Intergenerational pathogen-induced diapause in *C. elegans* is modulated by *mir-243*.

Carolaing Gabaldon,[1,2] Marcela Legüe,[1,2] M. Fernanda Palominos,[1,2] Lidia Verdugo,[1,2]
Florence Gutzwiller,[2] Andrea Calixto[1,2 #.]

[1]Centro Interdisciplinario de Neurociencia de Valparaíso, Valparaíso, Chile

[2]Centro de Genómica y Bioinformática, Universidad Mayor, Santiago de Chile, Chile

Running head: *mir-243* modulates defenses against pathogens.

Correspondence to Andrea Calixto tigonas@gmail.com.

Abstract

The interaction and communication between bacteria and their hosts modulate many aspects of animal physiology and behavior. Dauer entry as a response to chronic exposure to pathogenic bacteria in *Caenorhabditis elegans* is an example of a dramatic behavioral decision to survive. This response depends on the RNAi machinery suggesting the involvement of sRNAs as effectors. Interestingly, dauer formation occurs after two generations of interaction with moderate pathogenic bacteria of different species. Therefore, we sought to discover the identity of *C. elegans* RNAs involved in pathogenesis-induced diapause. Using transcriptomics and differential expression analysis of coding and non-coding long and small RNAs, we found that *mir-243-3p* is the only transcript upregulated in both animals exposed to either *P. aeruginosa* or *S.* Typhimurium for two generations. Phenotypical analysis of mutants showed that *mir-243* is required for dauer formation under pathogenesis but not under starvation. Moreover, DAF-16, a master regulator of key defensive processes in the animal and required for dauer formation was found to be necessary for *mir-243* expression. This work highlights the role of a small non-coding RNA in the intergenerational defensive processes against pathogenic bacteria and inter-kingdom communication.

Importance

Persistent infection of the bacterivore nematode *C. elegans* with bacteria such as *P. aeruginosa* and *S.* Typhimurium makes the worm diapause or hibernate. By doing this, the worm closes its mouth avoiding infection. This response takes two generations to be implemented. In this work we looked for genes that were turned on upon infection that could mediate the worm diapause triggered by pathogens. We identify *mir-243-3p* as the only transcript commonly upregulated when animals feed on *P. aeruginosa* and *S. enterica*. Moreover, we demonstrate that *mir-243-3p* is required for pathogen-induced dauer formation, a new function that has not been previously described for this miRNA. We find that the transcriptional activator DAF-16 is necessary for the expression of *mir-243* under pathogenesis. Here we establish a relationship between a small RNA and a behavioral change that ensures the survival of the progeny.

Introduction

C. elegans has a close ancestral relationship with bacteria (1), as it has naturally evolved exposed to microbes from the soil that can be their source of food or a threat (2, 3, 4). For decades in laboratory settings, *C. elegans* has fed on standardized bacteria, *E. coli* OP50. Our understanding of the nematode-bacteria relationship is evolving from a simple static organism/substrate pair to a dynamic model in which host and microbe´s roles change over the course of their association (5). The continuous encounter of *C. elegans* with bacteria has likely influenced its ability to recognize and defend from potential pathogens. *C. elegans,* when confronted with infectious microbes, can quickly evade them by modifying their olfactory preferences (6). This process is triggered by the detection of

specific molecules secreted by bacteria such as toxic pigments from *P. aeruginosa* PA14
(7); cyanide from *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 (8); and serrawettin W2, produced by *S. marcescens*
(9). A recent report shows that the rapid avoidance response to *P. aeruginosa* PA14
involves DAF-7/TGF-β pathway in ASJ chemosensory neurons, synergistically with
bacterial colonization and intestinal bloating (10). In contrast, a long-term strategy to
ensure bacterial infection avoidance for long-term periods is dauer formation (11). This
behavioral decision occurs after exposure to pathogens for two or more generations and is
transmitted through the maternal germline and generates a transgenerational memory.
Additionally, pathogen-induced diapause depends on the RNAi machinery suggesting the
involvement of small RNAs (sRNAs) as mediators of this host-pathogen interaction.

Modulation of the host miRNAs is a molecular strategy exploited by bacteria to modify
host cells, such as during *Salmonella* infection of mouse macrophages (12), human
monocytes (12, 13), and zebrafish embryos (14). In *C. elegans,* the molecules signaling
diapause entry in the second generation after pathogen exposure are unknown. This work
focuses on the discovery of nematode's sRNAs involved in the response of *C. elegans* to
chronic infection and leading to defensive dauer formation. Here we show that mature
miRNA *mir-243-3p* is overexpressed in animals exposed to two unrelated pathogens and
is needed to mount intergenerational diapause formation. We also show that transcription
factors DAF-16, PQM-1 and CRH-2 are required for the expression of mature *mir-243.*
PQM-1 and CRH-2 are also needed for dauer formation under pathogenesis. This work
reveals a role for *mir-243* in the defense against pathogens and highlights the importance
of small RNAs as mediators of long-term survival strategies.

Results

Global gene expression changes in intergenerational chronic exposure to pathogens

Behavioral decisions likely emerge from broad, complex gene expression changes.
We aimed at revealing RNA profiles underlying the intergenerational diapause entry
behavior (11). To this end we performed transcriptomic analysis of two generations of
synchronized *C. elegans* in the L2 stage. Animals were grown on the two bacteria known
to promote diapause *P. aeruginosa*, *S*. Typhimurium, and *E. coli* OP50, which does not
trigger dauer formation. Sequencing was performed on both mRNA and small RNA
libraries generated by separate methods (see Materials and methods). In this result section
we will first refer to mRNAs. Differential gene expression of animals feeding on
pathogenic bacteria was made in reference to non-pathogenic *E. coli* OP50 using DeSeq
and EdgeR (**Dataset 1**). We considered differentially expressed genes those found to be
statistically significant by either analysis (**Table S1** and **2**). Differentially expressed mRNA
genes included coding and non-coding transcripts. We found that transcriptional changes
in mRNAs (coding and non-coding) were larger in the first generation (F1) than in the
second (F2) of animals fed with either pathogen (**Fig. 1A** and **B**). **Fig. 1C** to **E** illustrates
the distribution of non-coding RNA expression in numbers (**C** and **D**) and types (**E**).
Among non-coding transcripts we found piRNAs, 7k ncRNA, pseudogenes, tRNAs,
lincRNAs, asRNAs, snoRNA, snRNA and rRNAs (**Fig. 1E**). The F1 generation was more
abundant and diverse in differential expression than the F2s when feeding on either
pathogen. This difference between generations could suggest that changes in the F1 are

most dramatic because they reflect changes in bacterial diet composition, as well as
exposure to a pathogen. In this context, the subsequent generation may respond more
specifically to each new bacterium.

Most mRNA genes were overexpressed or repressed in a generation or pathogen
specific manner (**Table S3**). There were no shared upregulated mRNA genes in both
pathogens and generations (**Fig. 1F**). However, a number of genes were commonly
expressed in the F1, independently of whether animals were feeding on *P. aeruginosa* or
S. Typhimurium. These genes grouped in Metabolic Processes by gene ontology (**Fig. S1A)**
suggesting there is a common expression pattern that likely responds early to the change in
diet from *E. coli* OP50 and it is not maintained after the F1 (see below). Interestingly,
downregulated genes shared many more coincidences between pathogenic conditions (**Fig.
1G**). Three genes, *acdh-1*, *hpdp-1* and F54D5.12 were downregulated in both bacteria and
generations. To distinguish the response to pathogens from changes in gene expression
caused by the switch from *E. coli* OP50 to other bacteria we compared the expression
changes in animals feeding *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and *S*. Typhimurium in the F1 to those
reported for *Comamonas. aquatica* (15). There were no coincidences in the upregulated
genes (**Fig. S1B**), but several genes were repressed in animals feeding on all three bacteria
(**Fig. S1C**), showing the change itself from *E. coli* OP50 triggers a characteristic common
profile of gene expression. Additionally, these genes could be expressed in response to
specific metabolites present in *C. aquatica*, *P. aeruginosa* and *S*. Typhimurium and not in
E. coli.

We next examined whether genes differentially expressed in animals feeding on
pathogens obeyed Gene Ontology (GO) patterns using the enrichment tool available from
wormbase.org (16). We analyzed separately genes up and down regulated in each
generation. There were no GO coincidences between animals feeding on either pathogen
(**Fig. S2A**). This suggests that differential expression of mRNA genes considered in the
enrichment is not likely to explain the phenotypical similarities triggered by both bacteria.
S. Typhimurium could only be tested in the F1 because there was only one gene
differentially expressed in the F2. We speculate that this is due to the high degree of
genomic similarities between *Salmonella* and *E. coli* (17, 18). In *P. aeruginosa* both
generations displayed GO enrichment, but the F2 was specifically enriched in genes
involved in defense against biotic stress, showing that the defensive response is stronger
against *P. aeruginosa* than to *S*. Typhimurium. GO enrichment of downregulated genes
was larger in the F2 than in the F1 in animals feeding on either pathogen (**Fig. S2B)**
showing a similar trend than those upregulated. Global analysis of mRNA gene expression
shows that changes either individual or grouped are dissimilar for animals feeding on *S*.
Typhimurium MST1 and *P. aeruginosa* PAO1. This suggests that changes giving rise to
diapause formation are not due to mRNA change expression. To further understand the
underlying molecular causes of pathogen induced dauer formation, we analyzed the sRNAs
response to both bacteria.

sRNA expression changes in two generations of *C. elegans* exposed to bacterial
pathogens

Small RNAs (sRNAs) are broad regulators of gene expression (19, 20, 21) and key
candidate to modulate inter and transgenerational environmental adaptation (11, 22, 23).
To identify sRNAs from *C. elegans* expressed in each bacterial condition we unbiasedly
defined transcriptional peaks (TP, definition in Material and Methods). This method allows
us to detect and precisely count expressed transcripts even if they were not previously
annotated. We generated our own features based on the genomic coordinates of expression
peaks. We evaluated if the features were novel (intergenic), overlapping, nested or
perfectly matching database annotations to precisely measure expression of those
fragments. Expressed TPs from *C. elegans* on all conditions included 95,5% of novel non-
annotated sequences, in their vast majority located nested within coding genes (**Dataset 2**).
Differentially expressed genes in all conditions included 6.2% of exact matches to known
features, 77.8% of overlapping sequences and 16% of novel TPs located in intergenic
regions (**Fig. 2A**). Differentially expressed sRNAs in worms feeding on pathogens include
pre-miRNAs, mature miRNAs, TPs nested within rRNAs and 21-ur RNAs. Moreover,
most novel TPs were nested in intronic or exonic segments of coding genes or overlapping
5' and 3′UTRs ends. There were also pseudogenic transcripts, tRNAs, and TPs in
intergenic regions (**Fig. 2B** and **Table S4** and **5**). *mir-243*-3p along with another 11 TPs
nested within the *rrn-3.1* ribosomal gene were upregulated in both generations in response
to *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and *S*. Typhimurium (**Fig. 2C** and **Table S6**). The pre*mir-70* and
another 9 novel TPs were similarly downregulated in all conditions (**Fig. 2D** and **Table
S6**). A number of TPs were specifically DE in response to MST1 or PAO1, or to both
pathogens only one generation. For example, *mir-51* was upregulated in the F1 in PAO1,
but *21ur-6043* was upregulated in both generations of animals feeding on PAO1 (**Table
S6**). These results show that sRNA expression in the context of long-term pathogen
exposure is mostly specific to one generation or to one pathogen. *mir-243-3p* however, is
overexpressed in all conditions, suggesting it could be responding to the encounter with
various bacteria. Furthermore, the specific response to PAO1 in the F2 was the largest in
terms of numbers of TPs both up and downregulated (**Fig. 2E**). The following experiments
were performed using *P. aeruginosa* PAO1.

172   *mir-243* is necessary for diapause formation under pathogenesis

We first quantified the relative amounts of the mature *mir-243-3p* in each
generation of animals feeding on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and compared it to those feeding on
E. coli OP50. To that end, we grew animals on *P. aeruginosa* or *E. coli* for two generations,
starting with L4 stage parentals (P0). F1 and F2 animals are collected as L2 for RNA
extraction, as they were for the transcriptomic analysis. The relative fold of expression of
miRNAs was quantified by RT-PCR. By this method, mature *mir-243-3p* appeared
upregulated in the second generation feeding on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1. A mutation on *mir-
243* (*n4759*) used as a control, completely abolished its expression (**Fig. 3A**). Then we
explored whether *mir-243* has a role in diapause formation under pathogenesis by feeding
mutant animals (*n4759*) with *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 for two generations. We also tested as
a reference, animals with a deletion in *mir-253*, which was not differentially expressed
under pathogenesis. This deletion also eliminates F44E7.15 expression, a non-coding
RNA. *mir-243* and *mir-253/* F44E7.15 mutants were fed on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 for two
generations. The population growth and appearance of dauers was quantified in the F2 and
compared to wild type animals. Growth on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 was not affected by either

mutation (**Fig. 3B**) suggesting that these mutations do not increase susceptibility to
pathogens. Interestingly, *mir-243* formed significantly less dauers than wild type or *mir-*
253/F44E7.15 on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 (**Fig. 3C**). We found that in *mir-253*/F44E7.15
pathogen-induced dauer is even more pronounced than in wild-type. Since none of the
tested mutants were deficient in dauer formation under starvation (**Fig. 3D**), this result
suggests that *mir-243* has a specific role in dauer formation under pathogenesis.

DAF-16 and other transcriptional activators regulate the expression of *mir-243* under pathogenesis.

The increase of mature *mir-243* in animals feeding on pathogens could be a result
of transcriptional activation. To study whether this was the case, we quantified the
fluorescence of a strain expressing *gfp* under the *mir-243* promoter (VT1474). We
measured *gfp* in L2 animals in two generations of progenies of animals grown on pathogens
and compared it with those grown on *E. coli* OP50. Animals feeding on pathogens
overexpress *Pmir-243::gfp* compared to *E. coli* OP50 controls in both generations (**Fig.**
4A), suggesting that exposure to pathogens activates the transcription of *mir-243*. A
number of transcription factors promote expression of their targets under stress and
infection (24, 25, 26). In our paradigm, DAF-16/FOXO transcriptional activator localizes
to the nucleus of animals exposed to *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 prior to diapause formation (11).
We tested whether DAF-16 was necessary for *mir-243-3p* expression by extracting RNA
from *daf-16* (allele) mutants and quantifying *mir-243-3p* in the F2 feeding on pathogens.
Fig. 4B shows that *mir-243-3p* is not expressed in *daf-16* mutants.

As TFs-miRNAs likely work together in highly connected loops during
development (27) we explored the role of other transcriptional regulators on *mir-243*
expression. Under normal conditions, PQM-1 resides in the nucleus regulating the
expression of DAF-16-associated elements (DAE) thus avoiding dauer formation (28).
CRH-2 has been reported as a novel suppressor of the microRNA *let-7* (29) and could
therefore regulate microRNAs more broadly. To study whether these transcriptional
regulators are necessary for the expression of *mir-243* under pathogenesis we extracted
RNA from *crh-2* and *pqm-1* mutants and quantified the expression of *mir-243-3p* in the F2
of worms fed with *P. aeruginosa*. **Fig. 4A** and **B** show that PQM-1 and CRH-2 are
necessary for the over-expression of *mir-243-3p* when feeding on pathogens.

Because *mir-243* loss affects the ability of animals to form diapause under
pathogenesis, we examined whether *crh-2* and *pqm-1* mutants failed to form dauers under
infection but formed normal amounts of dauers under starvation. Additionally, we tested
whether these mutants were able to grow on *E. coli* and *P. aeruginosa* to wild type extents.
As a control we used a mutant of *elt-3* transcriptional activator with broad expression in
the animal. *daf-16* mutation causes animals to be unable to form dauers (30) and could not
be tested. All transcription factor mutants grew well on *E. coli* OP50 and to a similar extent
as wild type animals on pathogenic bacteria (**Fig. 4C** and **D**). Interestingly, *crh-2* and *pqm-*
1 mutants were unable to diapause under pathogenesis after two generations on pathogens
while *elt-3* animals formed normal amounts (**Fig. 4E**). All strains formed wild type
numbers of dauers on starvation (**Fig. 4F**). This suggests that the role of these transcription

factors, like *mir-243* have on diapause formation is specifically in response to long-term
pathogen exposure.

Consistently, *crh-2* and *pqm-1* promoters were overexpressed in pathogens
compared to non-pathogenic conditions (**Fig. 4G** and **H**). Taken together these results
suggest that an expression cascade started in the first generation triggered by the interaction
with *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 includes CRH-2, PQM-1 and DAF-16 upstream of *mir-243*
expression.

Discussion
239

Survival strategies to environmental challenges rely on the genetic plasticity of
organisms. In this work, we dissect the transcriptomic differences and similarities between
worms feeding on three different bacteria. Two of them, *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and *S.*
Typhimurium MST1 elicit dauer entry as a behavioral defense in the second generation
(11). Differential gene expression analysis allowed us to identify *mir-243-3p* as a novel
sRNA upregulated in animals fed on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and *S.* Typhimurium for two
generations. Mutant animals of *mir-243* do not form the dauer larvae as a defensive
mechanism against bacterial pathogens in the second generation despite not being dauer
defective under starvation. Moreover, we identified transcription factors CRH-2, PQM-1,
and DAF-16 as required for *mir-243* expression. Additionally, CRH-2 and PQM-1 are
necessary for diapause formation under pathogenesis.

Most transcriptional changes are unique to the encounter with each pathogen
251

Gene expression is highly variable and dependent on environmental and
physiological factors. *C. elegans* transcriptional profile is modified when animals are
exposed to new bacterial food sources. These can be non-pathogenic such as *Bacillus*
subtilis (31) or pathogenic such as *Shigella flexneri* (32), *P. aeruginosa* PA14 and
Staphylococcus aureus NCTC8325 (33) (34). Environmental changes such as increased
growth temperature can trigger gene expression associated with defensive responses and
decreased expression of genes associated with metabolism (35); (31). ncRNA molecules
enriched in these conditions indicate their function in a rapid adaptive response (36). The
condition-specific transcriptomic variations can be transmitted to subsequent generations
(37, 38, 39), suggesting that environmental changes promote phenotypic changes mediated
by transcriptomic alterations that can be inherited to the progeny.

In this work, we discovered transcriptional changes that could explain the defensive
decision to enter the dauer program as a response to pathogenesis (11). We notice that two
different bacterial species trigger the same behavioral response in *C. elegans* but display
few underlying transcriptomic similarities. We think that this could be an indicator of a
very finely-tuned communication between bacteria and host. Clustering of genes by
function (16) revealed large differences between animals fed the two bacteria. This could
indicate that a particular behavior can be triggered by dissimilar patterns of expression, or
that changes in a few genes can cause the behavioral switch. The upregulation of *mir-243*
was the only coincidence among animals fed on pathogens. Additionally, *mir-243* is key
for dauer formation due to pathogenesis. Although it is not yet clear what is the possible

mechanism by which this miRNA acts, we speculate that *mir-243* could be regulating a
series of genes downstream that together signal the pathogenic state or execute the dauer
entry program. *mir-243* acts as a siRNA: is recognized by RDE-1, which guides the miRNA
towards a multi-protein complex for the recognition of targets and the destabilization of
the mRNA molecule (40). Interestingly, RDE-1 has been shown, along with other RNAi
effectors, to be required for dauer formation under pathogenesis (11). *mir-243* has shown
to have perfect complementarity to its described target (40). This infrequent mechanism of
silencing is much stronger than that normally triggered by a miRNA (40, 41). This could
shed light on the reason why the loss of *mir-243* has a marked effect on a developmental
and behavioral change such as diapause formation.

Non-coding RNAs in pathogenesis

Other works have explored the sRNA transcriptomic response to infection. For
example, bacterial infection conditions affect piRNA biogenesis, which has been suggested
in this context to increase animal fitness (42). The expression of *tts-1*, a lncRNA was
significantly overexpressed in worm infected with *Microbacterium nematophilum* (43).
Interestingly, the upregulation of *tts-1* have been associated with dauer entry by starvation
in long-lived *daf-2* strain (44) and in larvae L1 (45). In this work we did not find
differentially expressed genes whose mutations have been described before as conducing
to abnormal dauer formation (*Daf*). This suggests at least two things, the expression of *Daf*
genes does not necessarily change at the level of mRNAs, or that the dauer program under
pathogenesis is molecularly different from starvation-induced diapause. *mir-243* for
example is not required for dauer formation under starvation, but is essential for diapause
under pathogenesis. This is coherent with the finding that most miRNAs are not essential
for the development and survival of *C. elegans* perhaps because they are redundant (46).

microRNAs have previously been involved in the innate immune response of *C.
elegans* against infection with bacterial pathogens. The *let-7* family members such as *miR-
48*, *miR-84* and *miR-241* regulate developmental timing signals through the ATF-7
transcription factor, controlling cell proliferation by pathogenic bacteria (47, 48). In
response to pathogens infection, *let-7* activity in immune response modulation occurs in
the intestine, via regulation of SDZ-24-mediated signaling (49). Other candidate targets of
let-7 and *let-7* family microRNAs may include components of the PMK-1/p38 innate
immune pathway (47). Likewise, *mir-67* mutants exhibited reduced pathogen avoidance
behavior, apparently from the dysregulation of *mir-67* target, *sax-7* (50, 41). Changes in
expression of miRNAs have also been observed in nematodes infected with eukaryotes
such as the yeast *C. albicans* (51). *mir-70* or *mir-251/mir-252* mutants have moderate
enhanced survival to infections with *P. aeruginosa* PA14 indicating that there is a negative
regulation of the immune response by these three miRNAs (52). Interestingly, in our
experiments, *mir-70* was systematically downregulated in animals feeding on both
bacteria. This supports the idea that *mir-70* is a negative regulator of the innate immune
response in *C. elegans*. Taken together, the previous findings, along with ours, states that
that the response of *C. elegans* to pathogens is accompanied by dynamic changes in the
activity of miRNAs.

Transcription factors involved in diapause formation as a defensive strategy

A number of transcription factors such as DAF-16 activate transcription of their
targets under stress and infection. DAF-16 regulates genes with roles in defense against
pathogenic bacteria such as *P. aeruginosa* PA14 (53), *S. enterica* strain 1344, *Yersinia*
pestis strain KIM5, and *Staphylococcus aureus* MSSA476 (54). In the pathogen-induced
dauer formation paradigm, DAF-16 localizes to the nucleus of animals exposed to *P.*
aeruginosa PAO1 prior to diapause formation (11). In this work, we show that *mir-243*
expression requires intact DAF-16. PQM-1 affects the expression of DAF-16 in the nucleus
(28) and is needed for *mir-243* expression under pathogenesis. Interestingly, CRH-2, which
has been proposed to regulate *let-7* miRNA transcription (55, 29), is also necessary for *mir-*
243 expression. Both proteins are overexpressed in the F2 of animals feeding on pathogens.
Consistently, both CRH-2 and PQM-1 loss impair diapause formation under pathogenesis.
In this work, we found that *mir-243* is involved in the response of *C. elegans* to infection
with strains of *P. aeruginosa* or *S.* Typhimurium. We show that a mature form of *mir-243*
is expressed in response to pathogenesis and required for dauer formation as a behavioral
response. This means that changes in a single microRNA can have similar behavioral
outputs, like dauer formation, but distinct molecular cascades to achieve it. Moreover,
DAF-16, PQM-1 and CRH-2 transcription factors are needed for proper *mir-243*
expression and subsequent dauer formation. Likely this is a multistep process that involves
the establishment of the pathogenic state through bacterial and nematode transcriptional
profiles and the execution of the behavioral decision after two generations. In this process
miRNAs and other sRNAs could be playing important regulatory roles required for the
phenotypic and transgenerational response in the animal.

Materials and Methods

C. elegans and bacterial growth

Wild type, mutant and transgenic *C. elegans* strains were grown at 20°C as previously
described (56). All nematode strains were grown on *Escherichia coli* OP50-1 (resistant to
streptomycin) before pathogen exposure. *S. enterica* serovar Typhimurium MST1 (ATCC
140828) and *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 (ATCC 15692) were used for infection protocols. All
bacteria were grown overnight on Luria-Bertani (LB) plates at 37ºC from glycerol stocks.
The next morning a large amount of the bacterial lawn is inoculated in LB broth and grown
for 6 hours at 250 rpm and at 37ºC. 3 mL of the resulting bacterial culture is seeded onto
90 mm NGM plates and allowed to dry for 36 hours before worms are placed on them.

C. elegans strains

We used the following strains of the *Caenorhabditis* Genetics Center (CGC): Wild type
(N2), MT15454 [*mir-243(n4759)*], MT16060 [*mir-253(nDf64)*], DR27 [*daf-16(m27)*],
VC3149 [*crh-2 (gk3293)*], RB711 [*pqm-1 (ok485)*], VC143 [*elt-3 (gk121)*], and transgenic
strains VT1474 [*Pmir-243::gfp (unc-119 (ed3)* III; *maIs177)*], OP201 [*unc-119 (tm4063)*
III; wgIs201 (*pqm-1::TY1::EGFP*)], BC13136 [*crh-2* C27D5.4a*::gfp (dpy-5 (e907*);
sEx13136)], BC14266 [*dpy-5 (e907*); sEx14266 (rCesF35E8.8::*GFP* + pCeH361)].

Hypochlorite treatment

To synchronize *C. elegans* and/or to obtain pure embryos, we prepared a 5% hypochlorite solution containing 20 mL of 1 M NaOH, 30 mL NaClO and 50 mL H_2O in 100 mL final volume. Plates with mostly gravid adults were washed with 1 mL of M9 (KH_2PO_4 3 g, Na_2HPO_4 6 g, NaCl 5 g, 1 M $MgSO_4$, H2O up to 1 L) and transferred to an Eppendorf tube. The volume collected was centrifuged at 394 x g. 1 mL of the hypochlorite solution was added to the pellet. After 5 minutes of vigorous vortex, the tube was centrifuged at 394 x g for 2 minutes. The pellet was washed with 1 mL of M9 solution and centrifuged at 394 x g and 2 minutes to discard the supernatant. The resulting pellet contains an embryo concentrate.

Quantification of population and dauer larvae

Dauer formation on pathogens. Entire worm populations on each plate were collected in 1 mL of M9. This initial stock was diluted 1:10 in M9. 10 µL of this 1:10 dilution was used to count the total population of worms under a Nikon SMZ745 stereomicroscope. To quantify the number of dauers in each population, the initial stock was diluted 1:10 in a 1% SDS solution and maintained in constant agitation for 20 minutes (57). To count the number of total animals and dauers, 10 µL of this last dilution was placed in a glass slide under the stereomicroscope. Each condition was scored 3 times (triplicated of one technical replica) and dauers were plotted as a percentage of the total populations of animals.

C. elegans **growth in pathogenic bacteria**

Five L4 (P0) wild type worms or mutants (grown in *E. coli* OP50) were picked and transferred to a 90 mm diameter plate seeded with 3 mL of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1, *S.* Typhimurium MST1 or *E. coli* OP50 control bacteria. In all cases, the bacterial lawn covered the plate. After 24 hours the F1 embryos were obtained by hypochlorite treatment. All obtained embryos were placed on a new plate with *P. aeruginosa* PAO1, *S.* Typhimurium MST1 or *E. coli* OP50. Animals were allowed to grow for 24 hours until they reached the L2 stage. The total number of worms in the population and the percentage of dauer were quantified.

To obtain the F2, five L4 larvae were transferred from *E. coli* OP50 to a 90 mm diameter plate with 3 mL of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 or *S.* Typhimurium MST1. After eight days the total number of worms and dauer larvae were quantified. The number of bacteria seeded allowed animals to be well fed for the length of the experiment. In the case worms starved, we discarded that experiment. Each assay was performed in three independent experiments (technical replicates) generating a biological replica. A total of three biological replicates were considered for each analysis.

Dual RNA Seq

Sample preparation

Wild type *C. elegans* were cultured on 60 mm diameter Petri dishes with NGM media
seeded with 500 µL of *E. coli* OP50 and maintained at 20°C. After three days, mixed stage
animals were treated with bleaching solution and embryos were deposited in new dishes.
48 hours later, most individuals were in the L4 stage. Five L4 worms were transferred to
90 mm plates previously seeded with 3 mL of *E. coli* OP50, *S.* Typhimurium MST1 or *P.*
aeruginosa PAO1. In all cases, the bacterial lawn covered the plate. Worms were allowed
to grow at 20°C for 24 hours. After that time, all animals on the plate were subject to
hypochlorite treatment. F1 embryos were collected in 1 mL of M9 and centrifuged at 394
x g. The embryos obtained were placed on a 90 mm new plate with 3 mL of bacteria. After
24 hours, animals were collected with M9 for total RNA extraction. Worms on other 3
plates were allowed to grow for another 48 hours until the F1 was gravid. F2 progenies
were collected in the same way as the F1 and placed on a separate plate with the same
species of bacteria. Animals were collected for RNA extraction 24 hours later. Each
condition was performed in triplicates obtaining a total of 18 samples (F1 and F2 in *E. coli*
OP50, *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 or *S.* Typhimurium MST1).

RNA extraction

RNA extraction of colonizing bacteria and C. elegans. Worms were washed off the plates
with 1mL of M9, centrifuged at 394 x g for 2 min and resuspended at least 5 times with
M9. RNA purification was performed using TRIzol (Life Technologies) following
manufacturer's instructions. For RNA extraction, samples were mechanically lysed by
vortexing with 4 mm steel beads for no more than five minutes. Each condition was
performed in triplicates. Several biological replicas were mixed to reach the required
concentration of 1 µg/µl of total RNA.

mRNA library preparation and sequencing. Total RNA was isolated from synchronized F1
and F2 *C. elegans* populations feeding on non-pathogenic *E. coli* OP50, and pathogens *P.*
aeruginosa PAO1 and *S.* Typhimurium MST1 as explained above. After DNase I digestion
with DNAse I (Invitrogen™), RNA concentration was measured using Quant-iT™
RiboGreen® RNA Assay Kit (Life Technologies). The integrity of RNA was determined
on the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies). mRNA libraries were prepared
with the IlluminaTruSeq™ RNA sample preparation kit (Illumina) according to the
manufacturer's protocol. The quality and size distribution of the libraries were evaluated
with the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer using a DNA 1000 chip (Agilent Technologies) and
quantified using the KAPA Library Quantification Kit for Illumina Platforms (Kapa
Biosystems) on the Step One Plus Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems).

The *C. elegans* mRNAs libraries were sequenced using the HiSeq Illumina platform (BGI)
with paired-end sequencing (2x 100 bp, BGI). *C. elegans* and bacterial small RNA were
sequenced using the Mi-Seq Illumina platform at the Center for Genomics and
Bioinformatics (CGB), Universidad Mayor.

sRNA library construction and sequencing. Samples were prepared and sequenced at CGB.
Libraries were constructed with the TruSeq sRNA Sample Preparation Kit (Illumina),
according to the manufacturer´s instructions. For quality control, cDNA libraries were run
on a high sensitivity DNA chip using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies),
according to the manufacturer's instructions. An agarose gel library size selection was
performed to recover RNAs shorter than 200 nucleotides. The library was quantified using
a high sensitivity DNA chip. The sRNA libraries were sequenced in an Illumina MiSeq
sequencer using the MiSeq Reagent v2 50-cycle kit with single-end sequencing (1 x 36
bp). For each biological condition, three libraries were constructed from biological
replicates.

Bioinformatic analysis

mRNA transcriptomics of C. elegans

Data pre-processing and quality control. Trimming was made with Trimmomatic v. 0.36
(58). Reads with a quality score (Phred score) less than 35 and read length less than 36
were removed.

Mapping and read count. Reads were aligned using Tophat (59) with default parameters.
Reads were quantified using HTSeq count (60).

Differential expression was determined using EdgeR (61) and DeSeq (62). Differentially
expressed genes were defined as those with adjusted p-value (padj) <0.05 by either method.

Enrichment analysis: Gene Ontology (GO) analysis was performed using the enrichment
tool in wormbase (63).

Small RNAs transcriptomics of C. elegans

Data pre-processing and quality control. Quality visualization was made with FastQC
(http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc). Illumina small 3' adaptors
were removed with Cutadapt version 1.13 (64). Reads with an average quality over four
bases lower than 30, as well as reads shorter than 17 bp were discarded with trimmomatics
(65).

Mapping. For each sample, the reads were aligned against the *C. elegans* genome
PRJNA13758 WS267 using bowtie2 version 2.2.6 (66). We chose a 17 bp seed length,
which was the length of the shorter read. The seed interval was calculated as $f(x) = 0 + 2.5$
$*$ sqrt(x), where x is the read length (roughly two seeds per read as reads are 36 or smaller).
For greater sensitivity, we set the number of mismatches allowed in a seed to 1. By default,
15% of ambiguous characters per read is allowed. A bam file was produced for each
sample.

Defining features and counting reads. We developed a strategy to detect both known and
unannotated transcripts from bacteria and *C. elegans*. For that, we chose to make a
reference annotation based on observed expression peaks. Some reads overlap annotated
genes, others show more than one peak in annotated regions, and many peaks are located

in unannotated regions. We selected those genomic areas covered by mapped reads to
define customized features, named transcriptional peaks (TPs) defined as a genomic area
that shows a peak of expression (more than 10 per base) and that may correspond to direct
transcription or fragments of a longer transcript. This was done by merging bam files from
each sample using SAMTools version 0.1.19. Afterward we only kept features between 17
and 150 nucleotides with an average coverage of 10 or more reads by nucleotide. The
features obtained for both strands were gathered and sorted to create a custom GFF file for
further analysis. Next, we counted the reads against those custom GFF. For comparison
with databases, we intersected TPs with reported annotations and classified them according
to their genomic context.

Comparison with annotated genes. To see how TPs matched with annotated genes, we
compared them to the Ensembl database, by intersecting the GTF file of *C. elegans*
(PRJNA13758.WS267) with our custom GFF file, using BEDTools (67). Based on this
result, we classified TPs as novel (in intergenic unannotated regions), nested or overlapping
annotated features, and sense or antisense to a known feature.

Differential expression analysis between conditions. For each sample, read count was
performed with featureCounts (68) from the Bioconductor Rsubread package with default
parameters. Then, the count matrix was used to perform differential expression analysis in
R (version 3.3.2) between worms fed with three different bacteria of each generation using
DeSeq2 (69) version 1.4.5. The samples of animals feeding on pathogenic strains *P.*
aeruginosa PAO1 and *S.* Typhimurium were compared with *E. coli* OP50. For each
condition, the first and second generations were compared.

We conducted the previous analysis using a custom-made bash and R scripts, available at
https://mlegue@bitbucket.org/mlegue/cele.git or git@bitbucket.org:mlegue/cele.git.

Quantification of differential expression *by RT-PCR*

Total RNA Extraction: 5 L4 (P0) worms were placed in 90 mm NGM plates seeded with
P. aeruginosa PAO1. After 24 hours, the total population was collected with 1 mL of M9
and centrifuged at 394 x g for 2 minutes. The pellet was treated with hypochlorite solution
(see above). All resulting F1 embryos were placed in new plate with *P. aeruginosa* PAO1
for 24 hours and collected as L2. Collection is done with M9 in an Eppendorf tube.
Contents were centrifuged at 394 x g for 2 min. L2 pellet was washed 5 times with M9 to
eliminate the most bacteria from the sample. The pellet of synchronized worms (L2) was
used for RNA extraction.

F2 animals were obtained from the same L4 P0 fed with *P. aeruginosa* and used to generate
the F1 as explained above. F1 embryos were placed in a new 90 mm plate with 3 mL of *P.*
aeruginosa PAO1. After 72 hours, the total population was collected with 1 mL of M9 and
centrifuged at 394 x g for 2 minutes. The pellet was treated with hypochlorite solution. F2
embryos were placed in a new plate with *P. aeruginosa* for 24 hours. The L2 worms were
washed off the plate with M9 and centrifuged at 394 x g for 2 min. 5 washes with M9 were
necessary to eliminate most bacteria from the sample. The pellet of synchronized worms
(L2) was treated with 4 mm steel beads and 1 mL of RNA-Solv® Reagent (Omega Bio-

Tek). The mix was vortexed for 5 minutes. RNA extraction was performed according to
manufacturer specifications. Total RNA concentration was quantified with Tecan's
NanoQuant Plate™. Each condition was performed in biological triplicates.

cDNA Synthesis. Using the extracted total RNAs, cDNA synthesis was performed with the
MIR-X miRNA First Strand Synthesis from TAKARA following manufacturer's
specifications.

Real Time PCR (*qPCR*). The cDNA samples (concentration 200 ng/µL) were used as a
template to perform qPCR with the primers ©QIAGEN Ce_miR-243_1 miScript Primer
Assay (MS00019481). The qPCR was performed with the MIR-X miRNA qRT-PCR TB
Green Kit from TAKARA. To calculate the relative fold of expression of *mir-243-3p*
between generations and genotypes we used delta-delta Ct calculations according to the
Reference Unit Mass method (70). This method was based on the comparative use of the
test sample against a calibrator (U6). Values less than 1 indicated the negative expression
relation with respect to the control and a Ratio greater than 1 indicated the times above the
sample with respect to the control.

Quantification of *gfp* expression

Expression levels of *pqm-1* and *crh-2* genes and the promoter of *mir-243 were* quantified
by using wild type animals expressing *gfp*. *gfp* was quantified in F1 and F2 L2 fed with *P.*
aeruginosa PAO1 and *E. coli* OP50. Worms were taken individually with a mouth pipette
and placed in a bed of agarose with levamisole (20 mM) to immobilize them. To quantify
gfp expression, we photographed entire animals on a Nikon Eclipse Ni microscope in 40X
objective at 1/320s (*mir-243::gfp*) and 1/10s (*pqm-1* and *crh-2*) exposure time, ISO
200/3200 speed (white light and Laser respectively) and focal length of 50 mm. For all
markers, photos of entire animals were taken. GFP quantification was done considering the
signal from the entire animal. Image analysis was performed using ImageJ. Prior to the
analysis images are converted to 8-bit format and a threshold between 1 and 1.2.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyzes were carried out using one- or two-way ANOVA with post-hoc tests.
For the differential expression analysis, statistical significance was considered lower than
p-value <0.05. All experiments were repeated at least three times using technical replicas
in each.

Figure Legends

Fig. 1. Global analysis of differential mRNA gene expression of an intergenerational
infection paradigm. **A-B**. Number and types of mRNA genes differentially expressed on *P.*

aeruginosa PAO1 (A) and S. Typhimurium MST1 (B) in two generations. **C-D.** Number
of non-coding mRNA genes differentially expressed on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 (C) and S.
Typhimurium MST1 (D) in two generations. **E**. Type and abundance of non-coding RNAs
on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and *S*. Typhimurium MST1. **F-G.** Venn diagram representation of
shared and unique genes up (F) and down (G) regulated in each generation and on each
pathogen.

Fig. 2. Global analysis of differential small RNA gene expression of an intergenerational
infection paradigm **A** Genomic context of sRNA genes differentially expressed in
pathogenic conditions. **B** Type and abundance of sRNA genes differentially expressed on
P. aeruginosa PAO1 and S. Typhimurium MST1 in two generations **C-D**. Venn diagram
representation of shared and unique genes over-expressed (C) and repressed (D) in each
generation and on each pathogen. **E**. Number of sRNA genes differentially expressed on
P. aeruginosa PAO1 and S. Typhimurium MST1 in two generations.

Fig. 3. Expression of mature *mir-243* and role on pathogen induced diapause. **A**.
Quantification of *mir-243-3p* expression in animals feeding on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 for
two generations. **B-D**. Growth (B), dauer formation on pathogens (C) and dauer formation
by starvation (D) of *mir-243* mutant animals.

Fig. 4. Transcriptional factors required for *mir-243* expression and pathogen-induced
diapause formation. **A**. Quantification of *mir-243* promoter expression by GFP in animals
feeding on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 compared to *E. coli* OP50 and representative photos. **B**.
Quantification by RT-PCR of *mir-243-3p* on wild type and *daf-16*, *pqm-1* and *crh-2* mutant
animals. **C-E**. Growth on *E. coli* OP50 (C), *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 (D) and dauer formation
(E) in the second generation of animals. **F**. Dauer formation on starvation of wild type and
mutants of transcription factors. **G-H**. Quantification of expression of PQM-1 (G) and
CRH-2 (H) by GFP expression on animals fed on pathogens.

Fig. S1. **A**. Enrichment by Gene Ontology of upregulated genes in the F1 in both
pathogens. **B-C** Coincidences in upregulated (B) and downregulated (C) genes of animals
feeding on *C. aquatica* with *P. aeruginosa* or *S*. Typhimurium for one generation after
change from *E. coli* OP50.

Fig. S2. Enrichment by GO term of upregulated (A) and downregulated (B) in animals
feeding on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and S. Typhimurium MST1 in two generations.

Table S1-2. mRNA coding and non-coding genes differentially expressed in pathogenic
conditions. Upregulated (1) and downregulated (2) genes expressed in F1 and F2 of animals
feeding on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 or *S*. Typhimurium MST1.

Table S3. Pathogen specific and shared differentially expressed genes in each condition.

Table S4-5. Small RNAs differentially expressed in pathogenic conditions. Up and
downregulated sRNAs in the F1 and F2 of animals feeding on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 (4) or
S. Typhimurium MST1(5).

Table S6. Pathogen specific and shared differentially expressed genes in each condition.
(14) upregulated and (15) downregulated genes.

Dataset 1. Differential expression analysis of expressed mRNA genes in two generations of animals exposed to *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and *S*. Typhimurium MST1 by DeSeq and EdgeR.

Dataset 2. Differential expression analysis and genomic context of expressed sRNA genes in two generations of animals exposed to *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and *S*. Typhimurium MST1.

Acknowledgments

We are grateful to Ana Maria Pozo for making possible the timely acquisition of key reagents for this work. Some strains were provided by the CGC, which is funded by NIH Office of Research Infrastructure Programs (P40OD010440). This work funded by Millennium Scientific Initiative of the Chilean Ministry of Economy, Development, and Tourism (P029-022-F), Proyecto Apoyo Redes Formacion de Centros (REDES180138), CYTED grant P918PTE 3, CONICYT-USA 0041 and Fondecyt 1131038 to AC. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and interpretation, or the decision to submit the work for publication.

Author contribution

Conceptualization: CG, ML, MFP, LV, FG and AC

Methodology: CG, ML, MFP, LV, FG and AC

Investigation: CG, ML, MFP, LV, FG and AC

Writing-Original Draft: AC

Writing-Review and Editing: CG, ML, MFP and AC

Funding Acquisition: AC

References

1. **Cabreiro, F, Gems, D**. 2013. Worms need microbes too: microbiota, health and aging in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. EMBO Mol Med **5**:1300–1310.
2. **Schulenburg, H, Félix, MA**. 2017. The Natural Biotic Environment of *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Genetics **206**:55–86.
3. **Félix, MA, Ashe, A, Piffaretti, J, Wu, G, Nuez, I, Bélicard, T, Jiang, Y, Zhao, G, Franz, CJ, Goldstein, LD, Sanroman, M, Miska, EA, Wang, D**. 2011. Natural and experimental infection of *Caenorhabditis* nematodes by novel viruses related to nodaviruses. PLoS Biol **9**:e1000586.
4. **Troemel, ER, Félix, MA, Whiteman, NK, Barrière, A, Ausubel, FM**. 2008. Microsporidia are natural intracellular parasites of the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*. PLoS Biol **6**:2736–2752.
5. **Gerbaba, TK, Green-Harrison, L, Buret, AG**. 2017. Modeling Host-Microbiome Interactions in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. J Nematol **49**:348–356.

6. **Zhang, Y, Lu, H, Bargmann, CI**. 2005. Pathogenic bacteria induce aversive
olfactory learning in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Nature **438**:179–184.
7. **Cezairliyan, B, Vinayavekhin, N, Grenfell-Lee, D, Yuen, GJ, Saghatelian, A,**
Ausubel, FM. 2013. Identification of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* phenazines that kill
Caenorhabditis elegans. PLoS Pathog **9**:e1003101.
8. **Gallagher, LA, Manoil, C**. 2001. Pseudomonas aeruginosa PAO1 kills
Caenorhabditis elegans by cyanide poisoning. J Bacteriol **183**:6207–6214.
9. **Pradel, E, Zhang, Y, Pujol, N, Matsuyama, T, Bargmann, CI, Ewbank, JJ**.
2007. Detection and avoidance of a natural product from the pathogenic bacterium
Serratia marcescens by *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A
104:2295–2300.
10. **Singh, J, Aballay, A**. 2019. Microbial Colonization Activates an Immune Fight-
and-Flight Response via Neuroendocrine Signaling. Dev Cell **49**:89–99.e4.
11. **Palominos, MF, Verdugo, L, Gabaldon, C, Pollak, B, Ortíz-Severín, J, Varas,**
MA, Chávez, FP, Calixto, A. 2017. Transgenerational Diapause as an Avoidance
Strategy against Bacterial Pathogens in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. mBio **8**
12. **Schulte, LN, Eulalio, A, Mollenkopf, HJ, Reinhardt, R, Vogel, J**. 2011. Analysis
of the host microRNA response to *Salmonella* uncovers the control of major
cytokines by the *let-7* family. EMBO J **30**:1977–1989.
13. **Maudet, C, Mano, M, Eulalio, A**. 2014. MicroRNAs in the interaction between
host and bacterial pathogens. FEBS Lett **588**:4140–4147.
14. **Ordas, A, Kanwal, Z, Lindenberg, V, Rougeot, J, Mink, M, Spaink, HP,**
Meijer, AH. 2013. MicroRNA-146 function in the innate immune transcriptome
response of zebrafish embryos to *Salmonella typhimurium* infection. BMC
Genomics **14**:696.
15. **MacNeil, LT, Watson, E, Arda, HE, Zhu, LJ, Walhout, AJ**. 2013. Diet-induced
developmental acceleration independent of TOR and insulin in *C. elegans*. Cell
153:240–252.
16. **Angeles-Albores, D, Lee, RYN, Chan, J, Sternberg, PW**. 2018. Two new
functions in the WormBase enrichment suite. microPublication Biology
17. **AbuOun, M, Suthers, PF, Jones, GI, Carter, BR, Saunders, MP, Maranas, CD,**
Woodward, MJ, Anjum, MF. 2009. Genome scale reconstruction of a Salmonella
metabolic model: comparison of similarity and differences with a commensal
Escherichia coli strain. J Biol Chem **284**:29480–29488.
18. **McClelland, M, Sanderson, KE, Spieth, J, Clifton, SW, Latreille, P, Courtney,**
L, Porwollik, S, Ali, J, Dante, M, Du, F, Hou, S, Layman, D, Leonard, S,
Nguyen, C, Scott, K, Holmes, A, Grewal, N, Mulvaney, E, Ryan, E, Sun, H,
Florea, L, Miller, W, Stoneking, T, Nhan, M, Waterston, R, Wilson, RK. 2001.
Complete genome sequence of *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium LT2.
Nature **413**:852–856.
19. **Lee, RC, Feinbaum, RL, Ambros, V**. 1993. The *C. elegans* heterochronic gene
lin-4 encodes small RNAs with antisense complementarity to *lin-14*. Cell **75**:843–
854.
20. **Reinhart, BJ, Slack, FJ, Basson, M, Pasquinelli, AE, Bettinger, JC, Rougvie,**
AE, Horvitz, HR, Ruvkun, G. 2000. The 21-nucleotide let-7 RNA regulates
developmental timing in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Nature **403**:901–906.

21.   **Bartel, DP**. 2004. MicroRNAs: genomics, biogenesis, mechanism, and function.
686   Cell **116**:281–297.
687   22.   **Rechavi, O, Minevich, G, Hobert, O**. 2011. Transgenerational inheritance of an
688   acquired small RNA-based antiviral response in *C. elegans*. Cell **147**:1248–1256.
689   23.   **Rechavi, O, Houri-Ze'evi, L, Anava, S, Goh, WSS, Kerk, SY, Hannon, GJ,**
690   **Hobert, O**. 2014. Starvation-induced transgenerational inheritance of small RNAs
691   in *C. elegans*. Cell **158**:277–287.
692   24.   **Yang, W, Dierking, K, Rosenstiel, PC, Schulenburg, H**. 2016. GATA
693   transcription factor as a likely key regulator of the *Caenorhabditis elegans* innate
694   immune response against gut pathogens. Zoology (Jena) **119**:244–253.
695   25.   **Blackwell, TK, Steinbaugh, MJ, Hourihan, JM, Ewald, CY, Isik, M**. 2015.
696   SKN-1/Nrf, stress responses, and aging in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Free Radic Biol
697   Med **88**:290–301.
698   26.   **Rohlfing, AK, Miteva, Y, Hannenhalli, S, Lamitina, T**. 2010. Genetic and
699   physiological activation of osmosensitive gene expression mimics transcriptional
700   signatures of pathogen infection in *C. elegans*. PLoS One **5**:e9010.
701   27.   **Martinez, NJ, Ow, MC, Barrasa, MI, Hammell, M, Sequerra, R, Doucette-**
702   **Stamm, L, Roth, FP, Ambros, VR, Walhout, AJ**. 2008. A *C. elegans* genome-
703   scale microRNA network contains composite feedback motifs with high flux
704   capacity. Genes Dev **22**:2535–2549.
705   28.   **Tepper, RG, Ashraf, J, Kaletsky, R, Kleemann, G, Murphy, CT, Bussemaker,**
706   **HJ**. 2013. PQM-1 complements DAF-16 as a key transcriptional regulator of DAF-
707   2-mediated development and longevity. Cell **154**:676–690.
708   29.   **Lall, S, Grün, D, Krek, A, Chen, K, Wang, YL, Dewey, CN, Sood, P, Colombo,**
709   **T, Bray, N, Macmenamin, P, Kao, HL, Gunsalus, KC, Pachter, L, Piano, F,**
710   **Rajewsky, N**. 2006. A genome-wide map of conserved microRNA targets in *C.*
711   *elegans*. Curr Biol **16**:460–471.
712   30.   **Gottlieb, S, Ruvkun, G**. 1994. daf-2, daf-16 and daf-23: genetically interacting
713   genes controlling Dauer formation in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Genetics **137**:107–
714   120.
715   31.   **Gómez-Orte, E, Cornes, E, Zheleva, A, Sáenz-Narciso, B, de Toro, M, Iñiguez,**
716   **M, López, R, San-Juan, JF, Ezcurra, B, Sacristán, B, Sánchez-Blanco, A,**
717   **Cerón, J, Cabello, J**. 2018. Effect of the diet type and temperature on the *C.*
718   *elegans* transcriptome. Oncotarget **9**:9556–9571.
719   32.   **Somasiri, P, Behm, CA, Adamski, M, Wen, J, Verma, NK**. 2020. Transcriptional
720   response of *Caenorhabditis elegans* when exposed to *Shigella flexneri*. Genomics
721   **112**:774–781.
722   33.   **Irazoqui, JE, Troemel, ER, Feinbaum, RL, Luhachack, LG, Cezairliyan, BO,**
723   **Ausubel, FM**. 2010. Distinct pathogenesis and host responses during infection of
724   *C. elegans* by *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus*. PLoS Pathog **6**:e1000982.
725   34.   **Shivers, RP, Youngman, MJ, Kim, DH**. 2008. Transcriptional responses to
726   pathogens in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Curr Opin Microbiol **11**:251–256.
727   35.   **Jovic, K, Grilli, J, Sterken, MG, Snoek, BL, Riksen, JAG, Allesina, S,**
728   **Kammenga, JE**. 2019. Transcriptome resilience predicts thermotolerance in
729   *Caenorhabditis elegans*. BMC Biol **17**:102.

36. **Çelen, İ, Doh, JH, Sabanayagam, CR**. 2018. Effects of liquid cultivation on gene
expression and phenotype of *C. elegans*. BMC Genomics **19**:562.

37. **Daxinger, L, Whitelaw, E**. 2010. Transgenerational epigenetic inheritance: more
questions than answers. Genome Res **20**:1623–1628.

38. **Jaenisch, R, Bird, A**. 2003. Epigenetic regulation of gene expression: how the
genome integrates intrinsic and environmental signals. Nat Genet **33 Suppl**:245–
254.

39. **Heard, E, Martienssen, RA**. 2014. Transgenerational epigenetic inheritance:
myths and mechanisms. Cell **157**:95–109.

40. **Corrêa, RL, Steiner, FA, Berezikov, E, Ketting, RF**. 2010. MicroRNA-directed
siRNA biogenesis in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. PLoS Genet **6**:e1000903.

41. **Ambros, V, Ruvkun, G**. 2018. Recent Molecular Genetic Explorations of
Caenorhabditis elegans MicroRNAs. Genetics **209**:651–673.

42. **Belicard, T, Jareosettasin, P, Sarkies, P**. 2018. The piRNA pathway responds to
environmental signals to establish intergenerational adaptation to stress. BMC
biology **16**:1–14.

43. **O'Rourke, D, Baban, D, Demidova, M, Mott, R, Hodgkin, J**. 2006. Genomic
clusters, putative pathogen recognition molecules, and antimicrobial genes are
induced by infection of *C. elegans* with *M. nematophilum*. Genome research
16:1005–1016.

44. **Jones, SJ, Riddle, DL, Pouzyrev, AT, Velculescu, VE, Hillier, L, Eddy, SR,
Stricklin, SL, Baillie, DL, Waterston, R, Marra, MA**. 2001. Changes in gene
expression associated with developmental arrest and longevity in *Caenorhabditis
elegans*. Genome Res **11**:1346–1352.

45. **Halaschek-Wiener, J, Khattra, JS, McKay, S, Pouzyrev, A, Stott, JM, Yang,
GS, Holt, RA, Jones, SJ, Marra, MA, Brooks-Wilson, AR, Riddle, DL**. 2005.
Analysis of long-lived *C. elegans daf-2* mutants using serial analysis of gene
expression. Genome Res **15**:603–615.

46. **Miska, EA, Alvarez-Saavedra, E, Abbott, AL, Lau, NC, Hellman, AB,
McGonagle, SM, Bartel, DP, Ambros, VR, Horvitz, HR**. 2007. Most
Caenorhabditis elegans microRNAs are individually not essential for development
or viability. PLoS Genet **3**:e215.

47. **Ren, Z, Ambros, VR**. 2015. *Caenorhabditis elegans* microRNAs of the *let-7*
family act in innate immune response circuits and confer robust developmental
timing against pathogen stress. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **112**:E2366–75.

48. **Zhu, Z, Zhang, D, Lee, H, Jin, Y**. 2016. <i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i>: An
important tool for dissecting microRNA functions. Biomed Genet Genom **1**:34–36.

49. **Zhi, L, Yu, Y, Li, X, Wang, D, Wang, D**. 2017. Molecular Control of Innate
Immune Response to *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Infection by Intestinal *let-7* in
Caenorhabditis elegans. PLoS Pathog **13**:e1006152.

50. **Ma, H, Marti-Gutierrez, N, Park, SW, Wu, J, Lee, Y, Suzuki, K, Koski, A, Ji,
D, Hayama, T, Ahmed, R, Darby, H, Van Dyken, C, Li, Y, Kang, E, Park, AR,
Kim, D, Kim, ST, Gong, J, Gu, Y, Xu, X, Battaglia, D, Krieg, SA, Lee, DM,
Wu, DH, Wolf, DP, Heitner, SB, Belmonte, JCI, Amato, P, Kim, JS, Kaul, S,
Mitalipov, S**. 2017. Correction of a pathogenic gene mutation in human embryos.
Nature **548**:413–419.

51.   **Sun, L, Zhi, L, Shakoor, S, Liao, K, Wang, D**. 2016. microRNAs Involved in the
Control of Innate Immunity in Candida Infected *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Sci Rep
6:36036.
52.   **Kudlow, BA, Zhang, L, Han, M**. 2012. Systematic analysis of tissue-restricted
miRISCs reveals a broad role for microRNAs in suppressing basal activity of the *C.
elegans* pathogen response. Molecular cell **46**:530–541.
53.   **Troemel, ER, Chu, SW, Reinke, V, Lee, SS, Ausubel, FM, Kim, DH**. 2006. p38
MAPK regulates expression of immune response genes and contributes to longevity
in *C. elegans*. PLoS Genet **2**:e183.
54.   **Singh, V, Aballay, A**. 2009. Regulation of DAF-16-mediated Innate Immunity in
Caenorhabditis elegans. J Biol Chem **284**:35580–35587.
55.   **Großhans, H, Johnson, T, Reinert, KL, Gerstein, M, Slack, FJ**. 2005. The
temporal patterning microRNA *let-7* regulates several transcription factors at the
larval to adult transition in *C. elegans*. Developmental cell **8**:321–330.
56.   **Brenner, S**. 1974. The genetics of *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Genetics **77**:71–94.
57.   **Cassada, RC, Russell, RL**. 1975. The dauerlarva, a post-embryonic developmental
variant of the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Dev Biol **46**:326–342.
58.   **Bolger, AM, Lohse, M, Usadel, B**. 2014. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for
Illumina sequence data. Bioinformatics **30**:2114–2120.
59.   **Trapnell, C, Pachter, L, Salzberg, SL**. 2009. TopHat: discovering splice junctions
with RNA-Seq. Bioinformatics **25**:1105–1111.
60.   **Anders, S, Pyl, PT, Huber, W**. 2015. HTSeq--a Python framework to work with
high-throughput sequencing data. Bioinformatics **31**:166–169.
61.   **Robinson, MD, McCarthy, DJ, Smyth, GK**. 2010. edgeR: a Bioconductor
package for differential expression analysis of digital gene expression data.
Bioinformatics **26**:139–140.
62.   **Anders, S, Huber, W**. 2010. Differential expression analysis for sequence count
data. Genome Biol **11**:R106.
63.   **Angeles-Albores, D, N Lee, RY, Chan, J, Sternberg, PW**. 2016. Tissue
enrichment analysis for *C. elegans* genomics. BMC Bioinformatics **17**:366.
64.   **Martin, M**. 2011. Cutadapt removes adapter sequences from high-throughput
sequencing reads. EMBnet. journal **17**:10–12.
65.   **Bolger, AM, Lohse, M, Usadel, B**. 2014. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for
Illumina sequence data. Bioinformatics **30**:2114–2120.
66.   **Langmead, B, Salzberg, SL**. 2012. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nat
Methods **9**:357–359.
67.   **Quinlan, AR, Hall, IM**. 2010. BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing
genomic features. Bioinformatics **26**:841–842.
68.   **Liao, Y, Smyth, GK, Shi, W**. 2014. featureCounts: an efficient general purpose
program for assigning sequence reads to genomic features. Bioinformatics **30**:923–
930.
69.   **Love, MI, Huber, W, Anders, S**. 2014. Moderated estimation of fold change and
dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biol **15**:550.
70.   **Guénin, S, Mauriat, M, Pelloux, J, Van Wuytswinkel, O, Bellini, C, Gutierrez,
L**. 2009. Normalization of qRT-PCR data: the necessity of adopting a systematic,
experimental conditions-specific, validation of references. J Exp Bot **60**:487–493.

Fig. 1. Global analysis of differential mRNA gene expression of an intergenerational infection paradigm. **A-B**. Number and types of mRNA genes differentially expressed on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 (A) and S. Typhimurium MST1 (B) in two generations. **C-D.** Number of non-coding mRNA genes differentially expressed on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 (C) and S. Typhimurium MST1 (D) in two generations. **E**. Type and abundance of non-coding RNAs on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and *S.* Typhimurium MST1. **F-G.** Venn diagram representation of shared and unique genes up (F) and down (G) regulated in each generation and on each pathogen.

Fig. 2. Global analysis of differential small RNA gene expression of an intergenerational infection paradigm **A** Genomic context of sRNA genes differentially expressed in pathogenic conditions. **B** Type and abundance of sRNA genes differentially expressed on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and S. Typhimurium MST1 in two generations **C-D**. Venn diagram representation of shared and unique genes over-expressed (C) and repressed (D) in each generation and on each pathogen. **E**. Number of sRNA genes differentially expressed on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 and S. Typhimurium MST1 in two generations.

Figure 3

Fig. 3. Expression of mature *mir-243* and role on pathogen induced diapause. **A**. Quantification of *mir-243-3p* expression in animals feeding on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 for two generations. **B-D** Growth (B), dauer formation on pathogens (C) and dauer formation by starvation (D) of *mir-243* mutant animals.

Figure 4

Fig. 4. Transcriptional factors required for *mir-243* expression and pathogen-induced diapause formation. **A**. Quantification of *mir-243* promoter expression by GFP in animals feeding on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 compared to *E. coli* OP50 and representative photos. **B**. Quantification by RT-PCR of *mir-243-3p* on wild type and *daf-16, pqm-1* and *crh-2* mutant animals. **C-E**. Growth on *E. coli* OP50 (C), *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 (D) and dauer formation (E) in the second generation of animals. **F**. Dauer formation on starvation of wild type and mutants of transcription factors. **G-H**. Quantification of expression of PQM-1 (G) and CRH-2 (H) by GFP expression on animals fed on pathogens.