1	Ammonia excretion in Caenorhabditis elegans: Physiological and
2	molecular characterization of the rhr-2 knock-out mutant.
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Abstract

Previous studies have shown the free living soil nematode Caenorhabditis elegans (N2 strain) to
be ammonotelic. Ammonia excretion was suggested to take place partially <i>via</i> the hypodermis,
involving the Na^+/K^+ -ATPase (NKA), V-ATPase (VAT), carbonic anhydrase, NHX-3 and a
functional microtubule network and at least one Rh-like ammonia transporter RHR-1. In the
current study we show that a second Rh-protein, RHR-2, is highly expressed in the hypodermis,
here also in the apical membrane of that tissue. To further characterize the role of RHR-2 in
ammonia excretion, a knock-out mutant rhr -2($ok403$), further referred to as Δrhr -2, was
employed. Compared to wild-type worms (N2), this mutant showed a lower rate of ammonia
excretion and a lower hypodermal H ⁺ excretion rate. At the same time <i>rhr-1</i> , <i>nka</i> , <i>vat</i> , and <i>nhx-3</i>
showed higher mRNA expression levels when compared to N2. Also, in contrast to N2 worms,
Δrhr -2 did not show enhanced ammonia excretion rates when exposed to a low pH environment.
suggesting that RHR-2 represents the apical NH ₃ pathway that allows ammonia trapping via the
hypodermis in N2 worms. A hypothetical model for the mechanism of hypodermal ammonia
excretion is proposed on the basis of data in this and previous investigations.

Keywords: Rh-proteins, Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase, V-ATPase, NHX-3, ammonia trapping.

Introduction

Transmembrane transport of ammonia ¹ , the primary end product of protein catabolism
(Campbell, 1991), serves essential physiological functions that include the uptake of nitrogen in
animals living on a nitrogen poor diet (Weihrauch, 2006), the adjustment of acid-base
homeostasis (Fehsenfeld and Weihrauch, 2012; Weiner and Verlander, 2013) and the excretion
of nitrogenous waste in ammonotelic animals, such as fish and aquatic invertebrates (Larsen et
al., 2014; Weihrauch et al., 2009; Wright and Wood, 2009). Ammonia exists in a pH-dependent
equilibrium of NH ₃ and NH ₄ ⁺ and occurs predominantly in its ionic form at physiological pH
(7.2 - 8), given its pKa of approximately 9.3 (Cameron and Heisler, 1983). Due to its similar
size to K^+ ions when hydrated (Weiner and Hamm, 2007), NH_4^+ can serve as a substrate for
numerous K^+ transporting proteins and enzymes that includes the $Na^+\!/K^+$ -ATPase (Cruz et al.,
2013; Skou, 1960; Wood et al., 2013), H ⁺ /K ⁺ -ATPase (Swarts et al., 2005), K ⁺ channels (Choe
et al., 2000), and $Na^+/K^+/2Cl^-$ cotransporters (Good et al., 1984). In addition, NH_4^+ may also
substitute for alkali metal ions in cation/H ⁺ exchangers (Blaesse et al., 2010). The gaseous form
of ammonia, NH ₃ , on the other hand, cannot be actively transported across biomembranes, but
requires a partial pressure gradient ($\Delta P_{\rm NH3}$) and ideally a NH ₃ -permeable channel for
transmembrane passage. In animals, such NH3-channels have been identified to be glycosylated
proteins belonging to the Rhesus-protein family. These Rh-proteins are well conserved within
the animal kingdom (Huang and Peng, 2005) and are predicted to form trimeric complexes in
vivo, wherein each monomer allows the passage of NH ₃ (Gruswitz et al., 2010; Marini et al.,
2000). Since their discovery by Marini and coworkers (Marini et al., 2000), numerous studies

¹ In the present study "NH₃" refers to gaseous ammonia, "NH₄+" to the ionic form, and the term "ammonia" is the sum of both molecules.

have shown the importance of Rh-proteins in acid-base regulation and epithelial ammonia transport processes, which have been extensively reviewed (Huang and Ye, 2010; Nakhoul and Lee Hamm, 2013; Weihrauch et al., 2009; Weiner and Verlander, 2013; Wright and Wood, 2009; Wright et al., 2014). In many ammonia transporting epithelia, including the mammalian distal nephron, fish gills, and anal papillae of dipteran insect larvae, two Rh-proteins are found, one localized on the apical and the other on the basolateral cell membrane, respectively. In a recent study, the ammonia excretion mechanism across the hypodermis of the soil dwelling nematode C. elegans was investigated (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015). As in insects (Weihrauch et al., 2011), C. elegans also expresses two Rh-proteins, named RHR-1 and RHR-2. RHR-1 is expressed in many tissues of *C. elegans* but predominantly in the hypodermis (Ji et al., 2006). Moreover, RHR-1 shares high sequence similarity to other vertebrate and invertebrate Rhproteins and has been shown to function as an ammonia transporter when expressed in yeast (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015). The latter study also suggested that some ammonia is actively transported from the body fluids via the Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase into the cytoplasm of the hypodermal syncytium. A portion of the cytoplasmic ammonia is then believed to be trapped into acidified vesicles, which are then transported to the apical membrane for exocytotic release (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015). The lack of transcriptional alterations in response to internal ammonia loading suggested that RHR-1 serves as a housekeeping gene and is likely localized to the basal membrane of the hypodermis (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015). However, due to its unknown tissue localization and function, the role of the second Rh-protein, RHR-2, in the ammonia transport processes of the worm remains unresolved.

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Our earlier study suggested an ammonia trapping mechanism across the apical membrane of the hypodermis of the worm (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015). NH₃ channels in the apical membrane of the hypodermis are thus required for this mechanism to operate.

In the current investigation, tissue localization and potential functions of RHR-2 was investigated through the use of transgenic GFP (green fluorescence protein)-constructs as well as transport studies and gene-expression analysis in rhr-2 knock-out mutant, Δrhr -2.

Material and methods

Nematode cultures

The hermaphrodite wild-type *Caenorhabditis elegans* strain (N2) and RB651 *rhr*-2(*ok403*) knock out worm (Δ*rhr*-2) strain were obtained from the *Caenorhaditis* Genetics Center (CGC, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis) and maintained as described earlier (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015). Strains were maintained in the laboratory on Nematode Growth Medium (NGM) seeded with *Escherichia coli* OP50 at 16°C according to Brenner (Brenner, 1974). After revitalization, worms were washed from the plates with M9 buffer (in mmol I⁻¹: 22 KH₂PO₄, 43.5 Na₂HPO₄, 85.54 NaCl, and 3 MgSO₄, pH 7) and transferred aseptically into 250 mL of liquid medium (S-Basal, in mmol I⁻¹: 43 KH₂PO₄, 5.6 K₂HPO₄, and 97 NaCl, 0.92 citric acid monohydrate, 8.81 tri-potassium citrate monohydrate, 0.048 disodium EDTA, 0.024 FeSO₄.7H₂0, 0.015 MnCl₂.4H₂0, 0.017 ZnSO₄.7H₂0, 0.00097 CuSO₄.5H₂0, 2.92 CaCl₂, and 2.92 MgSO₄.). The liquid culture medium was enriched with "heat killed" *E. coli* OP50 as a food source and agitated (Innova 2000 platform-shaker, New Brunswick, Canada, RT) at 200 rpm for three days before worms were used in experiments. All experiments on living worms were

and all of exons six to nine removed and is the strongest loss-of-function allele available for this gene. Loss of sequence in the mutant strain was verified by PCR (figure S1). For genotypic analysis genomic DNA was extracted from the N2 or *rhr-2* (*ok403*) strains using a single worm lysis protocol. Twenty hermaphrodites were placed in 20 μL of worm lysis buffer (mmol l⁻¹: 50 KCl, 2.5 MgCl₂, 10 Tris-HCl pH 8.3, 0.45% Tween-20, 0.45% NP40 (IGEPAL), 0.01% gelatin and 1.0 mg/mL of Proteinase K), the worms were freeze thawed or stored at -80°C then incubated at 60°C for 90 minutes and 95°C for 15 minutes. Immediately following lysis 2 μL of the lysate was taken to the PCR reaction.

Plasmid construction

To create the pJDK4 transcriptional reporter construct *rhr-2p*::GFP, the entire upstream promoter region of *rhr-2* gene, sequences between the stop codon of the upstream gene (*npp-22*) to the ATG start codon of *rhr-2* gene was cloned into the pPD95.77 vector (a gift from Andrew Fire). The pJDK5 translational reporter, *rhr-2*::GFP, includes the above promoter region and the entire *rhr-2* genomic region fused in frame to GFP in the pPD95.77 vector. For pJDK4, the *rhr-2* promoter was PCR amplified using forward primers (oJDK9/CeRhr-2 SmaI F: GGGGCCCGGGGAAAATTCATACAACGTTTCCCA; oJDK11/CeRhr-2 AgeI R: GGGGACCGGTTCTGGAATTTTTCGTAGAAATTTA), and Phusion high-fidelity DNA polymerase (Thermo Scientific, Ottawa, ON, Canada). Further, both PCR fragments and pPD95.77 vector (deletion) were digested with the same FastDigest restriction enzymes (FastDigest kit, Thermo Scientific, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada) overnight at 37°C. The digested products were electrophoresed and purified using the gel extraction kit (QIAquick gel extraction kit, Qiagen Inc, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada). The resulting products were ligated (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) together overnight at 4°C, creating a transcriptional fusion product. Further,

the cloned product was transformed into chemically competent E. coli DH5α strain and grown in LB containing 100µg/mL ampicillin overnight at 37 °C. At the end of incubation period, colonies were screened by PCR for correct insertion. Vectors containing the rhr-2 promoter were isolated from the overnight culture using the Qiaprep Spin Miniprep kit (Qiagen, Mississauga, ON, Canada). pJDK5 was created using a three part PCR cloning approach. The promoter and genomic region was amplified from N2 genomic DNA using oJDK9/CeRhr-2 SmaI F: GGGGCCCGGGGAAAATTCATACAACGTTTCCCA and reverse primer oJDK8 GAAAAGTTCTCCTTTACTCATATAGATTTCCTGCATTTGCTCA creating a PCR fragment with the stop codon of the rhr-2 sequence (underlined) removed and fused in frame to the ATG of the GFP protein. The GFP protein was amplified from pPD95.77 using the forward complement of oJDK8, oJDK7 TGAGCAAATGCAGGAAATCTATATGAGTAAAGGAGAAGAACTTTTC and a vector specific reverse primer oJDK10 CAAGTTGGTAATGGTAGCGACC. The oJDK8/9 and oJDK7/10 PCR products were run on an agarose gel and gel extracted as above. The two isolated fragments were added in equimolar amounts to a third PCR and amplified using oJDK9 and oJDK10 primers. The resulting large PCR fragment and pPD95.77 vector were digested with SmaI and XhoI, gel extracted, ligated and transformed as described above. The fidelity of the pJDK4 transcriptional and pJDK5 translational plasmids were verified by Sanger sequencing (Robarts Research Institute, London, Ontario, Canada).

Microinjection

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The transcriptional construct (40 ng/μL) pJDK4 *rhr-2p*::GFP was co-injected with 40 ng/μL pRF4 (*rol-6(su1006*)), and 20 ng/μL pBSII) into the gonads of young adult hermaphrodites (N2). Rolling F1 progeny were selected and stable F2 lines were maintained.

The translational reporter pJDK5 *rhr*-2::GFP (90 ng/μL) was co-injected with pJH1774 *myo-3p*::mWORMCHERRY (10 ng/μL). Independent F2 transgenic lines were maintained through the selection of body wall muscle specific expression of mWORMCHERRY.

Immunohistochemistry and imagining of live transgenics were performed on JDK108 *korEx12* [pJDK5 *rhr*-2::GFP pJH1774 *myo-3p*::mWORMCHERRY].

Fluorescence microscopy

Animals from stable transgenic lines were placed on slides with 2% agar pads with 10 mmol I⁻¹ sodium azide or 10 mmol I⁻¹ levamisol. The animals transgenic for the transcriptional reporter, *rhr-2p*::GFP, were analyzed with a Zeiss Images A.1 compound microscope. Images were recorded and analyzed with Axiovision software (Zeiss, Toronto, Canada). Larvae and adults transgenic for the translational reporter, *rhr-2*::GFP and *myo-3p*::mWORMCHERRY, were analyzed using the Zeiss LSM700 scanning confocal. Serial z-plane sections were obtained using a 488 nm and 555 nm wavelength optimized emission filter and 585nM and 601nM diode laser to detect the GFP and mWORMCHERRY respectively. Sectioning depth and pinhole diameter (range 33-47 μm and 30-41 μm) were optimized for the objective magnification and detection of the two excitation wavelengths. z-planes of each optical series were processed using maximum z projections using ImageJ.

Nitrogen excretion experiments

Ammonia excretion rates were determined under the influence of various pH regimes in a series of short-term (2 h) experiments. N2 or Δrhr -2 worms (0.1-0.15 g) from liquid culture were washed twice with control medium (in mmol l⁻¹: 22 KCl, 129 NaCl, 1 MgSO₄, adjusted to pH 7) followed each time by a centrifugation step (188 x g, 1 min at room temperature). After the

washing steps, worms were then exposed either to control media adjusted to pH 7, low pH media (control media enriched with 5 mmol l⁻¹ 2-(N- orpholino) ethanesulfonic acid (MES), adjusted to pH 5), or high pH media (control media enriched with 5 mmol l⁻¹ tris (hydroxymethyl) aminomethane hydrochloride (Tris-HCl), adjusted to pH 8.0) for two hours. During the two hour incubation period, worms were agitated (Innova 2000 platform-shaker, New Brunswick, Canada) at 200 rpm. At the end of the incubation period, worms were pelleted by centrifugation (188 x g, 3 min) to determine a fresh worm mass and the collected supernatant of the respective media was immediately frozen at -80 °C for later analysis of total ammonia and urea concentrations.

Determination of ammonia and urea by NH3-selective electrode

Ammonia concentration in samples was measured using a gas-selective NH₃ electrode (Thermo Orion (ORI9512BNWP), Beverly, USA) connected to a mV/pH meter as described for the previous study on ammonia excretion in *C. elegans*. All media for the standards curves were prepared at the same time with identical composition and pH as the experimental media (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015). Urea concentration was measured in an aliquot of the sample treated with 10 unit/ml of urease type II (Sigma, Saint Louis, USA), which catalyzes the conversion of urea to ammonia and bicarbonate. Total ammonia (*i.e.* background plus ureaderived ammonia) was determined after 30 minutes incubation at room temperature. The urea concentration was then determined by subtracting background ammonia (measured in a parallel sample) from total ammonia. The resulting value was then divided by 2 to obtain the urea concentration of the sample. Standard curves were made with the respective experimental solutions, enriched with known concentrations of NH4Cl.

Ouantitative real-time PCR

RNA was isolated from worms after each experiment described in the figure legends. Total RNA was isolated from N2 and Δ*rhr*-2 mutants using the RNeasy plus Mini Kit (Qiagen Inc, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada) under RNase-free conditions. RNA samples were treated with DNase I (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) to remove any genomic DNA contamination. The treated RNA was then tested for genomic DNA by a 40 cycle PCR, employing the primer pair CeActin-F/R primer pair listed in Table 1.

Integrity of RNA was checked by both gel electrophoresis and spectrophotometric quantification (Nanodrop 2000C, Nanodrop Technologies, Wilmington, DE, USA). Subsequently, DNase treated total RNA (0.3 µg) was reverse transcribed into cDNA using Superscript II reverse transcriptase and oligo-dT primer (iScriptTM cDNA Synthesis Kit, Biorad, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada). The quality of cDNAs was tested before quantitative PCR by standard PCR (CeActin-F/R) followed by gel electrophoresis and product visualization using ethidium bromide. PCR protocols were optimized for each gene (Table 1) and correctness of the respective PCR products was verified by sequencing (Robarts Research Institute, London, Ontario, Canada).

Standard curves for qPCR were generated utilizing a dilution series of known quantities $(10^{+3}, 10^{+2}, 10^{+1}, 10^{+0}, 10^{-1} \text{ fg DNA})$ of the respective purified PCR product (QIAquick PCR Purification Kit, Qiagen Inc, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada) of the target gene, with R^2 values ≥ 0.98 . All primers, annealing temperatures and PCR product size values are listed in table 1. SSoFastTM EvaGreen supermix (Biorad, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada) and a Biorad MiniOpticon RT-PCR machine (Miniopticon, Biorad, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada) were used for qPCR. Single product amplification was verified at the end of the reaction by means of

melting curve analysis.

Measurements of H^+ flux using the scanning ion electrode technique (SIET)

Worms were bathed in moderately hard reconstituted water (MHRW) (Khanna et al., 1997) containing (in mmol l⁻¹): 1 NaCl, 1 NaHCO₃, 0.3 CaCl₂ and 0.1 KCl. Levamisole (0.5 mmol l⁻¹) was added to all media to minimize worm movements during SIET measurements, as described previously (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2014). Net transport of H⁺ produced small concentration differences in [H⁺] in the unstirred layer next to the surface of the worm. H⁺ concentration gradients within the unstirred layer near the surface of the worm were determined from measurements of H⁺-selective microelectrode voltage using the following equation:

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$$\Delta C = C_B 10^{(\Delta V/S)} - C_B$$

where ΔC is the concentration gradient between the two points (μ mol cm⁻³); C_B is the background H^+ concentration (μ mol cm⁻³), calculated as the average of the concentrations at each point; ΔV is the voltage gradient (μV); and S is the slope of the electrode (μV) for a 10-fold change in ion concentration bracketing the range of interest. The concentration gradient was subsequently converted into an estimate of H^+ flux using Fick's first law of diffusion:

$$J_{H^+} = D_{H^+} \Delta C / \Delta x$$

where J_{H+} is the net flux of the ion (pmol cm⁻² s⁻¹), D_{H+} is the H^+ diffusion coefficient (9.31×10⁻⁵ cm² s⁻¹) and Δx is the distance between the two points measured (cm). H^+ fluxes were corrected for the effects of buffering by H_2O and HCO_3^- using equations published previously (Messerli et al., 2006). SIET methods and H^+ -selective microelectrode fabrication and calibration have been described in our earlier paper (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2014). At each site along the hypodermis, fluxes were calculated based on the mean of 3 replicate measurements. For each worm, fluxes

were measured at 5 or more sites separated by $20-25~\mu m$. A mean value for H⁺ flux across the hypodermis of each worm was then calculated from the mean values at each site; n values reported in the results indicate the number of worms.

Enzyme activities

Frozen worms were homogenized in approximately 8 volumes of ice-cold 50 mmol 1⁻¹ imidazole buffer (pH 7.4 at 20°C) using a ground-glass homogenizer. Homogenates were employed directly for measuring enzyme activities, or frozen (-80°C) for later determination of protein content. Enzyme assays were performed at 20°C. Cytochrome c oxidase was measured at 550 nm with a Agilent Cary 100 spectrophotometer (Mulgrave, Australia) in a medium of 50 mmol 1⁻¹ potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0 at 20°C), 0.5% (w/v) sodium dodecyl-maltoside and 60 µmol 1⁻¹ of reduced (equine) cytochrome c. The difference in the rate of absorbance change due to the presence of 1 mmol ⁻¹ KCN was taken as the rate of cytochrome c oxidase activity. Citrate synthase activity was measured as the difference in the rate of absorbance change at 412 nm between the presence and absence of 1.0 mmol ⁻¹ oxaloacetate in an assay medium consisting of 50 mmol ⁻¹ imidazole (pH 8.0 at 20°C), 0.5 mmol ⁻¹ o, 5,5'-dithiobis-(2-nitrobenzoic acid), 0.1 mmol ⁻¹ acetyl-CoA and 0.2% (v/v) of triton X-100. Protein was measured using the bicinchoninic acid assay in the presence of 0.2 % (w/v) sodium deoxycholate using bovine serum albumin as the protein standard.

Chemicals

All chemicals and reagents used in this study were purchased from either Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA) or Fisher Scientific (Ottawa, Ontario, Canada) unless reported otherwise.

Statistical Analysis

For SIET measurements, n represents the number of individual worms. For other measurements, each n value represents the combined pooled worms with a total mass of ca. 0.1-0.15 g. Results have been reported as mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM). Differences in nitrogen excretion rates, enzymatic activities and absolute mRNA expression patterns between control and treatments were evaluated by unpaired Student's t-tests. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by significant difference with Tukey's post-hoc test was used to analyze the data shown in figure 3A. Significance of differences was accepted at p \leq 0.05 in all statistical analyses. The statistical method used in each particular experiment is given in the respective figure legends.

Results

GFP expression activated by the *rhr-2* promotor indicated that RHR-2 is expressed predominantly in the hypodermis, with additional abundance observed in the ventral nerve cord and body wall muscles (figure 1A). Transgenic animal expressing the RHR-2::GFP fusion protein expressed under its own promoter showed strong GFP expression in the hypodermis of adult *C. elegans* (figure 1B) as well as mid-staged larvae (figure 1C-F). In these transgenic animals the body wall muscle cells express mCHERRY as a transgenic marker. Co-localization of RHR-2::GFP and mCHERRY suggests that RHR-2 is also expressed in the body wall muscles. In *C. elegans*, the striated body wall muscles consist of four rows of muscle fibers (Altun and Hall, 2009b). Two rows juxtapose the ventral nerve cord and two juxtapose the dorsal nerve cord. The muscle cells directly contact the hypodermis in these regions. Therefore

the lateral regions of the hypodermis is where the subcellular localization of the RHR-2::GFP protein is localized. In figure 1E and F optical sections through the medial-lateral aspects of hypodermis the larvae can be seen. Sections through the large nuclei of the hypodermis (figure 1E) show RHR-2::GFP expression in the perinuclear space of the cell as well as concentration at the apical surface. In optical sections where the hypodermis is in contact with the body wall muscle, basolateral expression of the RHR-2::GFP protein in the hypodermis cannot be clearly distinguished. The hypodermis of *C. elegans* is a multinucleate syncytium (Altun and Hall, 2009a) with adherens junctions located only at the lateral seam cells. This small area of non-RHR-2::GFP expressing hypodermal cells (figure 1B) make the use of apical junction markers technically difficult.

To evaluate whether the hypodermal expressed Rh-proteins, RHR-1 and RHR-2, are involved in chronic acid-base regulation, gene-expression levels were monitored in animals acclimated for 2 days to either pH 5.5 or pH 8. Messenger RNA expression levels of rhr-1, rhr-2, as well of the vat (subunit A) did not change in either pH when compared to control values (animals acclimated to pH 7 (non-buffered)). A slight up-regulation in mRNA expression was observed only for the nka (α -subunit) after a two-day acclimation to pH 8 (figure 2). Absolute gene expression values are provided in the supplemental table S1.

The Δrhr -2 mutant

There were no noticeable differences between the N2 phenotype and the Δrhr -2 mutant (Ji et al., 2006), with the exception found in the current study that adult Δrhr -2 mutants tend to be smaller (max. 0.9 mm) compared to N2 worms (1.12-1.15 mm).

To assess whether RHR-2 is involved in nitrogen excretion, the *rhr*-2 knock-out mutant strain (Δrhr -2) was employed. In comparison to ammonia excretion values measured in fed N2 worms in a previous study (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015), ammonia excretion rates were approximately 82% lower in fed Δrhr -2 worms, whereas corresponding urea excretion rates were 95% lower in the mutant (figure 3A, 3B).

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To further characterize the Δrhr -2 strain, hypodermal H⁺ fluxes across the hypodermis were measured using SIET. As seen in figure 4, compared to N2, hypodermal H⁺ efflux was reduced in Δrhr -2 by about 50% (n = 5).

During the ammonia and H⁺ efflux experiments the worms began in the fed state and thus the majority of excretion will likely reflect dietary intake and excess or acid formation as a result of metabolism. Therefore, taking the assumed balance between nutrient intake and deposition in tissues or excretion the reduction in ammonia and H $^+$ efflux rates in the Δrhr -2 mutant relative to N2 worms could have been a consequence of decreased nutrient intake that reflects a general reduction in metabolic rate. To investigate this possibility, enzyme activity measurements on cytochrome c oxidase and citrate synthase were conducted in fed control N2 worms and the Δrhr -2 strain. As shown in figure 5, the activity of cytochrome c oxidase was reduced by more than 50%, consistent with lower maximal mitochondrial respiratory capacity and possibly lower aerobic metabolic activity. However, the activity of citrate synthase showed no difference between N2 and the Δrhr -2 strain. The lack of change in citrate synthase activity may reflect the multifaceted role of the Krebs cycle, including both the supply of electrons for oxidative phosphorylation as well as anaplerosis of carbon intermediates during growth. Future metabolic characterization of the Δrhr -2 strain should be considered to further address the biochemical impact of losing the RHR-2 protein function.

The Δrhr -2 strain still exhibited detectable ammonia excretion, albeit at reduced rates. To test whether the hypodermal ammonia trapping described in N2 worms (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015) also occurred in the mutants, Δrhr -2 worms were exposed to an environmental pH of 5. The results showed that ammonia excretion rates remained unaltered under reduced pH. In contrast, when Δrhr -2 worms were exposed to pH 8.5, ammonia excretion rates decreased by approximately 45% (figure 3A).

The importance of RHR-2 in ammonia transport was further investigated by monitoring changes of expression levels of genes known to be involved in the process. As figure 6 shows, mRNA expression levels of *rhr-1*, *nka*, *vat* and *nhx-3* were higher in fed $\Delta rhr-2$ when compared to fed N2 worms. Only the housekeeping sodium-hydrogen exchanger, *nhx-4*, showed a minor down-regulation in the $\Delta rhr-2$ strain. Moreover, internal ammonia loads due to feeding caused a substantial up-regulation of *rhr-1*, *nka*, *vat*, *nhx-3* and *nhx-4* in the $\Delta rhr-2$ strain, when compared to starved animals (figure 7). Absolute gene expression values for these experiments are provided in the supplemental table S2 and S3, respectively.

Discussion

This paper examined the role of RHR-2 in hypodermal ammonia excretion in *C. elegans*. As shown in figure S1, RHR-2 shares a high level of sequence homology (44% identity in amino acid sequence) to the functionally characterized RHR-1 ammonia transporter in *C. elegans* and contains, in common with RHR-1 and other ammonia transporting Rh-proteins, the conserved amino acid residues crucial for ammonia conductance (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015; Zidi-Yahiaoui et al., 2009). Accordingly, an NH₃ transport function is strongly suggested also for RHR-2. An earlier study revealed that mRNA expression levels of *rhr*-2, but not *rhr*-1, were up-

regulated in response to internal ammonia loads after feeding, suggesting an important role of RHR-2 in ammonia excretion processes (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015). Indeed, expression *rhr-2* promotor activated GFP and the subcellular localization *rhr-2*::GFP translational fusion protein clearly showed that RHR-2 is strongly expressed in the hypodermis (figure 1), underpinning its potential function in hypodermal ammonia excretion.

Localization a RHR-2::GFP fusion protein was verified in the apical membrane of the hypodermis in transgenic animals expressing RHR-2::GFP protein worms (figure 1F). The RHR-2::GFP is also detected in the four quadrants of body wall muscles underlying the hypodermis in the larval and adult stages (Figure 1A, B and C). The function of RHR-2 expression in the muscle tissue is unknown but a basal location of the protein in the regions where the hypodermis and muscle cells come into direct contact was not optically discernable and therefore is also possible in these regions of the hypodermis. In addition to an apical localization a RHR-2::GFP is associated with the periphery of the nucleus. Further studies on the subcellular localization of the RHR-2 protein may clarify the potential for trafficking of the receptor from the Golgi apparatus to the apical surface of the hypodermal cells.

rhr-2 showed an mRNA up-regulation after feeding or after the exposure to high environmental ammonia (HEA) (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015) similar to the apically localized Rhcg-2 in the gill epithelia of freshwater rainbow trout (Zimmer et al., 2010). Also, in contrast to N2 worms, which showed increased ammonia excretion rates when exposed to pH 5, likely due to apical ammonia trapping (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015), ammonia excretion rates in the Δrhr -2 strain remained unchanged in a low pH environment (figure 3A). This result could well be explained by a missing NH₃ pathway, possibly RHR-2, in the apical membrane of the hypodermis. In addition, mRNA expression levels of rhr-2 are ca. 10 times lower overall, in

comparison to *rhr-1* (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015). A similar reduction in expression levels of ~ 10-fold was also found in the skin of *Xenopus laevis* for Rhcg, when compared to Rhbg (Cruz et al., 2013) and in the skin of the Magadi tilapia *Alcolapia graham* (Rhbg vs. Rhcg1) (Wood et al., 2013). Although not shown for the frog skin specifically, in vertebrate species Rhbg is usually localized to the basolateral membrane of epithelial cells (Han et al., 2013; Verlander et al., 2003; Weihrauch et al., 2009; Wright and Wood, 2009).

Interestingly, mRNA expression levels of both *rhr-1* and *rhr-2* did not change significantly when animals were exposed chronically to pH 5.5 or pH 8.

This might imply that both Rh-proteins are not substantially involved in the regulation of acid or base homeostasis. However, the Rh-protein substrates ammonia and possibly CO2 can be considered as acid-base equivalents and accordingly, a putative role of RHR-1 and RHR-2 in acid-base homeostasis is possible. Likewise, it is possible that the constitutive abundance of the actual transporter proteins is sufficient to maintain their regular function also in the face of changing environmental pH conditions.

Moreover, as predicted for RHR-2, Rhcg-2 in trout gills is also apically localized and its mRNA expression levels do not change significantly when fish are exposed for 2 days to an alkaline pH (Sashaw et al., 2010), implying again a similar localization and role of these two Rh-proteins in the ammonia excretion process.

The lack of response seen for *rhr-1* and *rhr-2* mRNA expression under the influence of low and high environmental pH regimes stands in contrast to our recent observation investigating epithelial cation/proton exchangers in *C. elegans*. In response to exposure to pH 5.5 and 8, a significant up-regulation of mRNA for *nhx-3* in the hypodermis and *nhx-2* in the apical

membrane of the intestine was observed, and a concomitant down-regulation of *nhx-9*, expressed in the excretory cell (Adlimoghaddam pers. communication). This is an indication that the NHEs in *C. elegans* are key players in cellular and organismal acid-base homeostasis, as shown for many other animal systems (Orlowski and Grinstein, 2004; Zachos et al., 2005).

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The Δrhr -2 mutant as a system to investigate the role of RHR-2 in ammonia transport

The Δrhr -2 strain used in our studies is predicted to remove or disrupt function in seven of the eight highly conserved amino acid residues predicted to be required for RHR-2 pore formation and specific interaction with the ammonia molecule (figure S1). Our results indicate that protein metabolism in the Δrhr -2 strain was compromised or slowed, as evident from the reductions in the rates of ammonia excretion and hypodermal H⁺ excretion, as well as from the lower specific activity of cytochrome c oxidase. On the other hand the mutant revealed no drastic changes in its phenotype, except for a slightly shorter body length. In fact, experiments employing the Δrhr -2 mutant strain provided useful information regarding the role of Δrhr -2 in the ammonia excretion processes in C. elegans. Mutant worms showed an up-regulation of rhr-1, nka (α-subunit) and vat (subunit A), transcripts of transporters known to be involved in the ammonia excretion mechanism in C. elegans (figure 6) (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015). We suggest that up-regulation of these transporters is a compensatory response to the lack of the hypodermal ammonia transporter, as is the increase in mRNA levels for hypodermalexpressed nhx-3. NHX-3 is localized in intracellular plasma membrane vesicles (Nehrke and Melvin, 2002) and was also up-regulated in N2 worms after an internal ammonia load due to feeding (Adlimoghaddam per. communication). NHX-4 is ubiquitously expressed and targeted to the basolateral membrane, and likely functions as a housekeeping gene, similar to the

mammalian NHE-1 (Nehrke and Melvin, 2002). The observed down-regulation of nhx-4 in the mutant may thus be explained by the reduction in metabolism in the Δrhr -2 strain relative to N2 worms. Note, it must be mentioned that changes of the gene transcripts were significant but rather small. A follow-up study employing custom made antibodies must verify that corresponding proteins show indeed changes in abundance.

When starved Δrhr -2 mutant worms were refed, all investigated transporter genes showed a strong up-regulation on the transcript level (figure 7). The observed up-regulation of these genes was several times higher than that seen in earlier studies of fed N2 worms (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015). Importantly, while mRNA expression levels of rhr-1 in N2 worms were unaffected by feeding, feeding of Δrhr -2 mutants caused a more than 12-fold up-regulation of rhr-1 mRNA, underpinning a possibly greater importance for this protein when the second hypodermal ammonia transporter, RHR-2, is lacking. In turn, this result emphasizes the overall importance of RHR-2 in excretion of ammonia across the hypodermis.

Conclusion

Our data indicate a central role for RHR-2 in hypodermal ammonia excretion and suggest strongly that RHR-2 resides in the apical of this tissue and possibly also in the basolateral membrane. Moreover, experiments employing the Δrhr -2 mutant verified the importance of other transporters, such as RHR-1, Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase, V-ATPase and NHX-3 in ammonia excretion, as suggested also in earlier studies. A working model for the hypodermal ammonia excretion mechanisms incorporates findings from both, this current study and previous work on *C. elegans* (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015) (figure 8). The hypothetical model proposes that NH₄⁺ from the body fluids enters the hypodermis *via* the Na⁺/K⁺ (NH₄⁺)-ATPase, as the enzyme

accepts also NH₄⁺ as a substrate (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015). In addition, NH₃ may also enter via RHR-1 and/or RHR-2 on the basolateral membrane, depending on the prevailing $\Delta P_{\rm NH3}$. It is likely that the Rh-proteins also serve as entrance pathways for CO₂, based on studies of Rhesus protein function in other animals (Endeward et al., 2008; Kustu and Inwood, 2006; Perry et al., 2010). Intracellular ammonia occurs in a pH-dependent equilibrium of NH₄⁺ and NH₃ + H⁺. Protons produced by the action of carbonic anhydrase are transported via an apically localized V-ATPase into the multilayered cuticle (unstirred boundary layer)(Peixoto and De Souza, 1995), thereby generating a partial pressure gradient for NH₃ (ΔP_{NH3}). According to the current study, some NH₃ follows the $\Delta P_{\text{NH}3}$ via the apically localized RHR-2 and is trapped outside as NH₄⁺. In addition to this mechanism, NH₃ may follow ΔP_{NH3} into intracellular vesicles that are acidified by NHX-3 and/or a V-ATPase. Whether NH₃ crosses the vesicular membrane via simple diffusion or also via an NH₃-channel awaits further investigations. As excretion was inhibited by colchicine (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015) it is further suggested that the NH₄⁺ laden vesicles are then transported along the microtubule network to the apical membrane, where NH₄⁺ is released by exocytosis.

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An intriguing aspect of the hypothesized hypodermal ammonia excretion mechanism in *C. elegans* is its dual nature; the model incorporates both the apical ammonia trapping mechanisms found in the transporting epithelia of freshwater organisms, such as the trout gill (Wright and Wood, 2009) or the body surface of planarians and leeches (Quijada-Rodriguez et al., 2015; Weihrauch et al., 2012), as well as the vesicular transport of ammonia found in brackish/seawater water dwelling invertebrates, as described for the gills of the green crab *Carcinus maenas* (Weihrauch et al., 2002). The nematode's habitat (soil) might indeed demand physiological adaptations that have led to a co-existence of the two excretory mechanisms.

Sodium concentrations of the water film around soil particles can be quite low (< 6 mmol kg $^{-1}$) (Haynes and Williams, 1992), and, as a consequence, an active secretion of cations (protons) may be required to hyperpolarize the apical membrane in order to drive Na $^{+}$ uptake from a Na $^{+}$ -poor environment. Such a mechanism is commonly found in the osmoregulatory epithelia of freshwater species (Larsen et al., 2014). Apical secretion of H $^{+}$, as shown for the hypodermis of *C. elegans*, will also create a $\Delta P_{\rm NH3}$ and promote apical ammonia excretion. To function to its fullest extent, this apical ammonia trapping mechanism requires a "strong" unstirred boundary layer, where proton gradients could be sustained and therefore consequently also an environment with low buffer capacity. Compared to freshwater, however, soil may have a very high buffer capacity (Federer and Hornbeck, 1984). Vesicular transport, as found in gills of marine crustaceans, may thus be advantageous for soil nematodes since it provides an additional ammonia excretion mechanism that is relatively independent of environmental pH.

Acknowledgements

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Table 1: Primers employed in qPCR targeting actin, Rhesus (Rh)-like ammonia transporter (*rhr-1, rhr-2*), *vat* (subunit A), *nka* (α-subunit), *nhx-3* and *nxh-4* from the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*.

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Primer	Nucleotide sequence $(5^{\circ} \rightarrow 3^{\circ})$	Annealing Temp. (°C)	Product size (bp)	GenBank Acc. #
Actin				
CeActin-F	ATCGTCCTCGACTCTGGAGAT	60		
CeActin-R	TCACGTCCAGCCAAGTCAAG	60	100	NM_073417
Rhr-1				
CeRhr-1 F	TTCTTGTCTGAGAAACTCGGA	60		
CeRhr-1 R	GATTGCCATAAGCTGGTTCAA	60	210	NM_072035
Rhr-2				
CeRhr-2 F	ACAGTGGTAGATCTCTTTCC	60		
CeRhr-2 R	CGTGCATCTTCTGGTTCTTG	60	205	NM_073560
Na+/K+-ATPase				
CeNKA F	GACCTCGGAACTGACATGGT	60		
CeNKA R	CCCATAAGCAAGGGAGATCA	60	135	U18546
H ⁺ -ATPase				
CeVHA F	CTTGAAGGCTCGTGAAGACC	60		
CeVHA R	ACGACTTCCTTTTCGAGCAA	60	150	NM_068639

Table S1: Absolute mRNA expression values for *rhr-1*, *rhr-2*, *nka* (α-subunit) and *vat* (subunit A) in *C. elegans* (N2) starved for 24 hours. The values in brackets represent the numbers of biological replicates.

		rhr-1	rhr-2	nka	vat ⁶³⁷
			(fg cDNA ng	⁻¹ total RNA)	
N2	X	6.4 (5)	0.19 (5)	69.1 (5)	44.4 (3)
	SEM	0.5	0.03	5.3	3.7
pH 5.5	X	6.0 (5)	0.24 (4)	65.3 (5)	52.2 63 9
	SEM	0.2	0.038	7	3.5
pH 8	X	7.5 (4)	0.2 (5)	95.6 (5)	50.8640
	SEM	0.9	0.02	9.5	4.8

Table S2: Absolute mRNA expression values for rhr-1, nka (α -subunit) and vat (subunit A), nhx-3 and nhx-4 in fed C. elegans (N2) and rhr-2 knock-out mutants, $\Delta rhr-2$. Data correspond to figure 6. The values in brackets represent the numbers of biological replicates.

		rhr-1	nka	vat	nhx-3	nhx-40	
			(fg cDNA ng ⁻¹ total RNA)				
N2	X	36.1 (4)	375 (4)	262.8 (3)	1.1 (3)	35.6(5)	
	SEM	2.2	9.5	1.1	0.13	2	
Δrhr -2	X	49.1 (4)	682.2 (4)	482.0 (4)	2.4 (4)	22.8 66 9	
	SEM	3.2	26.0	15.2	0.16	2.0	

Table S3: Absolute mRNA expression values for rhr-1, nka (α -subunit) and vat (subunit A), nhx-3 and nhx-4 in fed and starved (24 hours) $\Delta rhr-2$. Data correspond to figure 7. The values in brackets represent the numbers of biological replicates.

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		rhr-2	nka	vat	nhx-3	nhx-4
			(fg cDNA ng ⁻¹ total RNA)			
Δrhr -2	X	49.1 (4)	682.2 (4)	482.0 (4)	2.4 (4)	22.8 (4)
	SEM	3.2	26.0	15.2	0.16	2.687
Δrhr -2 (starved)	X	3.8 (4)	23.4 (4)	111.0 (4)	0.17 (4)	3.0 (4)
	SEM	0.8	4.5	21.4	0.03	0.9
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Figure legends:

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Figure 1: A) Adult transgenic C. elegans with rhr-2 promotor activated GFP expression. GFP expression is observed in the hypodermis and ventral nerve cord (white arrow head). Head is oriented to the left. Scale bar = $50 \,\mu m$. B-F) Transgenic C. elegans expressing rhr-2 promoter driven RHR-2::GFP protein (green) and muscle-specific myo-3 promoter activated mCHERRY (red). (B) Left lateral surface of young adult shows strong RHR-2::GFP expression in the surface. Head is to the left. Body wall muscles also express RHR-2::GFP, as detected by coexpression of mCHERRY, as well as the spermathecal, vulva, ventral nerve cord and a subset of head neurons. Scale bar 50 µm. Bottom Left: detail of hypodermal RHR-2::GFP expression (200 μm in width). RHR-2 is detected in the dorsal and ventral hypodermal cells. Protein is absent from lateral seam cells (open arrow head). C) Dorsal view of a mid-staged larvae expressing RHR-2::GFP and myo-3p::mCHERRY. RHR-2::GFP is detected in the hypodermis, body wall muscle and two head neurons (white arrow head). Scale bar 20 µm. D-F) Serial optical sections through the dors al-ventral plane of a mid-staged larvae. Scale bar 10 µm D) z-projection of serial optical sections of the left lateral aspect of the worm (depth 5.43 µm). RHR-2::GFP is detectable in the dorsal muscle cells and hypodermis (open arrows). E) z-projection of RHR-2::GFP expressing tissues below the muscle cells 1.55 µm in depth. The central intestine of the larvae is visible. RHR-2::GFP expression is obvious in the hypodermis (open arrows). F) 43 µm by 18 µm detail. z-projection of single cells 0.78 µm depth. Apical surface of the hypodermis is facing the top of the figure. The large nuclei of two of the hypodermal cells can be seen (asterisks). RHR-2::GFP can been seen concentrated at the apical surface (open arrow heads) as well as surrounding the nuclei of the hypodermal cells.

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Figure 2: Changes of mRNA expression levels of *rhr-1* (n=4-5), *rhr-2* (n=5), *nka* (α-subunit) (n=4-5) and *vat* (subunit A) (n=4-5) in *C. elegans* after a 2 day exposure to pH 5.5 (A) and pH 8.0 (B). Absolute mRNA expression levels of control animals exposed to a non-buffered saline (pH 7) were set to 1 and are indicated by the dotted line. All groups were starved for 24 hours

before RNA isolation. The asterisk (*) indicates significant differences between treatments and respective controls (p \leq 0.05). Data represent means \pm SEM and were analyzed employing an unpaired, two-tailed Student's t-test prior to calculation for fold change values.

Figure 3: Ammonia (A) and urea (B) excretion rates in wild type (N2) and Δrhr -2 C. elegans. Ammonia excretion rates (n=31) and urea excretion rates (n=4) are represented by black bars (Adlimoghaddam et al., 2015). The asterisks (*) indicate significant differences between N2 and Δrhr -2 (open bars, n=4-6) under control conditions (p \leq 0.05) and here data were analyzed employing an unpaired, two-tailed Student's t-test. In A ammonia excretion rates of Δrhr -2 are shown for worms exposed to control conditions (open bar) and during a 2 hour exposure to pH 5.5 and 8.0, respectively (gray bars). Here for statistical analysis a Kruskal-Wallis-Test was applied with post-hoc Mann-Whitney pairwise comparisons (n= 4-6). Bars labeled with different letters are significantly different. All data represent means \pm SEM.

Figure 4: Representative scans showing voltage differences recorded by SIET over the hypodermis for H⁺ fluxes in (A) N2 worm and (B) Δrhr -2 at locations 100 μ m or more posterior to the excretory pore of adult *C. elegans*. The length of each arrow corresponds to the mean flux of 3 replicate measurements at each site. Sites were separated by 25 μ m. Flux scales (pmol cm⁻² s⁻¹) scales are provided in A and B. C) H⁺ fluxes (mean + SEM) for N2 worms (N = 5) and Δrhr -2 worms (N = 5). Fluxes for each worm were calculated from the mean value for measurements at 5 sites separated by 25 μ m and the value at each site was the mean of 3 replicate measurements. The asterisk indicates a significant difference between the means (P < 0.005; unpaired Students t-test).

Figure 5: Specific enzyme activities of cytochrome c oxidase (A; n=5-6) and citrate synthase (B; n=5-6) in fed wild type worms (N2) (open bars) and Δrhr -2 (closed bars). Significant differences from the control value are indicated by asterisks (p \leq 0.05). Data represent means \pm SEM and were analyzed employing an unpaired, two-tailed Student's t-test.

Figure 6: Changes of mRNA expression levels of rhr-1 (n=4), nka (α -subunit) (n=4) and vat (subunit A) (n=3-4), nhx-3 (n=3-4), and nhx-4 (n=4-5) in fed C. elegans wild-type worms (N2) and $\Delta rhr-2$. Absolute mRNA expression levels of N2 worms were set to 1 and are indicated by the dotted line. Asterisks (*) indicate significant differences in mRNA expression of the respective gene in N2 and $\Delta rhr-2$ (p \leq 0.05). Data represent means \pm SEM and were analyzed employing an unpaired, two-tailed Student's t-test prior to calculation for fold change values.

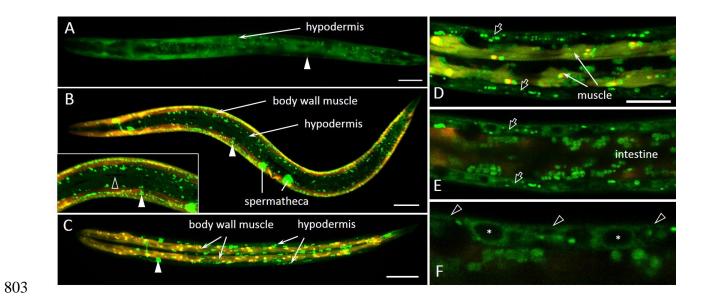
Figure 7: Changes of mRNA expression levels of rhr-1 (n=4), nka (α -subunit) (n=4), vat (subunit A) (n=4), nhx-3 (n=4), and nhx-4 (n=4) in $\Delta rhr-2$ under fed (closed bars) and staved (24 hours, open bars) conditions. Absolute mRNA expression levels of fed animals were set to 1 with values measured under starved conditions are given as "fold changes" of the respective control (closed bars). Asterisks (*) indicate significant differences between treatments (p \leq 0.05). Data represent means \pm SEM and were analyzed employing an unpaired, two-tailed Student's t-test prior to calculation for fold change values.

777 Figure 8: Hypothetical working model of the ammonia excretion mechanisms across the 778 hypodermis in *C. elegans*. For a detailed description refer to the text. 779 780 Supplemental figure S1: A) ClustalW amino acid alignment (Thompson et al., 1994) of C. 781 elegans RHR-1 (GenBank accession # NP_504436.1) and RHR-2 (GenBank accession # 782 NP_505961.1). Conserved ammonia-conducting residues are highlighted with a grey 783 background. Δ indicates the ammonia-conducting residues in the external vestibule; Ω indicates 784 the ammonia-conducting residues in the pore entrance; + indicates the ammonia-conducting 785 residues in the pore center; \$ indicates the ammonia conducting residues in the internal vestibule 786 (Khademi et al., 2004; Zidi-Yahiaoui et al., 2009). Missing AA sequence in the Δrhr -2 mutant is 787 marked as bold and underlined. B) Test PCR on genomic DNA (gDNA) to confirm missing 788 nucleotide sequence in Δrhr -2. The employed primer were designed to span the 750 bp deletion. 789 Lanes: M, marker; -gDNA, no DNA added to reaction; N2, PCR employing the primer pair 790 CeDel-F (5' -CACAATGGGTGTGCTATTAGG -3') and CeDel-R (5' -791 CGAAACGTTCTCGATCTCC -3') and gDNA from wild-type C. elegans; Δrhr -2, PCR 792 employing CeDel-F/-R and gDNA from the RHR-2 knock-out mutant, Δ*rhr*-2. The annealing 793 temperature were set to 60°C. C) Test PCR on cDNA to confirm missing nucleotide sequence in 794 Δrhr -2. Lanes: M, marker; -RT, negative control, no DNA added to reaction; N2, PCR 795 employing the primer pair CeRhr-2 F (table 1) and CeRhr-2 R (table 1) and cDNA from N2; 796 Δrhr -2, PCR employing CeRhr-2 F/R and cDNA from Δrhr -2. Boxed in amino acids sequences

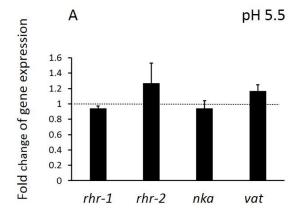
indicate location of primers employed in this reaction.

797

801 Figure 1



816 Figure 2



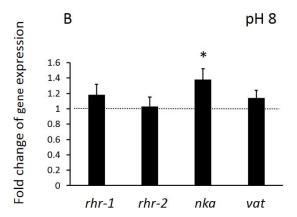
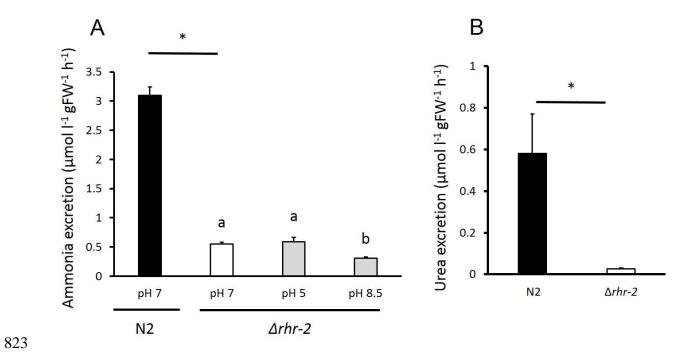
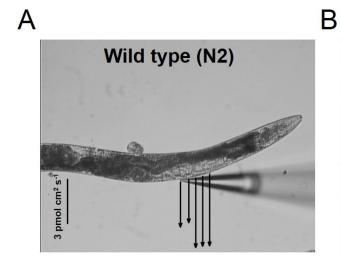
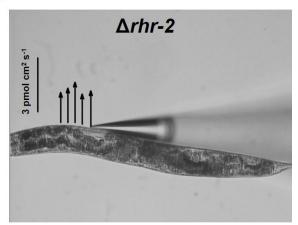


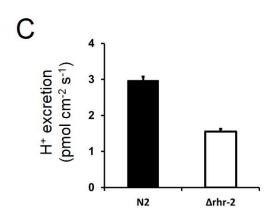
Figure 3



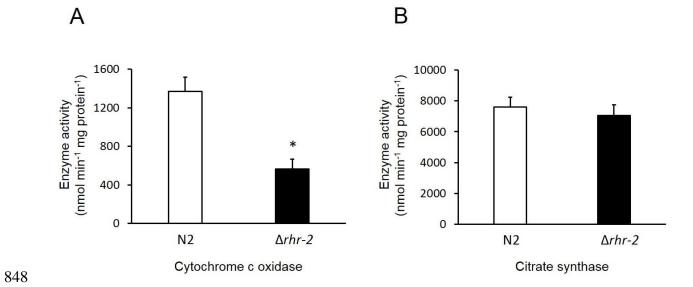
835 Figure 4



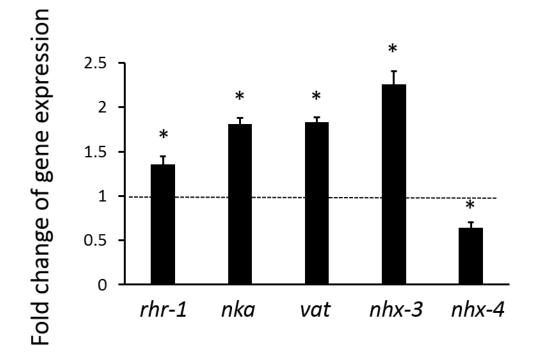




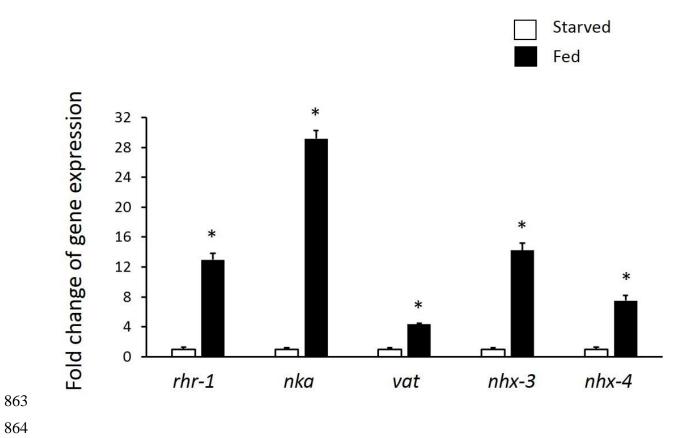
846 Figure 5



856 Figure 6

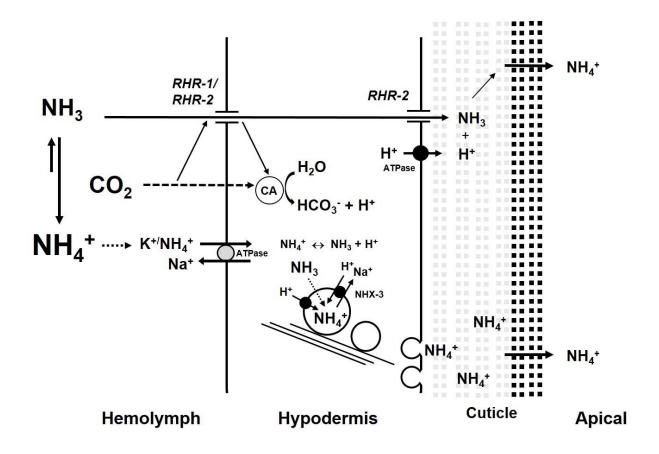


861 Figure 7862



872 Figure 8





883 Figure S1

A



