1   Stimulation of immunity-linked genes by membrane disruption is linked to Golgi function

2   and the ARF-1 GTPase

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4   Christofer M. Welsh[1], Lorissa J. Smulan[2], Matthew J. Fanelli[1], Dominique S. Lui[1], and

5   Amy K. Walker[1]

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8   [1]Program in Molecular Medicine, UMASS Medical School, Worcester, MA

9   [2]Department of Medicine, UMASS Medical School, Worcester, MA

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12   Contact: amy.walker@umassmed.edu

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14   **Summary**

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16   Immune-linked genes (ILGs) are activated in response to pathogens but can also be

17   activated by lipid imbalance. Why pathogen attack and metabolic changes both impact

18   ILG activation is unclear. Organelles in the secretory pathway have distinct protein and

19   lipid components and genetically separable stress programs. These stress pathways

20   activate restorative transcriptional programs when lipid ratios become unbalanced or

21   during dysregulated protein folding and trafficking. We find that ILGs are specifically

22   activated when membrane phosphatidylcholine ratios change in the secretory pathway.

23   Consistent with this result, disruption of Golgi function after RNAi targeting the ADP-

24   ribosylation factor ARF-1 also activates ILG expression. Since increased protein

25   secretion is altered by metabolic changes and pathogen responses, our data argue that

26   ILG upregulation is a conserved, coordinated response to changes in trafficking

27   resulting from intrinsic cues (lipid changes) or extrinsic stimulation (during the immune

28   response). These findings uncover important and previously unexplored links between

29   metabolism and the stress response.

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Introduction

Cellular stress responses both react to extrinsic insults by upregulating genes that

defend the cell. Stress responses also restore organelle function in response to intrinsic

changes. Several of these intrinsic stress response pathways are also linked to

metabolic processes. For example, overnutrition can lead to metabolic changes that

induce cellular stress through an increase in reactive oxygen species (Wellen and

Thompson, 2010). Several signaling pathways play a dual role, functioning as

coordinators of nutrient responses as well as stress responses. For example, the

nutritional sensor mTORC1 can influence stress-responsive transcription (Aramburu et

al., 2014). In addition, insulin signaling pathways are strongly linked to stress. For

example, mutations in *daf-2*, the *Caenorhabditis elegans* insulin receptor/insulin-like

growth factor ortholog, produce highly stress-resistant animals (Son et al., 2019).

Finally, changes in ER lipids have a profound effect on stress pathways (Gianfrancesco

et al., 2018; Halbleib et al., 2017; Koh et al., 2018). Specialized ER sensors detect both

the accumulation of unfolded proteins and overload of the secretory pathway. These

sensors then initiate gene expression programs that reduce protein load or increase

lipid production (reviewed in: Hotamisligil and Davis, 2016; Radanović et al., 2018).

While stress responses and metabolism are clearly intertwined, the biological

advantages of linking these processes are less clear. For example, in a previous study,

we found that RNAi-mediated knockdown of two different lipid synthesis modulators,

sams-1 and *sbp-1*, caused upregulation of pathogen-response genes in *C. elegans*

(Ding et al., 2015). One of these lipid modulators, *sams-1/MAT1A,* encodes an S-

56 adenosylmethionine synthase important for phosphatidylcholine (PC) production

57 (Walker et al., 2011). The Troemel lab also identified *sams-1* as a regulator of the

58 infection response gene *irg-1* in an RNAi screen (Dunbar et al., 2012). The other lipid

59 modulator identified in our previous screen, *sbp-1/SREBPF1,* codes for a master

60 transcriptional regulator of lipid synthesis genes (Horton et al., 2002). Reduction of *sbp-*

61 *1/SREBPF1* causes a decrease in total lipid stores (McKay et al., 2003). Notably,

62 mammalian SREBPF1 knockdown also results in the enrichment of immunity-linked

63 gene expression in human cells (Wu and Näär, 2019). Recent studies from other labs

64 have found that ILGs are upregulated after mutation or RNAi of genes affecting PC

65 synthesis. ILG activation was seen upon disruption of *pmt-2* (Ho et al., 2020) or *lpin-1* in

66 the presence of excessive glucose (Jung et al., 2020). These immune-linked genes

67 were also upregulated in *skn-1* mutants, a transcriptional regulator of the stress

68 response and metabolic genes (Nhan et al., 2019). In addition, dietary restriction

69 results in the upregulation of similar gene sets (Wu et al., 2019). These results together

70 suggest that multiple types of lipid imbalance seem to impact immunity-linked gene

71 expression and that these links may be conserved across species, as indicated by

72 results in human cells cited above .

73

74 Exposure of *C. elegans* to bacterial pathogens stimulates the expression of a diverse

75 set of genes, including antimicrobial peptides, enzymes for detoxifying xenobiotics, and

76 neuromodulatory peptides to coordinate inter-organ defenses (Engelmann et al., 2011;

77 Fletcher et al., 2019; Mallo et al., 2002; Troemel et al., 2006). However, many of the

78 genes upregulated in response to either bacteria or fungi do not fall into these clearly

79   defensive pathways (Estes et al., 2010) or have clear functional roles and are instead

80   defined by pathogen-responsive expression. In order to understand the relationship

81   between ILG regulation and changes in lipid levels, we compared lipidomics from *sams-*

82   *1* and *sbp-1* animals with results from a targeted RNAi screen for activation of the

83   immunity-linked reporter, p*sysm-1::GFP* (Shivers et al., 2009). We found that *sams-1*

84   *and sbp-1* knockdown animals both had broad changes in their lipidome. However,

85   fractionated *sbp-1* extracts showed low PC in the ER/Golgi fraction, as we previously

86   found in *sams-1* animals (Smulan et al., 2016). Our targeted RNAi screen argues that

87   synthesis of two lipid classes, PC and sphingomyelin (SM), increase p*sysm-1::GFP*

88   expression. In addition, RNAi of Golgi/ER transport regulators, including the GTPase

89   *arf-1/ARF1,* activated the immunity-linked reporter. Notably, some ILGs were also

90   upregulated after *arf-1*/ARF1 RNAi, suggesting that disrupting Golgi function regulates

91   immunity-linked genes. Finally, we find that RNAi of one ILG, *hpo-6*, disrupts the

92   trafficking of two secreted proteins. Taken together, our results suggest that some ILGs

93   act to balance the increased secretory load in pathogen-stimulated cells. While immune

94   function is critical for host defenses, immune activation in non-pathogenic conditions,

95   such as in metabolic disease, may have deleterious effects (Zmora et al., 2017). Thus,

96   our studies provide critical links between shifts in lipid metabolism and stimulation of

97   immunity-linked gene expression.

98

99   **Results**

100   ***Gene set enrichment shows upregulation of pathogen-response genes in multiple***

101   ***models of membrane dysfunction***

102   Levels of lipids within membranes are tightly monitored, and imbalances may induce

103   cellular stress pathways that regulate genes to restore lipid ratios (Hotamisligil and

104   Davis, 2016). We previously found that *sams-1*, *lpin-1*, and *sbp-1* are part of a

105   feedback loop that responds to shifts in membrane PC levels and activates immunity-

106   linked genes (Fig. 1A; Smulan et al., 2016; Walker et al., 2011). In order to test why

107   immunity-linked genes are activated after disruption of lipid-synthesis regulators we first

108   conducted a bioinformatics analysis using our recently developed *C. elegans* specific

109   gene ontology tool, WormCat 2.0. This computational analysis allows combinatorial

110   graphing of gene enrichment scores based on detailed annotation of all *C. elegans*

111   genes (Higgins et al., 2021; Holdorf et al., 2019). This tool uses a nested annotation

112   strategy (Category1/Category2/Category3) to provide broader or more detailed

113   information on genome-wide datasets. In order to better characterize these ILGs, we

114   used WormCat to directly compare genes upregulated in the *sams-1, sbp-1,* and *lpin-1*

115   mutants (**Fig1A**). The Lee lab generously shared data of genes that are upregulated

116   when *lpin-1* is knocked down in the absence of the stress-triggering glucose (Jung et

117   al., 2020) **Table S1**). WormCat analysis indicates that all three knockdowns result in

118   enrichment in the broad Category1(Cat1) STRESS RESPONSE category, and more

119   specifically in Pathogen at the Cat2 level, similar to results from GO analysis (**Fig1A-**

120   **C**). Notably, the strongest enrichments at the Cat3 level were in STRESS RESPONSE:

121   Pathogen: *other*. This category contains genes that increase upon pathogen exposure

122   in *C. elegans* but do not have defined functions as antimicrobial peptides or within

123   pathogen-stimulated signaling pathways such as MAPK signaling (Higgins et al., 2021;

124   Holdorf et al., 2019). This class of genes is not explicitly defined by a traditional GO

125   analysis. We also noted that the landscape of upregulated genes was complex, with

126   STRESS RESPONSE: Detoxification enrichment scores increasing in both *sams-1* and

127   *lpin-1* but not *sbp-1* (**Fig1B**). In addition, METABOLISM: Lipid was increased after

128   *sams-1* and *lpin-1* RNAi (**Fig1B**). These data are consistent with our previous studies

129   showing that SBP-1 transcriptional targets are upregulated in these animals (Walker et

130   al., 2011), as are immunity-linked categories after SREBP-1 knockdown in human

131   melanoma cell lines (Wu and Näär, 2019). Finally, WormCat analysis of microarray

132   data from the Thibault lab (Koh et al., 2018) finds that STRESS RESPONSE: Pathogen

133   is increased after knockdown of *pmt-2*, a methyltransferase essential in SAM-dependent

134   PC production (**FigS1A**). Thus, genes linked to immunity are upregulated across a

135   diverse set of lipid synthesis modulators in *C. elegans* and mammalian cells.

136

137   SBP-1/SREBP1 is a basic helix-loop-helix transcription factor required to express a

138   suite of lipid metabolic genes, including *fat-7* in *C. elegans* and its ortholog SCD1 in

139   mammals (HORTON et al., 2002; McKay et al., 2003). It is also necessary for the

140   upregulation of *fat-7* in lipid-replete *sams-1(lof)* animals ((Walker et al., 2011), and

141   **Fig1D**). Since SBP-1 upregulates lipid synthesis genes, we tested the possibility that it

142   directly functions in ILG upregulation by using *sams-1(RNAi)* to increase the expression

143   of multiple SBP-1 target genes (Walker et al., 2011). Whereas *fat-7* depends on *sbp-1*

144   in both the control and *sams-1(RNAi)* background, *hpo-6* is expressed at high levels in

145   both *sbp-1(RNAi)* and *sams-1(lof); sbp-1(RNAi)* animals (**Fig1D**). This suggests that

146   the effects of SBP-1 on ILG upregulation are indirectly related to its function as a

147   transcriptional regulator.

148

149   Many pathogen-responsive genes in *C. elegans* act downstream of signals from the

150   p38/MAPK14 kinase PMK-1 (Troemel et al., 2006). In previous studies in *C .elegans*,

151   we found that low PC in *sams-1(lof)* animals leads to constitutive phosphorylation of

152   PMK-1 and that ILG induction was dependent on both PC and *pmk-1* (Ding et al., 2015).

153   In order to confirm this effect in mammalian cells, we used siRNA to knock down the

154   rate-limiting enzyme for PC production, *PCYT1,* in human hepatoma cells (**FigS1B**)*.* We

155   found that p38/MAPK14 phosphorylation is induced to levels similar to

156   lipopolysaccharide (LPS). In *C. elegans*, knockdown of *sbp-1* also induces PMK-1

157   phosphorylation (**FigS1C**). Taken together, the results suggest that upregulation of

158   ILGs in response to lipid perturbations may share regulatory link to pathogen-stimulated

159   pathways.

160

161   ***Loss of sbp-1 decreases PC levels in ER/Golgi extracts***

162   Immunity-linked gene expression and PMK-1 phosphorylation both occur after reduction

163   in *sams-1* and *sbp-1*, although these genes act at different points in lipid synthesis

164   regulation. Next, we sought to identify any shared signatures in the total lipidomes of

165   these mutants by LC/MS. Because animals were lysed directly into lipid extraction

166   buffer, levels were normalized to total lipid as in (Smulan et al., 2016). The entire

167   lipidome was broadly altered in both cases, with 27% of lipid species showing significant

168   changes in *sams-1(RNAi)* animals and 30% after *sbp-1(RNAi)* (**Fig2A, B; Table S2**).

169   We next examined lipid levels at the class and species level. As in our previous studies

170   (Cell 2011), *sams-1* animals showed lower PC and higher TAG (**Fig2C**), and we also

171   noted lower phosphatidylserine (PS) and SM levels in comparison to other lipid classes

172   (**Fig2C, FigS1C**). TAG was lower after *sbp-1* RNAi, as expected from previous studies

173   (Yang et al., 2006). We also found that while reductions in PC did not reach

174   significance, PE increased, and Cer levels dropped (**Fig2C, D**). In short, *sbp-1* RNAi

175   induces broad changes in the lipidome across multiple classes of lipids.

176

177   The properties of lipid classes can be altered when distributions of acyl chains change

178   significantly. We find that there are significant differences in the populations of species

179   within phospholipids (PC, phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), lyso-

180   phosphatidylethanolamine (LPE), and phosphatidylglycerol (PG), triglycerides (TAG),

181   diacylglycerides (DG), and sphingomyelins (SM) after *sams-1(RNAi)*. Changes in

182   species distribution in lipid classes after *sbp-1* RNAi were limited to TAG, lyso-

183   phosphatidylcholine (LPC), and ceramides (Cer) in agreement with previous studies

184   showing lower TAGs in *sbp-1(RNAi)* animals.   We asked if *sams-1* and *sbp-1* RNAi

185   caused similar shifts in animals and found overlapping changes in 180 shared lipid

186   species (**TableS2**). 57 of these species were decreased in both, 17 increased in both,

187   and 102 lipid species changed in opposite directions out of 1405 total lipid species

188   detected. Lipid species diverged most strongly within the TG class, with increases in

189   *sams-1(RNAi)* animals and decreases after *sbp-1* RNAi (**TableS2**). This agreed with

190   total class levels. For lipid species that increased in both animals, PE species were the

191 highest, with 15 changing at significant levels. 74 PC species changed in both *sams-1*

192 and *sbp-1* animals, with 35 decreasing in both (**TableS2**). Finally, three SM species

193 decreased in both animals. Thus, while *sams-1* or *sbp-1* knockdown each lead to broad

194 changes in the total lipidome, relatively few overlapping species changed in both

195 instances. Of those, PC species were the best represented among lipid species that

196 decreased upon knockdown of either *sams-1* or *sbp-1* in animals.

197

198 The total lipidome contains multiple organelles, including the plasma membrane,

199 mitochondria, nuclear membrane, and Golgi/ER. However, lipid ratios in specific

200 organelles may be reflective of particular functions; for example, we previously found

201 that PC ratios in ER/Golgi fractions were associated with activation of SBP-1 in *sams-1*

202 and *lpin-1* animals (Smulan et al., 2016). Therefore, we performed LC/MS lipidomics on

203 microsomes from *sbp-1(RNAi)* animals. Because the lipidomics was performed on

204 fractionated animals, we used total protein for normalization. We found a broader

205 fraction of the ER/Golgi lipidome was affected after *sbp-1(RNAi)* than in the total lipid

206 samples. Nearly 40% of lipid species were altered in these fractions (**Fig2E; Table S2**),

207 with significant changes in species across most classes (**FigS1C**). Similar to the

208 unfractionated extracts, levels of TAG and Cer decreased in the ER/Golgi (**Fig2F**).

209 Notably, significant ER/Golgi-specific decreases occurred in PC and DG (**Fig2F, G;**

210 **FigS1D**). This demonstrates that *sbp-1(RNAi)* has distinct effects on the ER/Golgi

211 membranes and shows decreases in PC levels at the sub-compartment level, similar to

212 *sams-1* RNAi.

213

214 ***Targeted RNAi Screen Reveals roles for Ceramide/Sphingomyelin synthesis and***

215 ***COP I transport in immune gene expression***

216 Low PC levels are associated with ILG expression in *sams-1* (Ding et al., 2015) and

217 *pmt-2(RNAi)* animals (Koh et al., 2018). The low PC in the ER/Golgi compartment of

218 both *sams-1* (Smulan et al., 2016) and *sbp-1* RNAi animals suggests this could be a

219 shared signature linked to ILG upregulation. To understand how these lipids might act,

220 we next sought to identify genes important for ILG expression. We screened for

221 upregulation of an immune reporter, p*sysm-1*::GFP (Shivers et al., 2009), with an RNAi

222 sub-library that targets genes involved in complex lipid metabolism, lipid signaling and

223 selected ER/Golgi transport regulators. We previously used a lipid-function RNAi sub-

224 library to identify low-PC regulators of SBP-1/SREBP-1 (Smulan et al., 2016). Notably,

225 we constructed RNAi clones for genes not represented in the Arhinger or Orfeome RNAi

226 libraries. The resulting library includes all predicted phospholipases and enzymes for

227 synthesis of complex lipids (Smulan et al., 2016). For the current screen, we expanded

228 the sub-library to include more genes involved in ceramide/sphingomyelin synthesis and

229 confirmed all clone identities by sequencing. Thus, this library has a broader

230 representation of genes linked to complex lipid synthesis than the commercially

231 available RNAi libraries. p*sysm-1*::GFP is strongly induced by *sbp-1(RNAi)* (**Fig3A**) and

232 has been used by multiple labs as a robust marker for immune gene induction (Jeong et

233 al., 2017; Pender and Horvitz, 2018; Wu et al., 2019).

234

235 In order to identify genes in lipid synthesis important for ILG upregualion, we screened

236 this library in quadruplicate in p*sysm-1*::GFP animals and identified a list of 20

237   candidates for retesting (**Fig3B; Table S3**). Retesting to identify the strongest

238   candidates occurred in 3 stages: visual rescreening (4X), imaging of candidates from

239   the rescreen, and qRT-PCR to assess changes in GFP expression. We also included

240   the *sbp-1* target genes *fat-5, fat-6,* and *fat-7* (McKay et al., 2003; Yang et al., 2006) in

241   the visual retesting. These genes are orthologs of mammalian Stearoyl CoA

242   desaturases (SCDs) (Watts and Browse, 2002) and can change membrane fluidity

243   (Bodhicharla et al., 2018; Ruiz et al., 2018) or induce lipid bilayer stress by changing

244   ratios of saturated/unsaturated acyl chains within lipid classes (Ho et al., 2018, 2020;

245   Koh et al., 2018).

246

247   Candidates from the targeted screen fell into two major groups. First, enzymes linked to

248   PC and SM synthesis were found (**Fig3C-G; FigS3A, B; TableS3**). This included two

249   isoforms of the rate-limiting enzyme for PC production, *pcyt-1,* and *sptl-1*, which initiates

250   the first committed step in sphingolipid synthesis. Thus, our genetic data supports the

251   notion that changes in PC or SMs are a shared signature linked to ILG activation in

252   *sams-1* and *sbp-1* RNAi animals. Notably, *fat-5, -6,* or *fat-7* RNAi, which would change

253   acyl chains saturation within each lipid class, had modest effects on the p*sysm-1*::GFP

254   immune reporter (**Fig3H, FigS3A, B; Table S3**), suggesting changes in membrane

255   fluidity downstream of these enzymes is not a major contributor to the immunity-linked

256   gene upregulation.

257

258   Second, genes involved in Golgi/ER trafficking activated the reporter in both strains

259   (**Fig3C, D; Fig43A, B; TableS3**). Golgi/ER trafficking genes included four genes

260   forming the COPI complex (which also caused developmental delays) and ARF1

261   guanine activating factor (*agef-1*). The ARF-1 GTPase, a key regulator of these factors,

262   was a false negative in the original screen, but strongly activated the reporter in the

263   rescreening. (**Fig3I**; **Table S3**). The coatomer proteins work in a complex (Spang, 2002)

264   and are required for viability (Fraser et al., 2000). Therefore, we chose one candidate,

265   *copa-1,* and performed RNAi with diluted bacteria, allowing animals to develop fully.

266   We found that the immune activation reporter was strongly expressed in the *copa-1*

267   knockdown (**Fig3I**). Stimulation of the reporter after the loss of multiple parts of the

268   COP I machinery and its key regulator *arf-1* strongly argues that ER/Golgi dynamics

269   signal to induce immunity-linked genes.

270

271   The p*sysm-1*::GFP reporter represents a single gene in the immune response program.

272   To more broadly survey ILGs in our screen validation, we used qRT-PCR with primers

273   specific to the endogenous *sysm-1* gene, *irg-1, irg-2,* and *hpo-6*, and found robust

274   activation of each of our candidate reporters after knockdown of *arf-1* or *copa-1*, but

275   more modest effects with the SM genes or SCDs (**FigS4C-G)**. Integration of results

276   from this targeted RNAi screen with our lipidomics studies shows overlap in two main

277   areas, PC and SM synthesis, which are themselves connected. We previously linked

278   changes in PC levels in *sams-1* microsomes to the inactivation of ARF-1, which drove

279   proteolytic processing of SBP-1/SREBP-1 (Smulan et al., 2016). These results suggest

280   that blocking ARF-1 function could also be linked to ILG activation.

281

282   ***Disruption of ER/Golgi activates immunity-linked genes***

283   The upregulation of *sysm-1* and other immune genes after *arf-1* RNAi prompted us to

284   examine genome-wide changes in the transcriptome that could occur in response to the

285   loss of ARF-1 function. Using RNA-seq, we found that 705 genes were significantly

286   upregulated after *arf-1* RNAi (**Fig4A, FigS3A; Table S4**) and that 40% of these genes

287   were also upregulated in *sams-1* or *sbp-1* RNAi animals (**FigS4A**). Downregulated

288   genes in *sams-1, sbp-1,* or *arf-1* animals had low levels of overlap (**FigS4B**). WormCat

289   gene set enrichment shows that STRESS RESPONSE: Pathogen: *Other* gene sets are

290   significantly upregulated in *arf-1(RNAi)* animals as they are after *sbp-1, sams-1,* or *lpin-*

291   *1* RNAi (**Fig4B**). Next, we examined WormCat enrichment within the genes that were

292   shared between these three RNAi sets and found that shared genes retained strong

293   enrichment for STRESS RESPONSE: Pathogen (**FigS4C-D**). Thus, *arf-1* GTPase

294   knockdown causes similar or overlapping effects in immune gene expression to those

295   seen after broad lipid disruption by *sbp-1* RNAi. Cycling of the ARF1 GTPase requires

296   interaction with the Golgi membrane (Spang, 2002). In order to study the localization of

297   ARF-1, we obtained a strain where endogenous ARF-1 is C-terminally tagged by

298   CRISPR. Next, we asked if ARF-1 localization was altered in *sbp-1(RNAi)* animals by

299   examining expression in the ARF-1::RFP animals. In intestinal cells, ARF-1::RFP

300   formed a punctate pattern (**Fig4C**) similar to that of the Golgi ministacks characteristic

301   of *C. elegans* cells (Broekhuis et al., 2013) (See also **Fig4D**).   Strikingly, ARF-1::RFP

302   appeared to form larger, more irregular punctae in *sbp-1(RNAi)* animals as well as

303   having additional diffuse localization, similar to patterns seen with RNAi of the coatomer

304   protein COPA-1 (**Fig4C**). This suggests that ARF-1 functions at the Golgi are altered in

305   *sbp-1(RNAi)* animals.

306

307 Loss of human ARF1 or blocking ARF1 cycling with the fungal toxin BrefeldinA disrupts

308 Golgi integrity (Klausner et al., 1992). In addition, our previous studies found that

309 lowering PC levels through RNAi of *sams-1* or knockdown of *PCYT1* (the rate-limiting

310 enzyme for PC production) in mammalian cells blocked ARF1 GTPase activity and

311 disrupted Golgi structure (Smulan et al., 2016; Walker et al., 2011). Because PC levels

312 in *sbp-1(RNAi)* ER/Golgi fractions decreased (**Fig2C**) and ARF-1::RFP was

313 mislocalized, we next examined Golgi structure in *sbp-1(RNAi)* animals using a reporter,

314 MANS::GFP, driven by an intestinal reporter (Chen et al., 2006). MANS::GFP is a

315 fusion of *aman-2* (alpha-mannosidase, a conserved Golgi specific protein) and marks

316 the mini-Golgi stacks characteristic of *C. elegans* (Rolls et al., 2002). Consistent with

317 previous studies (Ackema et al., 2013; Sato et al., 2006), knockdown of *arf-1*

318 dramatically shifts the Golgi puncta to diffuse localization across the cytoplasm (**Fig4D**).

319 *copa-1* RNAi also diminished Golgi stacks along with altering ARF-1::RFP localization

320 (**Fig4C, D**). *sbp-1* knockdown affects Golgi structure, but results in a different pattern

321 (**Fig4E**). Golgi stacks are more numerous and smaller with increases in diffuse

322 cytoplasmic localization (**Fig4E**). Notably, *sptl-1(RNAi)* did not noticeably alter Golgi

323 marked by MANS::GFP and ARF-1::RFP puncta were visible, suggesting that *sptl-1*

324 knockdown may mediate effects on immune genes through and SM pathways through

325 different cellular membranes. Taken together, we find that ARF-1 activity (Smulan et

326 al., 2016) and localization (this study) can be affected by *sams-1* or *sbp-1* RNAi and that

327 targeting *arf-1* or the coatomer components can activate ILGs. Thus, blocking or

328 limiting ARF-1 function at the Golgi may be part of the signal to activate these genes.

329

Immunity-linked gene upregulation in models of trafficking dysfunction

331   The Golgi apparatus accepts proteins from the ER that are destined for secretion,

332   processing them by glycosylation before secretory vesicles are loaded (Boncompain

333   and Weigel, 2018). Stimulation of the innate immune system may significantly impact

334   trafficking load, as antimicrobial peptides are shuttled through the membrane trafficking

335   system (Taguchi and Mukai, 2019). Indeed activation of the ER stress response has

336   been noted in multiple systems when large numbers of proteins need to be produced

337   and secreted (Gardner et al., 2013). Interestingly, previous data suggest that induction

338   of membrane stress may also be a sensor of infection (Lamitina and Chevet, 2012).

339   Based on work by the Ewbank lab, they also suggested that some pathogen-response

340   genes act to support the trafficking of antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) (Couillault et al.,

341   2012; Lamitina and Chevet, 2012). We noted that the immunity-linked genes

342   upregulated at low PC are largely outside of the antimicrobial categories and are

343   comprised of gene sets defined by their shared expression upon pathogen exposure

344   rather than function (Estes et al., 2010; Holdorf et al., 2019). We hypothesized that

345   some of these genes might be responding to direct stress on the trafficking system.

346

347   To explore this idea, we turned to two commonly used systems for studying trafficking in

348   *C. elegans*, visualization of VIT-2::GFP (Grant and Sato, 2006) and *myo-3*::GFP (Fares

349   and Greenwald, 2001). *vit-2* is vitellogenin produced and secreted from intestinal cells

350   and taken up by the germline (Grant and Hirsh, 1999). *myo-3*::ssGFP has a signal

351   sequence on the fluorophore and is expressed in body wall muscle (Fares and

352   Greenwald, 2001) Two published studies examine genome-wide mRNA expression

353   patterns when *vit-2* is overexpressed or misregulated. First, we used WormCat to

354   examine category enrichment data from germline-less *glp-1* mutants obtained by the

355   Blackwell lab, where they showed that *vit-2*::GFP builds up near its production site in

356   the intestines (Steinbaugh et al., 2015)and found strong enrichment patterns in

357   STRESS RESPONSE: Pathogen: other (Fig5A). Next, we used WormCat to examine

358   RNA-seq data from VIT-2::GFP (Singh and Aballay, 2017) overexpressing animals

359   produced by the Aballay group and also fund increased stress response genes (**Fig5B).**

360

361   In order to more directly test the hypothesis that increased protein load could lead to

362   activation of these ILGs, we compared two strains with a differing copy number of *vit-2*;

363   RT130, made by microparticle bombardment and containing the GFP array in addition

364   to wild type copies (Balklava et al., 2016) and BCN9071 which is a CRISPR-generated

365   allele integrated into the endogenous locus (Rompay et al., 2015) (**Fig4E**). Van

366   Rompay reported that total yolk protein levels were higher in strains harboring *vit-*

367   *2*::GFP derived from RT130 (Rompay et al., 2015). Where we found by RT-PCR that

368   GFP expression levels were also increased (**Fig4F**). Thus, increasing the amount of

369   VIT-2::GFP produced was also associated with ILG upregulation.

370

371   We found that ILGs become upregulated in the absence of pathogen response when

372   lipid levels become unbalanced, ARF-1 functions are compromised, or when protein

373   production is increased. We next tested whether increased ILG expression was part of

374   a response to help stimulate passage through the secretory pathway when trafficking

375   load is high. One of the most strongly upregulated genes is *hpo-6*, which is not present

376   in any of the commercially available RNAi libraries. To study its function more closely in

377   this context, we made a cDNA construct to allow RNAi in VIT-2::GFP RT130 in wild type

378   and *sams-1(lof)* animals (Ding et al., 2015). *hpo-6* was originally identified in a screen

379   for genes whose loss increased sensitivity to a pore-forming toxin (Kao et al., 2011). It

380   has a glycoprotein domain and may occur in membrane rafts (Rao et al., 2011), but has

381   no apparent homology to human proteins . *hpo-6(RNAi)* causes a slight increase in

382   VIT-2::GFP in wild-type animals (**Fig6S**). However, in the low PC *sams-1(lof)*

383   background, VIT-2::GFP pooling and aggregation suggested a broad effect on

384   trafficking patterns (**Fig6S)**. Yolk in *C. elegans* consists of both lipids and proteins

385   (Perez and Lehner, 2019). Because low lipid levels in *sbp-1(RNAi)* animals makes

386   results with VIT-2::GFP difficult to interpret, we used the *myo-3*::ssGFP reporter model

387   (Fares and Greenwald, 2001), which expresses and secretes GFP in body wall muscle

388   cells. We used this reporter to examine the effects of *hpo-6* on secretion when *sbp-1*

389   function is reduced. First, we confirmed that knockdown of *arf-1* or *sbp-1* affected

390   secretion of the reporter, finding broad pooling and aggregation after *arf-1(RNAi)* and

391   aggregation with *sbp-1(RNAi)* (**Fig5H**). As in VIT-2::GFP, *hpo-6(RNAi)* had modest

392   effects in the wild-type background, with the appearance of small aggregates. (**Fig5H**).

393   In order to test the effects of blunting *hpo-6* upregulation in sbp-1 animals, we crossed

394   *myo-3*::ssGFP into a strain harboring a hypomorphic *sbp-1* allele *sbp-1(ep79)* (Brock et

395   al., 2006). We found that *hpo-6* knockdown increased the pooling and aggregation in

396   *myo-3::ssGFP*; *sbp-1(ep79)* animals (**Fig5I**). This suggests that some of ILGs respond

397   to changes in secretory function that could occur with lipid imbalance, trafficking load, or

398   pathogen exposure and support secretory function.

399

400

401 **Discussion**

402 Cellular stress arises when essential functions are limited or become unbalanced.

403 Membranous organelles are sensitive to both changes in intrinsic protein activity or

404 alterations of lipids within their bilayers and elicit gene expression programs when

405 stressed. While some stress-responsive genes have clear functions, many genes are

406 defined solely as being responsive to specific stresses (Holdorf et al., 2019; Nadal et al.,

407 2011). It is striking that altering membrane lipids activates a gene expression program

408 shared with pathogen stress in both *C. elegans* (Ding et al., 2015; Ho et al., 2020; Jung

409 et al., 2020) and mammals (Wu and Näär, 2019). Mammalian SREBP-1a has also

410 been implicated as a regulator of innate immune gene expression in macrophages (Im

411 et al., 2011). The secretory pathway is relevant to both membrane stress and immune

412 function about might therefore be regulated by both responses. Membrane organelles

413 such as the ER and Golgi are part of a more extensive trafficking system where proteins

414 and lipids are created, modified, then sent to proper intercellular locations or secreted

415 (Yarwood et al., 2020). Innate immune responses challenge trafficking systems as

416 antimicrobial peptides are produced in mass in the ER, sent in lipid vesicles to the

417 Golgi, where many are glycosylated and then packaged into lipid vesicles for secretion

418 (Bednarska et al., 2017). For example, the *C. elegans* genome contains more than 300

419 genes that are produced in response to specific pathogens (Engelmann et al., 2011)

420 and share similarity to known antimicrobial effectors (Dierking et al., 2016). In addition,

421 pathogen-responses require an intact ER stress pathway to allow adjustment to the

422 increased trafficking load (Lamitina and Chevet, 2012; Richardson et al., 2010).

423

424   The ER contains multiple pathways that respond to changes in proteostasis and lipid

425   levels (Gardner et al., 2013). These processes are orchestrated by ER-intrinsic proteins

426   that sense changes in protein folding or alterations in the lipid bilayer and have

427   important roles in basal conditions, as well as when the secretory system is overloaded

428   (Hotamisligil and Davis, 2016; Safra et al., 2013). ER-linked events are also important

429   during pathogen exposure in *C. elegans*; changes in ribosomal function at the ER have

430   a well-defined impact on pathogen responses (Dunbar et al., 2012; McEwan et al.,

431   2012) and pathogen responses depend on ER stress pathways (Richardson et al.,

432   2010; Tillman et al., 2018). Interestingly, the Lee lab also found that ILGs are

433   upregulated when trafficking is inhibited through blocking glycosylation in the ER (Jeong

434   et al., 2020). Other organelles in the secretory pathway, such as the Golgi, have their

435   own stress sensors and response pathways (Machamer, 2015). Our results suggest

436   that disruption of trafficking outside the ER by targeting ARF-1 in the Golgi can also

437   initiate a stress response stimulating ILG induction.

438

439   Genes upregulated by pathogen exposure include both antimicrobial effectors and

440   many genes of unknown function (Estes et al., 2010; Troemel et al., 2006). Notably, the

441   ILGs enriched after membrane stress are primarily those of unknown function. Several

442   lines of evidence prompted us to hypothesize that some of these genes might be part of

443   a response linked to stress in membranes of the secretory pathway rather than a direct

444   response to an extrinsic pathogen. First, the involvement of secretory organs was

445   implicated by alterations in PC ratios in the ER/Golgi in both *sams-1* and *sbp-1* RNAi

446   lipidomes. Second, our targeted RNAi screen for regulators of p*sysm-1::GFP* identified

447   the *arf-1* GTPase and coatomer proteins, which are critical Golgi/ER transport.

448   Importantly, knockdown of *arf-1* was sufficient to induce ILG upregulation.

449   Strengthening this link between disruption of lipid levels and ARF-1 function, we also

450   found *sbp-1* RNAi altered ARF-1::RFP localization and Golgi morphology.

451

452   ARF-1 is a critical regulator of trafficking, coordinating retrograde traffic from the Golgi

453   to the ER and regulating secretory function in the trans-Golgi (Donaldson and Jackson,

454   2011). Cycling of ARF-1 GTPases depends on membrane localization of the ARF

455   GTPase, GEF, and GAP (GTPase activating protein) (Donaldson and Jackson, 2011).

456   We previously found that knockdown of PC synthesis enzymes blocked ARF1 cycling

457   and limited membrane association of the ARF GEF GBF1 in cultured human cells

458   (Smulan et al., 2016). This suggests low PC levels affect ARF1 activity by limiting the

459   ability of the GTPase, GEF, and GAP to associate at the Golgi membrane and initiate

460   GDP-GTP cycling. However, PC could be linked to ARF1 through other mechanisms.

461   ARF1 and phospholipase D (PLD) function have been linked by multiple labs (Riebeling

462   et al., 2009). PLD cleaves PC molecules to produce choline and phosphatidic acid,

463   which in turn stimulates vesicle formation (McDermott et al., 2004). This regulatory loop

464   requires PC, which is low in ER/Golgi membranes in *sams-1* and *sbp-1* RNAi animals.

465   DAG kinases, which could be stimulated by changes in DAGs in the *sbp-1* or *sams-*

466   *1(RNAi)* animals, can also affect ARF activity and trafficking (Huijbregts et al., 2000).

467   Finally, Protein Kinase D has an important role in maintaining Golgi structure, and its

468   ortholog has been linked to immunity in *C. elegans* (Malhotra and Campelo, 2011; Ren

469   et al., 2009). However, none of these components activated the p*sysm-1::GFP* reporter

470   in our RNAi screen, suggesting they could be important in other regulatory contexts.

471   Indeed, the breadth of change in the lipidomes after *sams-1* or *sbp-1* RNAi suggests

472   that other inputs could link lipids and ILG expression. In addition, other cellular

473   processes may also affect ILG expression either in basal conditions or during pathogen

474   infection. For example, there is a complex relationship between pathogen infection,

475   proteotoxic stress, and induction of ILGs (Reddy et al., 2017)

476

477   In conclusion, our data suggest that the ILG induction after both broad disruption in

478   membrane lipids and pathogen exposure occurs because both processes stress the

479   trafficking system. We also find that one the upregulated immune-linked genes, *hpo-6*,

480   can facilitate trafficking function. Our results suggest ILG induction may represent a

481   "multi-membrane" stress response encompassing the roles of both the ER and the

482   Golgi in trafficking. Many mammalian studies on the effect of lipids on innate immune

483   functions have focused on specific lipids as stimulators of signaling pathways (Barnett

484   and Kagan, 2019). Taken together, these results suggest that levels of specific

485   membrane lipids can initiate stress responses sensitive to trafficking defects, which

486   could impact immune function as well as other secretion-dependent processes. Cells

487   contain complex systems for managing stress in the initial organelle of the secretory

488   process, the ER, which may respond to disturbances in protein synthesis, aggregation,

489   or lipid imbalances with specific programs of gene expression (Costa-Mattioli and

490   Walter, 2020; Hotamisligil and Davis, 2016). Thus, the expression of ILGs may reflect a

491   broader stress response that affects multiple secretory organelles, as processes beyond

492   translation and folding are affected.

Experimental Model and Subject Details

C. elegans **strains, RNAi constructs, and screening**.

N2 (wild type), p*sym-1::GFP,* and OP50 were obtained from the *Caenorhabditis*

Genetics Center. CRISPR-tagged ARF-1, p*arf-1::arf-1::RFP,* was obtained from *In vivo*

Biosystems and outcrossed 3 times. Normal growth media (NGM) was used unless

otherwise noted. For RNAi, gravid adults were bleached onto NGM plates

supplemented with ampicillin, tetracycline, and 6mM IPTG and 10X concentrated

bacterial cultures. *C. elegans* were allowed to develop until the young adult stage

before harvesting. Because of larval arrest, *copa-1* RNAi bacteria were diluted 1:10 in

control RNAi bacteria before plating. For the RNAi screen, L1 larvae were plated into

96 well plates spotted with RNAi bacteria, and L4/young adults were scored from -3 to

+3 with 0 as no change in 4 independent replicates.

Cell culture and siRNA transfection

HepG2 cells (ATCC, HB-8065) were grown in Minimum Essential Medium (Invitrogen)

plus 10% FBS (Invitrogen), Glutamine (Invitrogen), and Sodium Pyruvate (Invitrogen).

siRNA oligonucleotides transfections were done for 48 hours using Lipofectamine

RNAiMAX Transfection Reagent (Invitrogen, 13778100), and cells were held for 16

hours in 1% Lipoprotein Deficient Serum (LDS) (Biomedical Technologies, BT907) and

25 µg/ml ALLN (Calbiochem) for 30 min prior to harvesting.

Immunoblotting:

515   **HepG2 cells:** Syringe passage was used to lyse cells in High Salt RIPA (50 mM Tris,

516   pH 7.4; 400 mM NaCl; 0.1% SDS; 0.5% NaDeoxycholate; 1% NP-40; 1 mM DTT, 2.5

517   µg/mL ALLN, Complete protease inhibitors (Roche). Invitrogen NuPage gels (4- 12%)

518   were used for protein separation before transfer to nitrocellulose. Blots were probed

519   with antibodies to phosphorylated p38 MAP Kinase, total p38, and STAT1 were used as

520   a control. Immune complexes were visualized with Luminol Reagent (Millipore).

521   Densitometry was performed by scanning the film, then analysis of pixel intensity with

522   ImageJ software. Graphs show the average of at least three independent experiments

523   with control values normalized to one.

524

525   *C. elegans:* Young adult animals were lysed by sonication in High Salt RIPA, and

526   immunoblotting was performed as above.

527

528   **Microscopy**

529   P*sysm*-1::GFP *C. elegans* strains were grown until the L4/young adult transition, and

530   images were acquired on a Zeiss Dissecting Scope with an Axiocam camera. ARF-

531   1::RFP and MANS-1::GFP images were acquired on a Leica SPE confocal, and

532   projections of confocal slices were produced. All images were taken at identical gain

533   settings within experimental sets, and Adobe Photoshop was used for corrections to

534   levels across experimental sets.

535

536   **Lipidomics**

537   *C. elegans* total and microsomal lipidomics, including fractionation protocols, were

538   performed at the Whitehead Metabolomics core as in Smulan et al. 2016. Statistical

539   analysis was performed in Graphpad prism.

540

541   **Gene expression analysis**

542   Lysis of young adult *C. elegans* was performed in 0.5% SDS, 5% β-ME, 10 mM EDTA,

543   10 mM Tris-HCl ph7.4, 0.5 mg/ml Proteinase K, before purification of RNA by TRI-

544   Reagent (Sigma). cDNA was produced with Transcriptor First-strand cDNA kits

545   (Roche), and RT-PCR was performed using Kappa SYBR Green 2X Mastermix.

546

547   RNA for sequencing was purified using RNAeasy columns (Qiagen). RNA sequencing

548   (including library construction was performed by BGI (Hong Kong). Reads were

549   analyzed through the Dolphin analysis platform (https://dolphin.umassmed.edu/), using

550   DeSeq to identify differentially expressed genes (Yukselen et al., 2020). Gene set

551   enrichment was performed using WormCat (www.wormcat.com) (Holdorf et al., 2019).

552
553

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Author Contributions

Conceptualization; AKW, CMW, LJS

Verification: AKW, CMW, LJS

Formal Analysis: AKW, CMW, LJS

Investigation: AKW, CMW, LJS, DL, MF

Resources: AKW

Data Curation: AKW

Writing: AKW

Writing/Editing: AKW, CMW, LJS,

Visualization: AKW

586   Supervision: AKW

587

588   Funding: AKW

589

Declaration of Interests

591   The authors declare no competing interests

592

593

594 **Figure Legends**

595 **Figure 1: Upregulation of immunity-linked genes occurs downstream of multiple**

596 **types of membrane lipid disruption.** WormCat gene set enrichment shows STRESS

597 RESPONSE (**A**) and STRESS RESPONSE: Pathogen (**B**) are upregulated in *lpin-1*

598 RNAi animals, as in *sams-1* and *sbp-1(RNAi)* animals (Ding et al., 2015). Legend is in

599 **C**. qRT-PCR shows that upregulation of an immunity-linked gene, *hpo-6*, in *sams-1(lof)*

600 animals is not dependent on *sbp-1* (**D**).

601

602 **Figure 2: Broad lipidomic changes in total and microsomal lipid compartments**

603 **after *sams-1* or *sbp-1* RNAi**. LC/MS lipidomics show that nearly a third of total lipid

604 species change after *sams-1* or *sbp-1* RNAi (**A, B**). Significant changes in major lipid

605 classes are mostly distinct in *sams-1* and *sbp-1* RNAi (**C, D**). See also **Figure S1** (**B,**

606 **D**) for lipid species distributions and additional lipid class analysis. The microsomal

607 (ER/Golgi) lipidome is also broadly altered after *sbp-1 RNAi* (**E**) and shows changes in

608 different lipid classes than in the total lipidome (**F, G**). Error bars show standard

609 deviation. Lipid class data is calculated by students T-Test. See Figure S1 for lipid

610 species distributions and additional lipid class analysis.

611

612 **Figure 3: Targeted RNAi screen reveals candidates linked to Golgi/ER trafficking**

613 **and ceramide/sphingomyelin synthesis impact immunity gene expression.** (**A**)

614 Immune gene reporter p*sysm-1*::GFP is increased after *sbp-1* RNAi. (**B**) Screen

615 schematic. (**C**) Schematic showing RNAi library coverage and screen candidates.

616 Epifluorescence imaging showing validation of reporter activity after RNAi of lipid PC

617   synthesis genes (**D**), SM synthesis genes (**E**) and the SCD *fat-7* (**F**). Epifluorescence

618   images showing GFP levels after RNAi of the *arf-1* GTPase or coatomer component

619   *copa-1* (**I**). Because of poor larval development, bacterial for *copa-1* RNAi was diluted

620   to 1:10. **J**. Epifluorescence images showing GFP levels genes linked to Golgi function.

621   For qRT-PCR, see **Figure S4.**

622

623   **Figure 4: Disruption of Golgi/ER trafficking increases expression of immunity-**

624   **related genes. A.** Scatter plot shows changes in gene expression after *arf-1* RNAi. **B.**

625   WormCat gene set enrichment chart shows an increase in stress response and

626   pathogen linked genes. **C.** Confocal projections of CRISPR tagged ARF-1::RFP reveal

627   that that Golgi-specific pattern is disrupted after *sbp-1* RNAi. Scale bar is 10 microns.

628   **D**. Confocal projections of the *C. elegans* Golgi marker MANS::GFP (Chen et al., 2006)

629   in Control, *sbp-1, arf-1,* and *copa-1 (1:10)* RNAi intestines. Scale bar is 10 microns.

630

631   **Figure 5: Immunity-linked genes are linked to trafficking disruption.** WormCat

632   gene enrichment of upregulated genes from *glp-1*(AA2735) (Steinbaugh et al., 2015)

633   and *vit-2(ac3)* compared to SJ4005 (Singh and Aballay, 2017)for Category 1 (**A**) and

634   Category 2 (**B**). Legend is in **C**. qRT-PCR comparing gene expression in wild type,

635   single copy *vit-2::GFP* (BCN9071, s) or multi copy (RT130, m) animals. **D** and **E** show

636   increase in GFP or *vit-2*. Immune response genes are shown in **F-I**. **J**. Confocal

637   images of body wall muscle cells expressing of the secretion marker *myo-3*::ssGFP. **K**.

638   Body wall muscle cells in imaged by confocal microscopy in *myo-3*::ssGFP; *sbp-1(ep79)*

639   animals.

640 **Supplemental information**

641 **Figure S1: Activation of Stress response pathways when PC synthesis is**

642 **disrupted. A.** WormCat analysis of microarray data from Koh, et al. 2018. **B.** The p38

643 MAP kinase MAPK14 is phosphorylated after siRNA of *PCYT1* in human hepatoma

644 cells. **C.** Constitutive phosphorylation of the *C. elegans* MAPK14 ortholog, PMK-1,

645 occurs after both *sams-1* and *sbp-1(RNAi)*.

646

647 **Figure S2: Broad lipidomic changes in total and microsomal lipid compartments**

648 **after *sams-1* or *sbp-1* RNAi**. **A.** Schematic showing effects of PC producing pathways

649 on ARF-1. Tables showing numbers lipid species within each class in the total lipidome

650 (**B**) or ER/Golgi lipidome in *sbp-1(RNAi)* animals (**D**). Green boxes denote classes in

651 which the distribution of the species within each RNAi significantly differed from controls

652 using the Wilcoxen test for non-parametric data. Levels of lipid classes in total *sams-1*

653 or *sbp-1* total lipidomics (**C**) or *sbp-1* ER/Golgi lipidomics (**E**).

654

655 **Figure S3: Candidates from lipid sub-library RNAi screen.** Table showing

656 candidates from quadruplicate screening of the RNAi sub-library along with other genes

657 selected as controls for the rescreen.

658

659 **Figure S4: Regulation of immunity-linked genes in conditions of membrane**

660 **disruption.** qRT PCR quantitating GFP upregulation after knockdown of Golgi

661 trafficking regulators **(A)** or lipid synthesis genes **(B)**. qRT-PCR from *psysm-1*::GFP (A-

662   H) or p*sysm-1*::GFP; *sbp-1(ep79)* (I-K) shows effects of disrupting *arf-1* or membrane

663   lipids on ILGs. Error bars show standard deviation.

664

665   **Figure S5: Shared upregulation of immunity linked genes in *sams-1, sbp-1* and**

666   ***arf-1* transcriptomic studies.** Venn diagrams showing limited overlap of up- (A) or

667   downregulated (**B**) genes after *sbp-1, sams-1* or *arf-1* RNAi. **C-D.** WormCat analysis

668   comparing overlapping gene sets from *arf-1, sbp-1* and *sams-1* upregulated genes.

669   Data for *arf-1* alone is the same as **Figure 4B**. Legend is in **E**. Confocal micrographs

670   showing minimal changes after *sptl-1* RNAi in of MANS::GFP (**F**) or ARF-1::RFP (**G**).

671   Bar show 10 microns.

672

673   **Figure S6: Reduction in *hpo-6* exacerbates *sams-1(lof)* trafficking defects.**

674   Confocal projections of *C. elegans* intestinal cells expressing *vit-2*::GFP (RT130) in wild

675   type or *sams-1(lof)* backgrounds.

676

677   **Table S1: Transcriptomics and gene set enrichment from *lpin-1(RNAi)* animals.** 2

678   fold upregulated genes in *lpin-1(RNAi)* animals. Gene set enrichment was performed

679   using WormCat (Holdorf et al., 2019).

680

681   **Table S2**: **Total lipidomics of *sams-1* and *sbp-1(RNAi)* animals and microsomal**

682   **lipidomics of *sbp-1(RNAi)* adults.** Datasets from two lipidomic studies. The first is

683   LCMS data normalized to total lipids compared between Control, *sbp-1,* and *sams-*

684   *1(RNAi)* adults. Tabs are labeled sams_sbp_Lipid class. The second dataset contains

685   LCMS from Control and *sbp-1(RNAi)* microsome preps from adult animals. Significance

686   of fold changes in individual lipids determined by students T-test.

687

688   **Table S3:** Results from the screen of the "lipid sub-library." Tabs 1 and 2 contain

689   averaged results from quadruplicate screening of *sysm-1*::GFP or *sysm-1::GFP; sbp-*

690   *1(ep79)*. The secondary screen contains averages from candidates selected from the

691   first screen, plus *fat-5, fat-6,* and *fat-7* as additional test RNAis. The secondary screen

692   was conducted in quadruplicate. ND is not done.

693

694   **Table S4**: Transcriptomic responses to trafficking disruption. RNAseq from control vs.

695   *arf-1/arf-1.2(RNAi)* animals (arf_1_all, arf_2Xup) and gene set enrichment analysis

696   produced in WormCat for Category 1, Category2 and Category3). WormCat analysis of

697   *vit-2*::GFP (Singh and Aballay, 2017)and *glp-1* (Steinbaugh et al., 2015) datasets.

698

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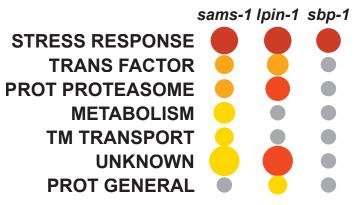
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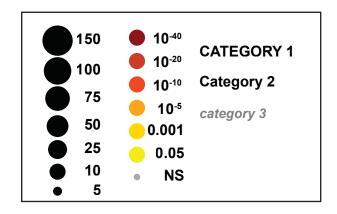867   *elegans*. J Cell Sci *126*, 4136–4146.

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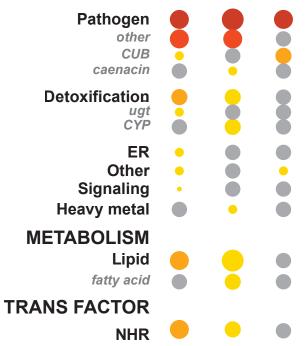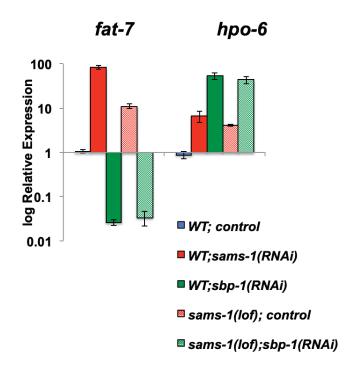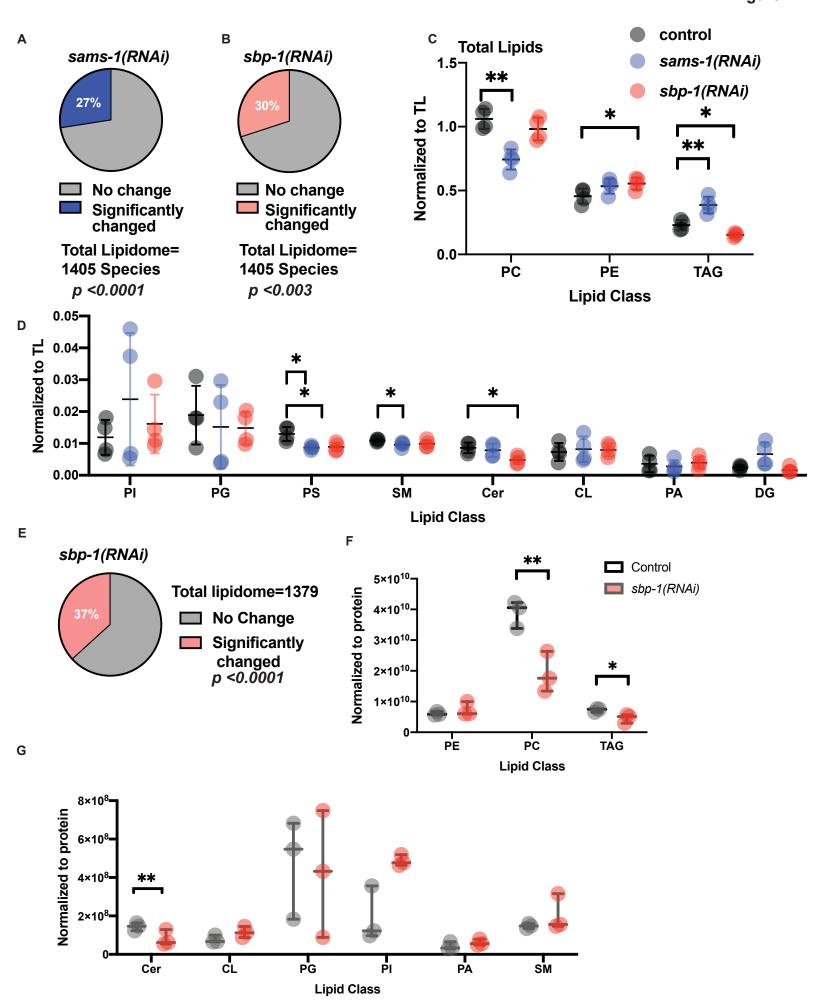
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Figure 1

A

WormCat Category 1 GSEA

B

WormCat Category 2/3 GSEA

C

D

Figure 2

A *sysm-1*::GFP

B Complex Lipid RNAi sublibrary 2.0 — 230 genes — *sysm-1*::GFP

C Screen Candidates

Phospho-lipids: *pcyt-1*, *pyct-2.2*, *ckb-3*

Trigly-cerides

Ceramides Sphingomyeleins: *sptl-1*, *sms-3*

Lipid Signaling: *nape-1*

Selected COPI/COPII, Trafficking Components: *arf-1*, *agef-1*, *copz-1*, *F32D8.4 (Yip1p)*, *copa-1*, *copb-1*, *copg-1*, *sar-1*, *syx-1*

Selected *sams-1* or *sbp-1* upregulated genes: *pmp-5*

D Control | *sbp-1* | *pcyt-1* | *pcyt-2* | *pcyt-2.2* — *sysm-1*::GFP

E Control | *sbp-1* | *ckb-3* — *sysm-1*::GFP

F Control | *sbp-1* | *sptl-1* — *sysm-1*::GFP

G Control | *sbp-1* | *sms-3* — *sysm-1*::GFP

H Control | *sbp-1* | *fat-6* — *sysm-1*::GFP

I Control | *sbp-1* | *arf-1* | *copa-1 (d)* — *sysm-1*::GFP

J Control | *sbp-1* | *F32D8.4* | *syx-1* — *sysm-1*::GFP

A

arf-1(RNAi)

CATEGORY 1

arf-1

Category 2

STRESS RESPONSE
Pathogen
Other
UNKNOWN
PROT PROTEASOME
PROT GENERAL

150   10^{-40}
100   10^{-20}
75   10^{-10}
50   10^{-5}
25   0.001
10   0.05
5   NS

C

ARF-1::RFP

Control

sbp-1

copa-1

D

MANS::GFP(Golgi)

Control   *arf-1*

sbp-1   *copa-1*