to that of *pmr-1* animals (Fig.9). Interestingly, the double *bus-4/pmr-1* mutants were more resistant to *S. aureus* infection than either the single *bus-4* or *pmr-1* mutant worms (Fig. 9). These observations are therefore consistent with the notion that *pmr-1* knockdown might act on *S. aureus* resistance only in part because of the glycosylation impairment.

## Discussion

PMR-1 has been functionally characterized in yeast; in human, mutations in the orthologous ATP2C1 cause the skin disease Hailey-Hailey. However, despite the fact that essential functions of PMR-1 depend on its ability to regulated the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  homeostasis, the concept of how *pmr-1* influences cell biology remain largely speculative in both yeast and human. Thus, causative pathway and disease mechanisms have yet to be definitively identified. To address the lack of functional evidence, in this study we applied a classical genetic approach to evaluate how depletion of *pmr-1* gene affects the susceptibility of worms to bacterial infection. Anti-pathogen response of nematode in combination with specific mutant worms was used to identify signaling pathways associated with altered *pmr-1* function. We identified two aspects of host-physiology, glycosylation and antimicrobial responses that in *pmr-1* depleted animals were dysregulated. A specific labeling of glycans on the surface of *pmr-1* worms showed an altered pattern of the lectin binding compared to the control worms indicating that *pmr-1* depletion leads to an altered

glycosylation pattern and surface properties. In particular, we found that the fluorescent signal related to the binding of the AAA lectin to the surface glycans was altered with respect to control. The specificity of this lectin for the L-Fuc disaccharide ( $\alpha$ 1,2) Gal may could relates to a different presence of fucosylated surface glycans in *pmr-1* mutants compared to nematodes with normal transcript levels. Fucose residues in the glycan structures are typical of invertebrate organisms. There are divergent opinions on the location of fucose residues in *C. elegans*: fucose could be linked to terminal residues or one or two fucose residues could substitute the N-acetylglucosamine core linked to asparagine (Schachter, 2004). Therefore, defects in glycosylation process could cause alterations of the central nucleus linked to the Asn residue or the terminal stage of the process in which an abnormal addition of fucose residues occurs. Fucose also substitutes Ce Core II O-glycans, which are increased in abundance in *bus-2* and *-4* mutants (Palaima et al., 2010; Parsons et al., 2014). The ABA lectin is specific to the disaccharide Gal ( $\beta$ 1,3) GalNAc, which represents the central nucleus that binds to the Ser/Thr residue in the O-glycans. The signal related to ABA lectin staining was more intense in *pmr-1* nematodes and it was located at the level of the pharynx of worms. This result probably was due to alterations of O-glycans containing this central core, caused by defects in the glycosylation process. The observed alterations in lectin staining correlated to the different expression of genes involved in glycosylation processes, confirming the presence of modifications in glycoconjugates. In particular, *gmd-2* catalyzes the conversion of GDP-Man to GDP-Fuc, involved in the synthesis of fucosyl glycoconjugates (Parsons et al., 2014). The reduction of transcript levels of *gmd-2* in *pmr-1* mutants, were consistent with the weaker fluorescence signal observed in *pmr-1* worms stained with AAA lectin.

Glycoconjugates are involved in the interaction of *C. elegans* with the external environment since they are targets for the adhesion of microorganisms to the cuticle and to the cell surface. Several studies showed the importance of the structure, density and distribution of glycoconjugates in the host-pathogen interaction and in the determination of the susceptibility or resistance of the nematode to bacterial attack (Gravato-Nobre MJ et al., 2011; Palaima et al., 2010). Consistent with

287 an altered glycosylation pattern and surface properties, nematodes subjected to RNAi for *pmr-1*  
 288 gene showed an increased longevity compared to control individuals, upon infection with *S. aureus*.  
 289 The increased resistance to infection was related to the low colonization capability of the Gram-  
 290 positive bacteria observed in *pmr-1* mutants, as compared to control. Intestinal pathogens exploit  
 291 host immune responses to compete with the indigenous microbiota and therefore to colonize gut.  
 292 High colonization capability in *C. elegans* gut, followed by death of the worms, could permit  
 293 bacterial survival, and protection by stress so as to promote environmental spread (Zhang and Hou,  
 294 2013).  
 295 It has been reported that some glycosylation genes in *C. elegans* determine susceptibility to  
 296 pathogens. Indeed, the availability of *C. elegans* mutants for genes involved in the glycosylation of  
 297 extracellular matrix proteins allowed for observation of an increased nematode resistance to the  
 298 infection of the Gram-positive *Microbacterium nematophilum* and to the formation of biofilm by  
 299 the Gram-negative *Yersinia pestis* (Parsons et al., 2014; Palaima et al., 2010; Darby et al., 2007). In  
 300 particular, it was observed that *C. elegans* mutants for the glycosyltransferase *bus-4* gene, resistant  
 301 to the *M. nematophilum*, showed an increase in fucosylated N-glycans and alterations in the central  
 302 core Gal ( $\beta$ 1,3) GalNAc of the O-glycans (Parsons et al., 2014). Moreover, mutations in eight  
 303 *squashed vulva (sqv)* genes in worms cause defects in cytokinesis during embryogenesis and in  
 304 vulva morphogenesis during postembryonic development (Hwang et al., 2003). Mutants in  
 305 glycosyltransferases *bre* genes are resistant to killing by Cry toxins produced by the Gram-positive  
 306 *Bacillus thuringiensis* because they are involved in the synthesis of the receptor for these toxins on  
 307 the intestinal cells surface (Griffitts et al., 2003). Therefore, composition of the glycoproteins on *C.*  
 308 *elegans* cell surface is fundamental for the correct recognition by the receptors of Gram-positive  
 309 bacteria and for the subsequent phases of adhesion and pathogenesis. *S. aureus* produces adhesion  
 310 molecules to the host cells that include the MSCRAMM family (surface microbial components that  
 311 recognize matrix adhesive molecules), capsular polysaccharides and teichoic acids (Speziale et al.,  
 312 2009; Clarke and Foster, 2006). In particular, glycosylation of teichoic acids is involved in

mechanisms of Gram-positive interaction with the host (Winstel et al., 2013). Alterations of the glycosylation process, due to the absence of the functional activity of PMR-1 may cause changes in the structure of glycoproteins exposed on the cell surface. These glycoproteins could be implicated in binding to *S. aureus* receptors; hence, their alteration would compromise the adhesion of the bacterium to the nematode, reducing its ability to infect the host. Consistently, we observed an increased resistance of the *pmr-1* mutant nematodes to *S. aureus*. However, the additive phenotype of the double mutant indicates that the two mutated genes function independently from the other by differentially influencing the expression of surface-exposed glycoconjugates involved in bacterial adhesion colonization or alternatively *pmr-1* plays a role in controlling immune response of *C. elegans* to infections. In line with a model in which *pmr-1* is involved in response to the infection besides its involvement in the surface expression of glycoconjugates, we found the central signaling modules of the antimicrobial response of *C. elegans* to be dysregulated by loss of *pmr-1*. We found that upon *pmr-1* knockdown both PMK1/SKN-1 and PMK1/HSF-1 signaling, which mediate stress and immune responses, were activated (Van Raamsdonk and Hekimi, 2012; Uccelletti et al., 2005). The extended lifespan in *S. aureus*-fed *pmr-1* worms thus might largely depend on the activation of these pathways that contribute to enhance pathogen resistance and longevity. In summary, we found that *pmr-1* is involved in the surface expression of glycoconjugates in *C. elegans*. Furthermore, we discovered that behind its role in the glycosylation process, *pmr-1* function is involved in the control of immune and oxidative stress homeostasis.

## **Material and Methods**

### **Bacterial and fungal strains and growth conditions**

Gram-negative bacteria strains used in experiments were *Escherichia coli* OP50, *E. coli* ETEC K88 and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* ATCC 15692; Gram-positive bacteria were *Staphylococcus aureus* ATCC 25923 and *Enterococcus faecalis* JH 2.2. All the strains were grown in Luria Bertani (LB) broth at 37°C overnight, in agitation. *Candida albicans* ATCC 10231 was tested in experiments of

339 fungal infection and was grown in Yeast Extract-Peptone-Dextrose (YPD) broth at 28°C overnight,  
340 under shaking. After overnight growth, 30 µl of each culture (about  $1 \times 10^8$  cells/mL) was spread  
341 onto respective agar-plates. For *S. aureus* ATCC 25923 and *C. albicans* ATCC 10231, Trypticase  
342 soy agar (TSA) and Brain Heart Infusion (BHI) agar were used, respectively. *E. coli* strains, *E.*  
343 *faecalis* JH 2.2 and *P. aeruginosa* ATCC 15692 were spread on 3.5 cm diameter NGM plates.

#### 344 ***C. elegans* strains and infection assay**

345 Wild type *C. elegans* strain, *pmk-1*(KU25), *sek-1*(AU1), *hsf-1*(PS3551) and *bus-4(e2693)*CB5443  
346 mutant strains and transgenic SOD-3::GFP CF1553 strain were grown on nematode-growth media  
347 (NGM) plates seeded with *E. coli* OP50 at 16°C according to standard procedures (Stiernagle,  
348 2006).

349 RNAi of *pmr-1* was performed by feeding as described previously (George et al., 2014). In RNAi  
350 experiments, the empty vector L4440 *E. coli* HT115 strain was used as the negative control. Then,  
351 synchronized young adult worms, grown on *E. coli* OP50 as described before, were transferred onto  
352 NGM plates seeded with *E. coli* strain HT115 carrying the RNAi clone of *pmr-1* gene.

353 After 48 hours of RNA interference, animals were transferred onto infection plates, as described  
354 above, and grown at 25°C. Animals were monitored daily and scored as dead when they no longer  
355 responded to gentle prodding with a platinum wire.

#### 356 **Estimation of bacterial CFU within the nematode gut**

357 For infection experiments, 10 animals for each sample, after 48h from infection, were washed and  
358 lysed according to (Uccelletti et al., 2010). Whole worm lysates were plated onto LB-agar plates.  
359 The number of CFU was counted after 24 h of incubation at 37°C, aerobically.

#### 360 **Real-Time qPCR**

361 After 48 h from infection, total RNA from 200 worms for each sample was isolated with RNeasy  
362 midi kit (Qiagen) according to manufacturer's instructions and then digested with 2U/µL DNase I  
363 (Ambion). 1 µg of each sample was reverse-transcribed using oligo-dT and enhanced Avian reverse  
364 transcriptase (SIGMA, Cat. Number A4464). For realtime qPCR assay, each well contained 2 µL of



365 cDNA used as template, SensiMix SYBR & Fluorescein Kit purchased from Bioline, and the  
 366 selective primers (200 nM) designed with Primer3 software and reported in Table 1. All samples  
 367 were run in triplicate. Rotor-Gene Q Real-Time (QIAGEN) was used for the analysis. The real-time  
 368 qPCR conditions are described by Zanni et al., (2015). Quantification was performed using a  
 369 comparative CT method (CT = threshold cycle value). Briefly, the differences between the mean CT  
 370 value of each sample and the CT value of the housekeeping gene (*act-1* or *cdc-42*) were calculated:  
 371  $\Delta CT^{\text{sample}} = CT^{\text{sample}} - CT^{\text{act-1}}$ . Final result was determined as  $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$  where  $\Delta\Delta CT = \Delta CT^{\text{sample}} -$   
 372  $\Delta CT^{\text{control}}$ .

### 373 **Analysis of *C. elegans* strain SOD-3::GFP fluorescence**

374 Synchronized transgenic worms were transferred on RNAi NGM plates and then infected, as  
 375 described above. After 48h from RNAi and 24 h or 48h from infection, worms were anesthetized  
 376 and observed as described in Schifano et al., (2019).

### 377 **Measurement of reactive oxygen species (ROS)**

378 ROS formation in *C. elegans* was measured using the fluorescent probe H<sub>2</sub>DCFDA according to  
 379 Schifano et al., (2018).

### 380 **Lectin staining**

381 Lectin staining of live nematodes after 48 h from infection, was performed as described previously  
 382 (Palaima et al., 2010). After fixation, 40 µL of stained worms, were mounted on glass slides and  
 383 observed under a Zeiss Axiovert 25 microscope. Texas Red conjugated *Agaricus bisporus lectin*  
 384 (ABA) and *Anguilla Anguilla lectin* (AAA) and FITC conjugated *Ulex europeus lectin* (UEA),  
 385 *Canavalia ensiformis* (Con-A), *Galanthus nivalis lectin* (GNA), were used in this study. ABA binds  
 386 Gal(β1,3)GalNAc, UEA recognizes α-L-Fucose, Con-A is specific for Man(α1,6)Man(α1,3)Man,  
 387 GNA recognizes Man(α1,3)Man, AAA binds L-Fuc(α1,2)Gal. To assess the fluorescent signal of the  
 388 AAA, ConA and ABA lectins, worms were analysed with an Axio Observer inverted microscope  
 389 equipped with the ApoTome System (Carl Zeiss Inc.), in a series of 1.0 µm sequential sections and  
 390 processed with the AxioVision software (Zeiss). Digital images were obtained from the 2D

391 reconstruction of selected serial optical sections.

## 392 **TEM analysis**

393 For transmission electron microscopy (TEM), nematodes were processed as previously described  
394 (Uccelletti et al., 2008) with some minor differences. Briefly, samples were fixed in 2%  
395 glutaraldehyde in PBS for 24h at 4°C, post-fixed in 1% OsO<sub>4</sub> for 2h, stained for 1h in 1% aqueous  
396 uranyl acetate, and pre-embedded in a thin 10% gelatin gel overnight. Gelatin small blocks were cut  
397 to have worms close to each other. Small pieces were dehydrated with graded acetones and  
398 embedded in Epon-812 (Electron Microscopy Sciences). Semithin sections stained with 1%  
399 methylene blue were used to select suitable areas of ultrastructural sectioning. Uranyl acetate/lead  
400 citrate-stained ultrathin sections were examined with a Philips CM10 and Morgagni 268D  
401 transmission electron microscope (TEM; FEI- Italia srl; Termofisher Scientific).

## 402 **Statistical analysis**

403 The statistical significance was performed by Student's t test or one-way ANOVA analysis coupled  
404 with a Bonferroni post test (GraphPad Prism 5.0 software, GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, CA,  
405 USA). Differences with p values < 0.05 were considered significant and were indicated as follows:  
406 \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, and \*\*\*p<0.001. Experiments were performed at least in triplicate. Data are  
407 presented as mean ± SD.

408

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576 **Legends to figures**

577 **Figure 1. Lectin staining of N2 e *pmr-1* mutant worms.** Nematodes were stained with FITC  
578 conjugated Con-A (a, b, c and d), Texas red conjugated AAA (e, f, g and h) or ABA (i, l, m and n)  
579 lectins after RNAi. Panels a, b, e, f, i and l indicate worms interfered with the empty vector. Panels  
580 c, d, g, h, m and n indicate *pmr-1* mutant worms. *n* = 10 for each sample. Scale bar = 100µm.

581 **Figure S1. RT-qPCR analysis of *pmr-1* gene.** Expression of *pmr-1* mRNA level in N2 worms after  
582 48 h of RNAi, as compared to control interfered with empty vector. Bars represent the mean of  
583 three independent experiments. Asterisks indicate significant differences (\*\*\**p* <0.001).

584 **Figure S2. Lectin staining.** N2 and *pmr-1* nematodes were stained with FITC conjugated GNA and  
585 UEA lectins before infection. *n* = 10 for each sample. Scale bar = 100µm.

586 **Figure 2. RT-qPCR analysis of glycosylation genes.** Expression of (a) *gly-11*, (b) *gmd-2*, (c) *let-*  
587 *653* and (d) *osm-8* genes in N2 worms and *pmr-1* mutants. Histograms show the expression of  
588 glycosylation related genes detected by real-time PCR. Bars represent the mean of three  
589 independent experiments. Asterisks indicate significant differences (\*\**p* <0.01, \*\*\**p* <0.001).

590 **Figure 3. Effect of *pmr-1* silencing on *C. elegans* viability and gut colonization.** a) Kaplan-Meier  
591 survival plot of *pmr-1* mutant worms with respect to control. *n* = 60 for each data point of single  
592 experiments. (b) Bacterial colony forming units (CFU) recovered from nematodes after 48 h to  
593 infection with *S. aureus*. Bars represent the mean of three independent experiments. Asterisks  
594 indicate significant differences (\*\**p* <0.01, \*\*\**p* <0.001).

595 **Figure 4. Effect of *pmr-1* silencing on worms infected with different pathogens.** Kaplan-Meier  
596 survival plot of N2 and *pmr-1* mutant worms infected with a) *E. faecalis*, b) *P. aeruginosa* and c) *C.*  
597 *albicans*. *n* = 60 for each data point of single experiments. Asterisks indicate significant differences  
598 (\*\*\**p* <0.001, ns: not significant).

599 **Figure 5. Ultrastructural analysis of control worms and *pmr-1* mutants, before and after**  
600 **infection with *S. aureus*.** Electron micrographs show the intestinal surface of both control and *pmr-*  
601 *1* nematodes with a typical apical domain, including brush border with microvilli, terminal web, and  
602 apical junctions (a, d; arrowheads). Panels a and d indicate N2 and *pmr-1* worms before *S. aureus*  
603 infection, respectively. Panels b and c indicate control worms after *S. aureus* infection, while *pmr-1*  
604 infected worms were indicated in panels e and f. After infection (b, e), the intestinal lumina of both  
605 control and defective worms are dilated. However, in mutant worms, a denser and thicker  
606 glycocalyx (asterisc) separates the microvilli from the intraluminal bacteria (e-f). Differently, in  
607 control worms, bacteria adhere to the microvilli (b, c). Bars 1  $\mu\text{m}$ ; Fig. c, f. Bars 0,5  $\mu\text{m}$ .

608 **Figure 6. Analysis of oxidative stress in SOD-3::GFP strain and ROS evaluation.** a) Expression  
609 of *sod-3* mRNA in N2 and *pmr-1* worms. b) Fluorescence microscopy of SOD-3::GFP worm strain.  
610 Scale bar = 100 $\mu\text{m}$ . c) Measurement of ROS levels in N2 worms and *pmr-1* mutants. d)  
611 Fluorescence microscopy of SOD-3::GFP worm strain after 48 h of infection with *S. aureus*. Scale  
612 bar = 100 $\mu\text{m}$ . e) Measurement of ROS levels in N2 and *pmr-1* worms after 48 h of RNAi. Statistical  
613 analysis was evaluated by one-way ANOVA with the Bonferroni post-test; asterisks indicate  
614 significant differences (\*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ ). Bars represent the mean of three independent  
615 experiments.

616 **Figure 7. Analysis of oxidative stress in SKN-1::GFP strain.** a) Fluorescence microscopy of  
617 SKN-1::GFP worm strain after 48 h of RNAi and b) related median fluorescence intensity. c)  
618 Fluorescence microscopy of SKN-1::GFP worm strain after RNAi and *S. aureus* infection and d)  
619 related median fluorescence intensity. Statistical analysis was evaluated by one-way ANOVA with  
620 the Bonferroni post-test; asterisks indicate significant differences (\*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ ). Bars  
621 represent the mean of three independent experiments. Scale bar = 100 $\mu\text{m}$ .

622 **Figure 8. Impact of *pmr-1* silencing on *C. elegans* immunity.** a) Expression of *hsf-1*, *sek-1* and  
623 *pmk-1* mRNA level in *pmr-1* worms, as compared to control. Bars represent the mean of three  
624 independent experiments. Kaplan-Meier survival plot of b) *pmk-1* c) *hsf-1* and d) *sek-1* mutant

625 worms with silenced *pmr-1*, after 48 h to infection with *S. aureus*, as compared to control. Asterisks  
626 indicate significant differences (\*p <0.05, \*\*p <0.01, \*\*\*p <0.001, ns: not significant). *n* = 60 for  
627 each data point of single experiments.

628 **Figure 9. Lifespan analysis.** Kaplan-Meier survival plot of N2 and *bus-4* worms, after 48 h of  
629 RNAi, infected with *S. aureus*. *n* = 60 for each data point of single experiments. Asterisks indicate  
630 significant differences (\*p <0.05; \*\*p <0.01, \*\*\*p <0.001).

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655 **Tables**

656 **Table 1. Primers for RT-qPCR analysis.**

<i>hsf-1</i>	FOR	5'-ATGACTCCACTGTCCCAAGG
	REV	5'-TCTTGCCGATTGCTTTCTCT
<i>pmk-1</i>	FOR	5'-AAATGACTCGCCGTGATTTC
	REV	5'-CATCGTGATAAGCAGCCAGA
<i>sek-1</i>	FOR	5'-CAGAGCCGTTTATTGGGAAA
	REV	5'-TGCATCCGGCTTGACAGT
<i>sod-3</i>	FOR	5'-AGAACCTTCAAAGGAGCTGATG
	REV	5'-CCGCAATAGTGATGTCAGAAAG
<i>act-1</i>	FOR	5'-GAGCGTGGTTACTCTTTCA
	REV	5'-CAGAGCTTCTCCTTGATGTC
<i>gly-11</i>	FOR	5'-GGACCTGCGGTGGAGAACT
	REV	5'-GCGGAAAATGTGGCCAACT
<i>gmd-2</i>	FOR	5'-AAAGCGAGCTGACCCCATT
	REV	5'-ATACATCTTGGCGACCGCATA
<i>let-653</i>	FOR	5'-CTGTCTCGTGAGAATATGTCC
	REV	5'-TTCCACGTCGTCGCATGT
<i>osm-8</i>	FOR	5'-AGAAGCCCCACCACTGATTG
	REV	5'-TTGTTTTTGCCACGGTTCAA
<i>act-1</i>	FOR	5'-GAGCGTGGTTACTCTTTCA
	REV	5'-CAGAGCTTCTCCTTGATGTC



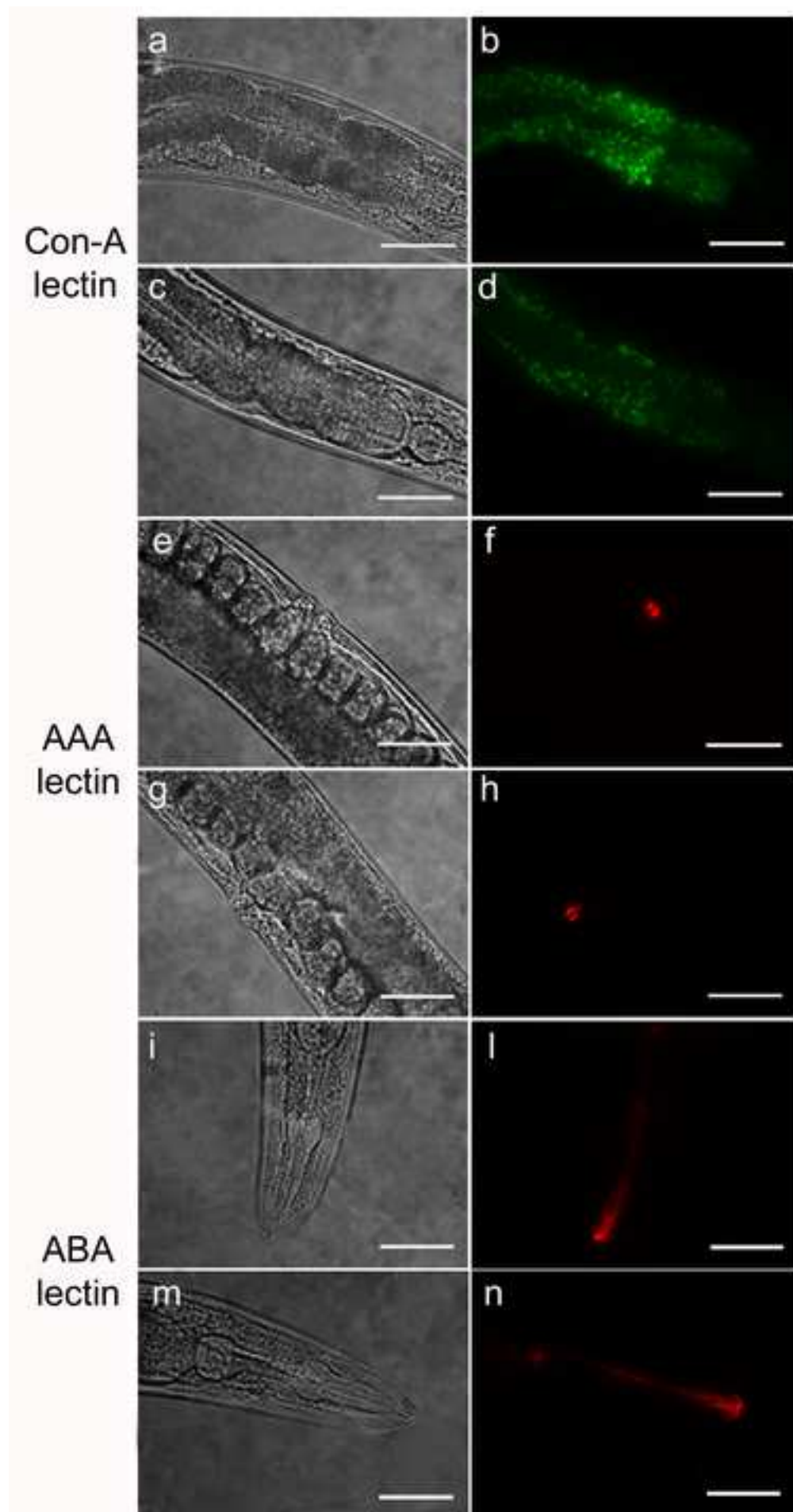
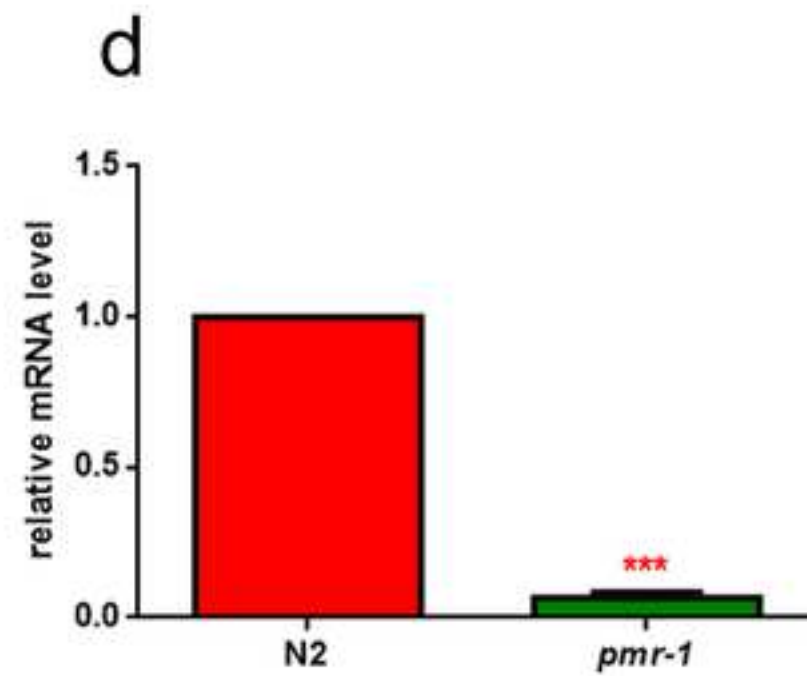
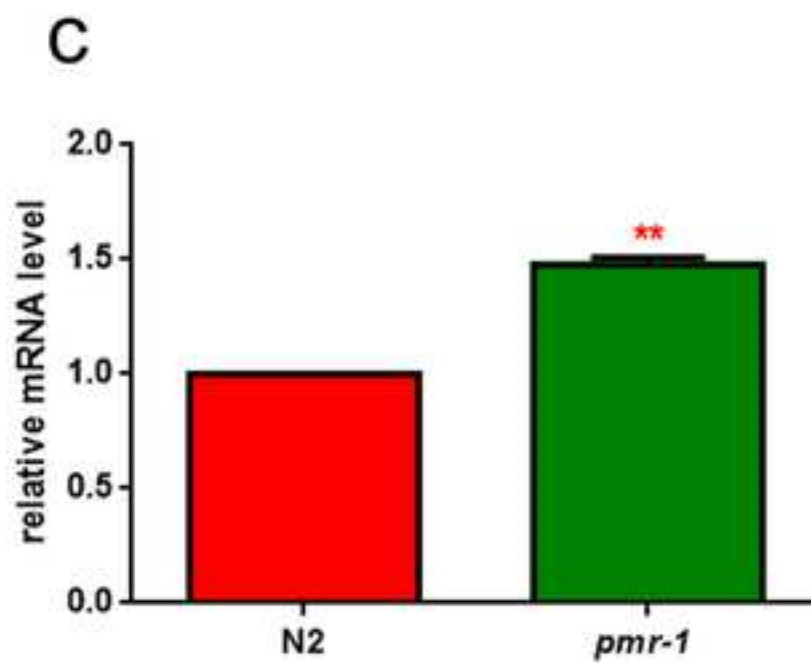
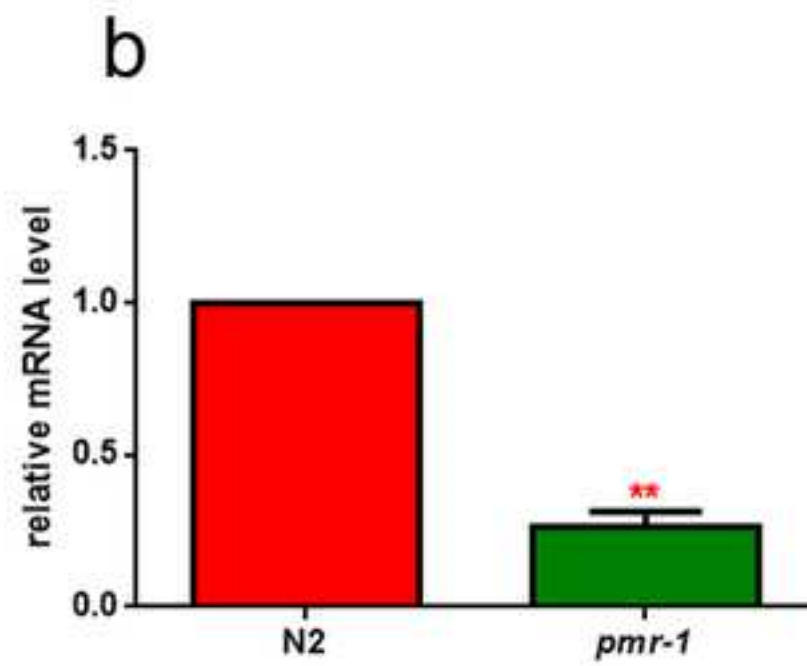
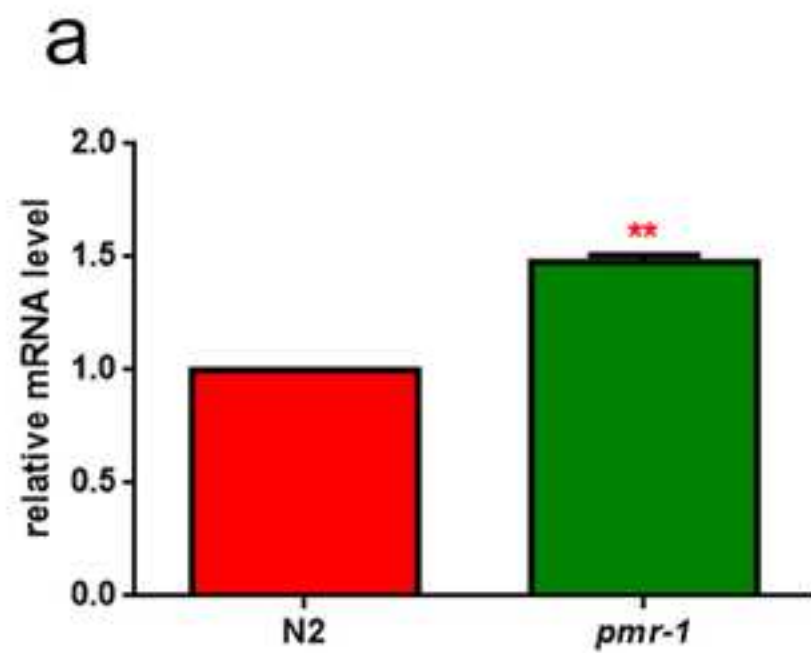
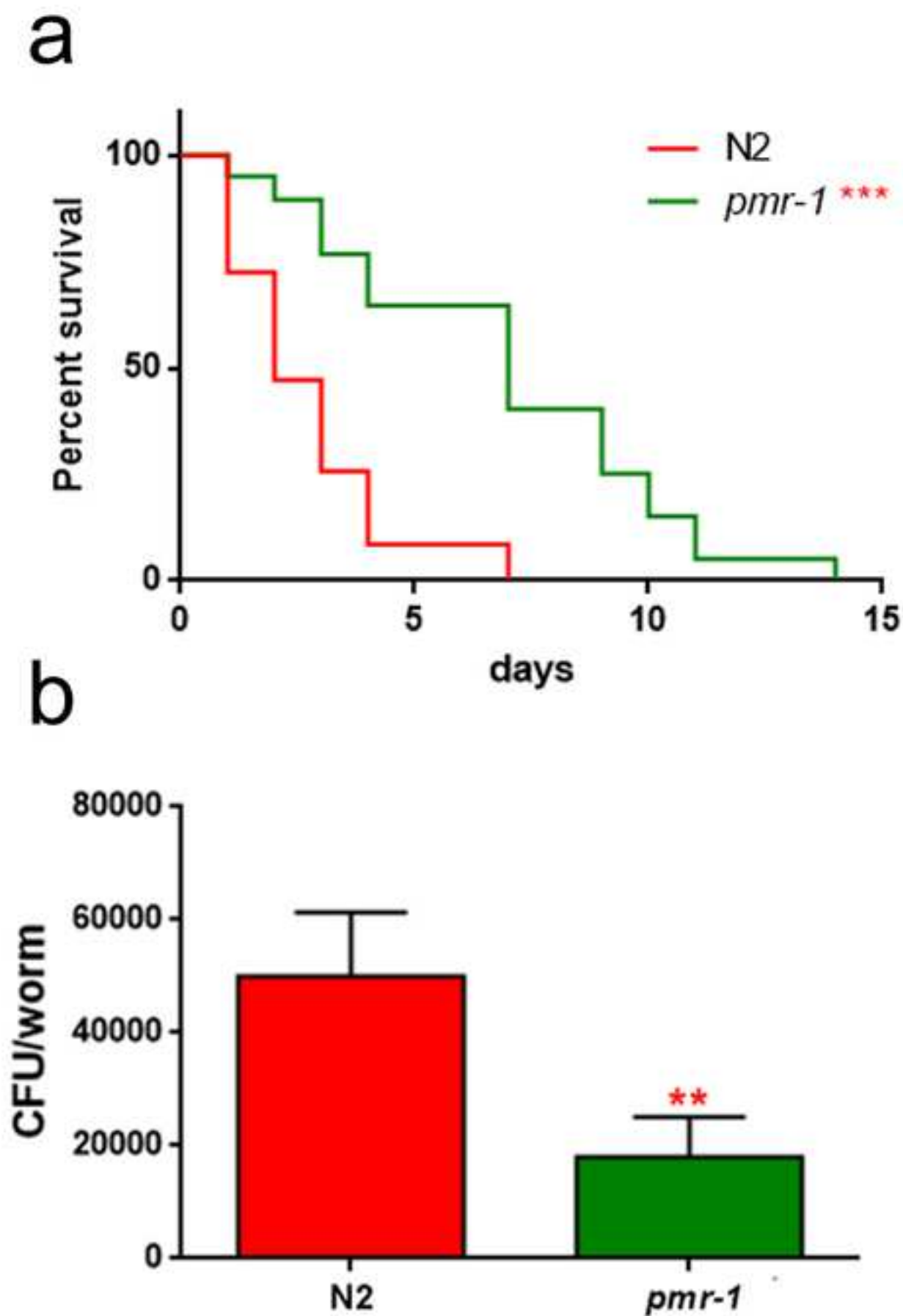
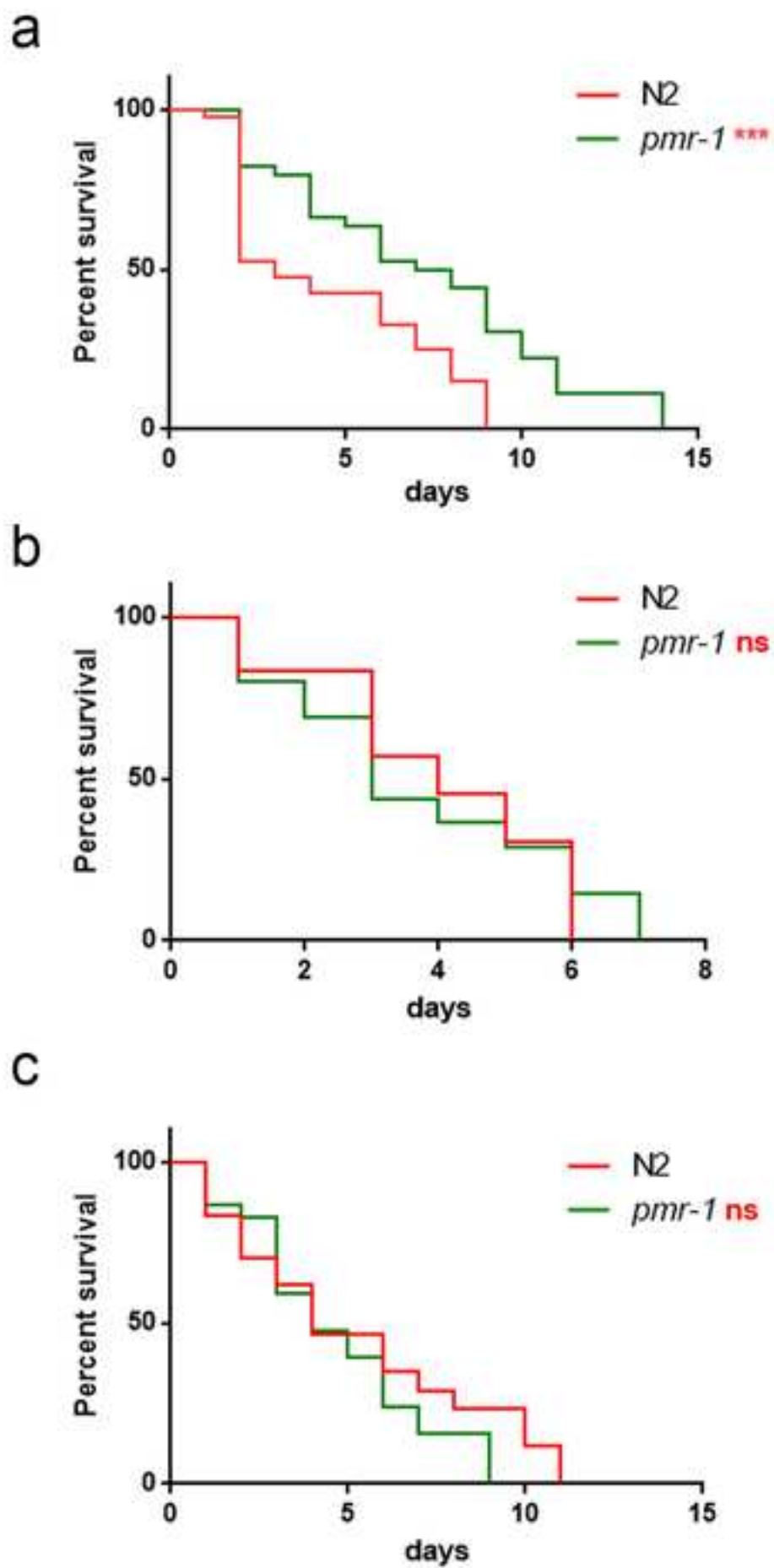


Figure 2









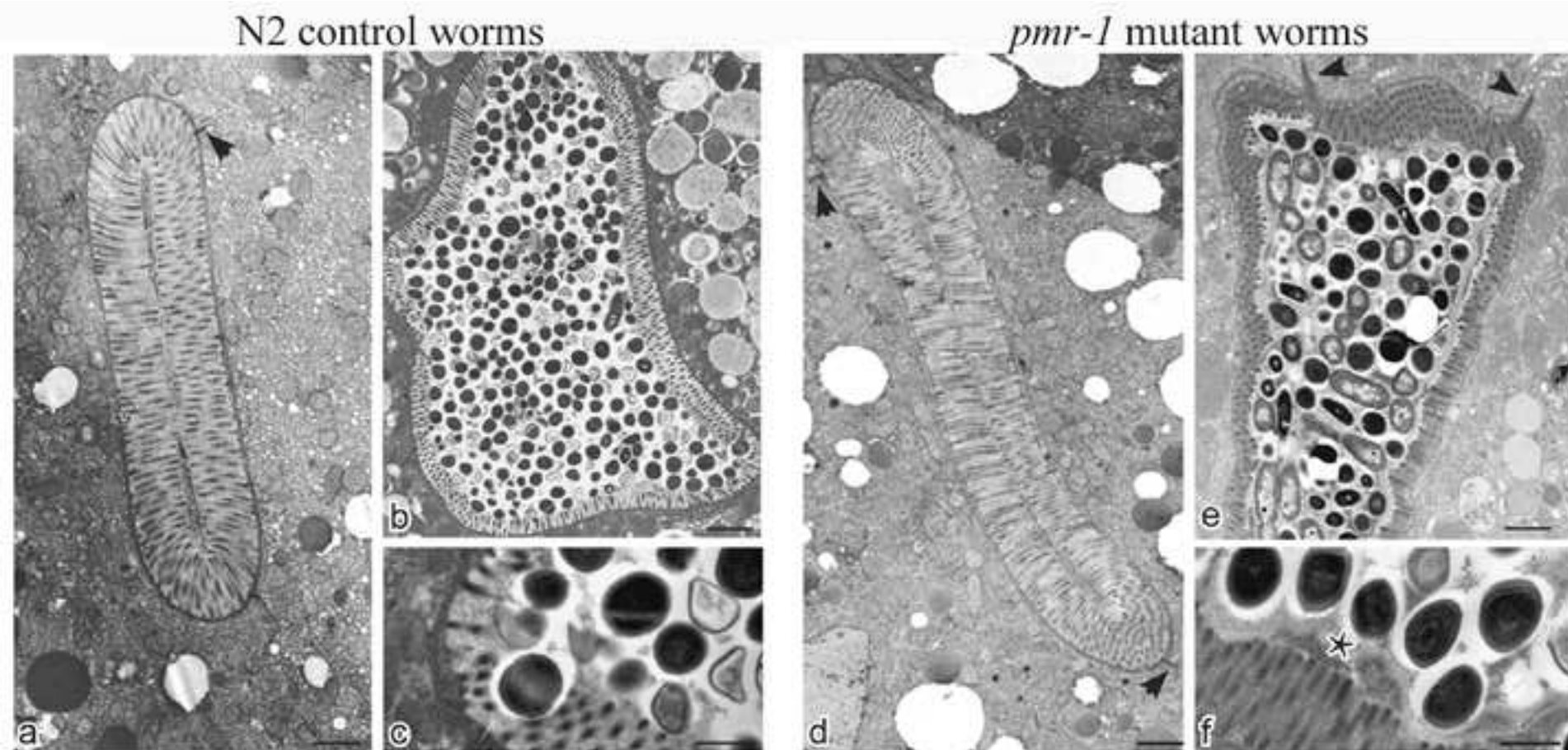
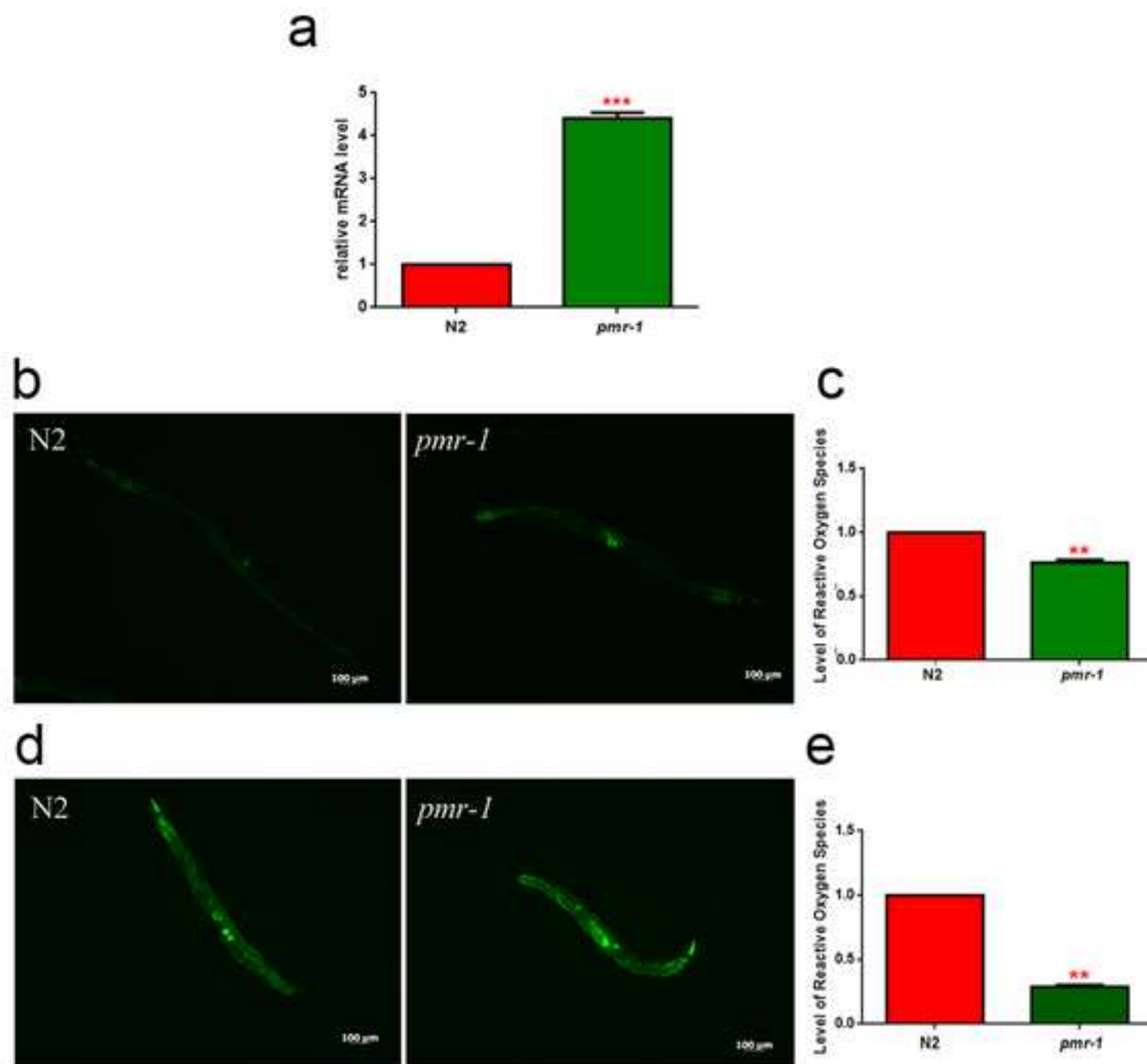
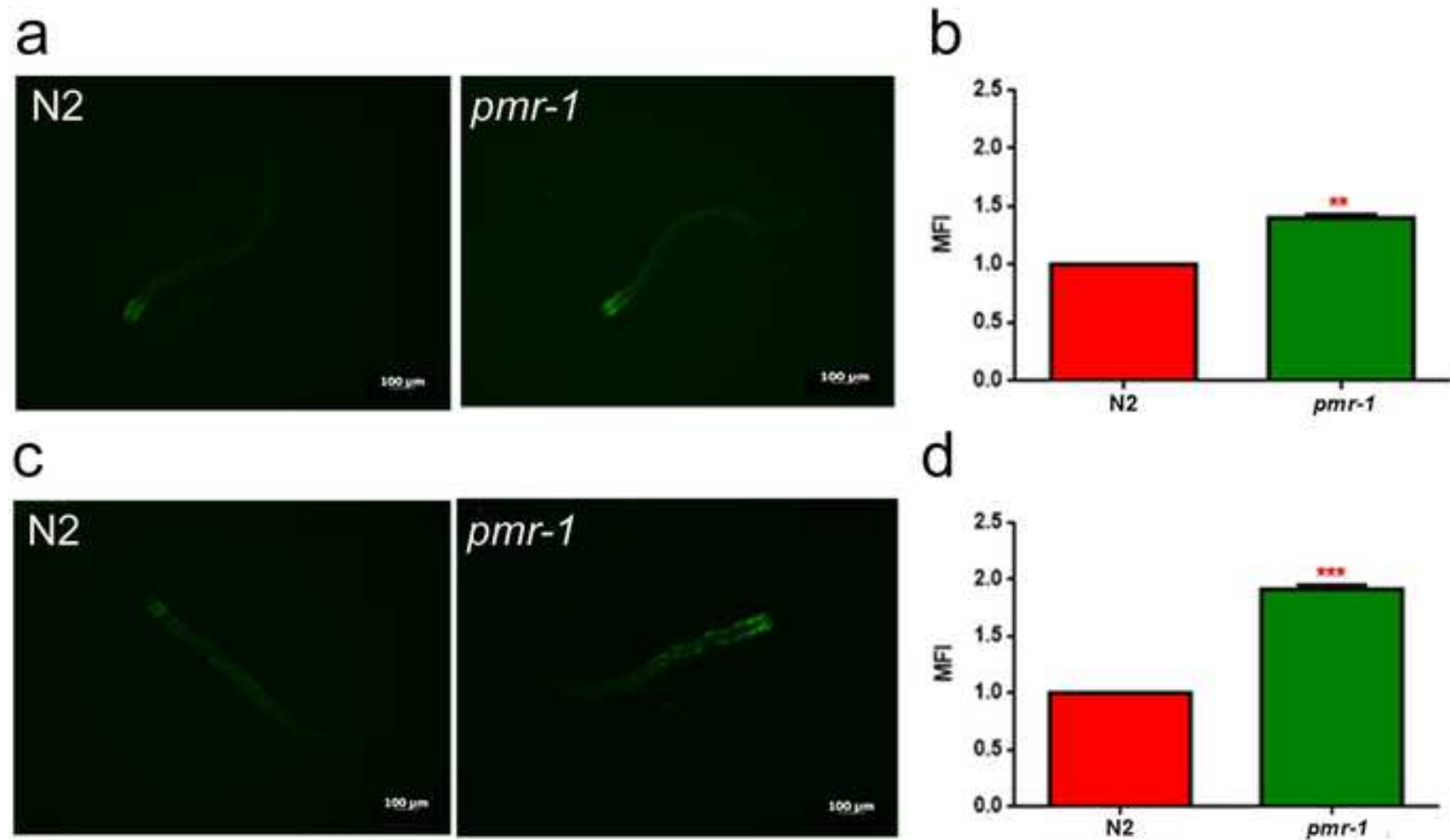


Figure 6





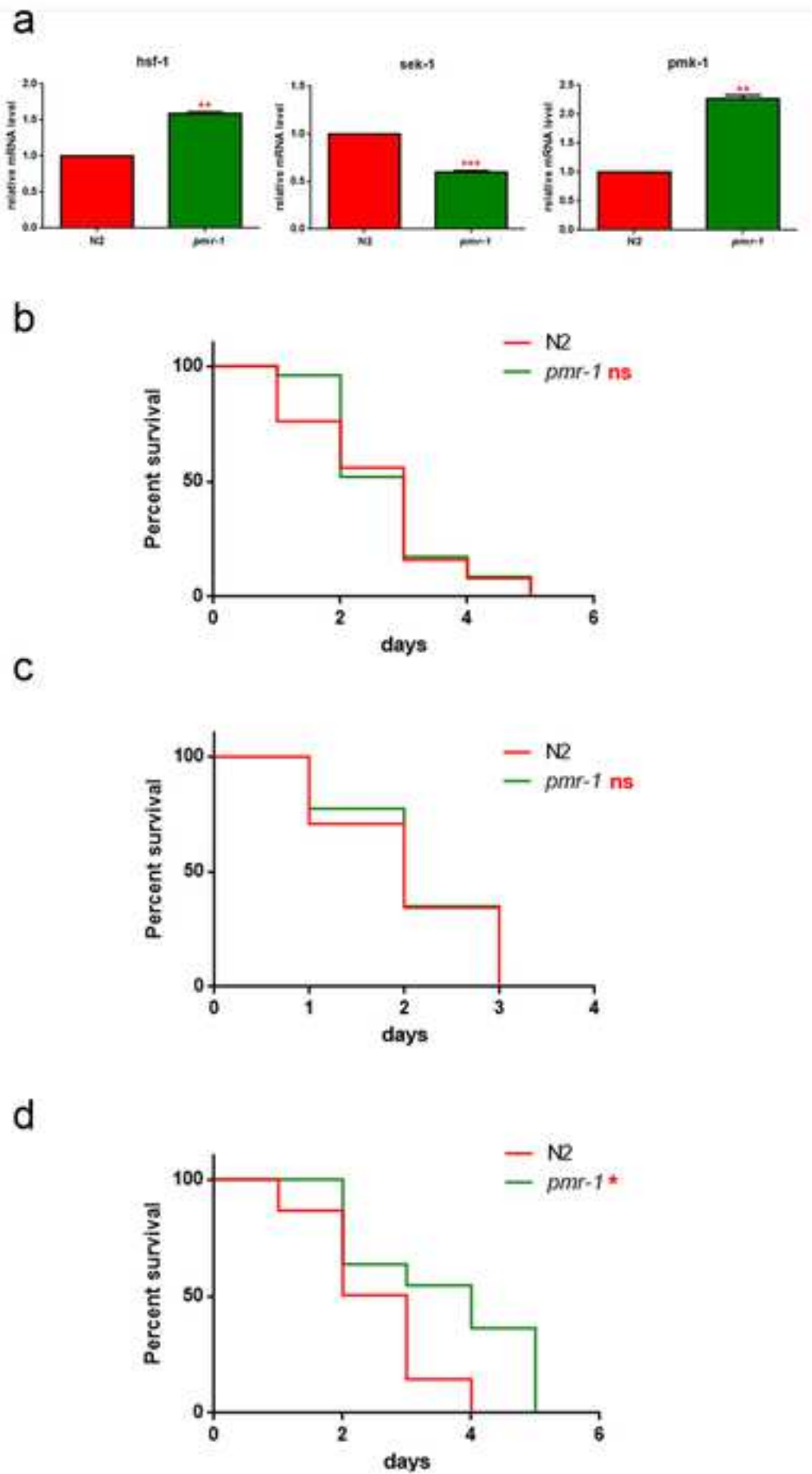


Figure 9

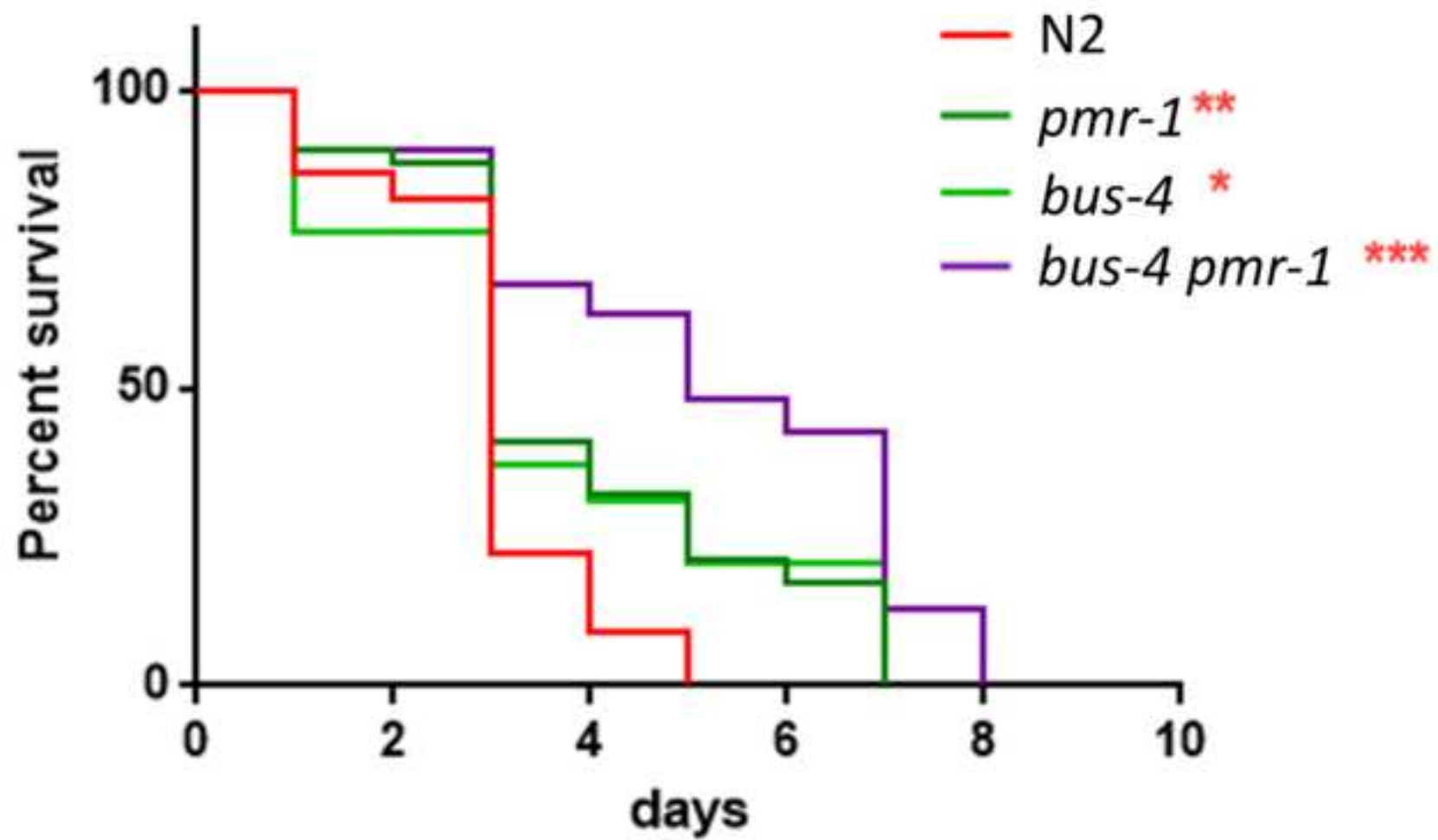


Figure S1

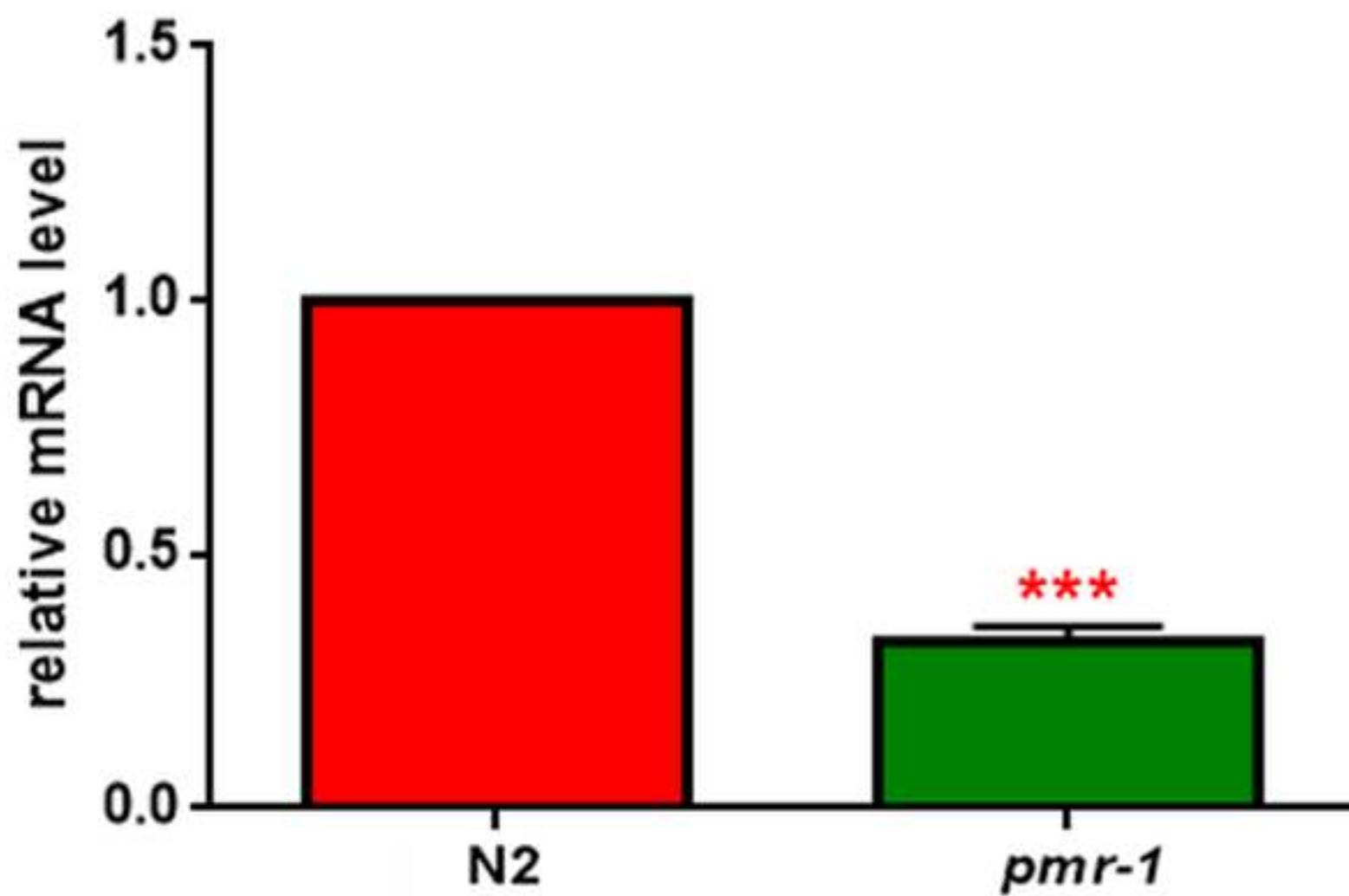


Figure S2

