SPECIFIC SENSORY NEURONS AND INSULIN-LIKE PEPTIDES MODULATE FOOD TYPE-DEPENDENT OOGENESIS AND FERTILIZATION IN *CAENORHABDITIS ELEGANS*

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Abstract

An animal's responses to environmental cues are critical for its reproductive program.

Thus, a mechanism that allows the animal to sense and adjust to its environment should

make for a more efficient reproductive physiology. Here we demonstrate that in

Caenorhabditis elegans specific sensory neurons influence onset of oogenesis through

insulin signaling in response to food-derived cues. The chemosensory neurons ASJ

modulate oogenesis onset through the insulin-like peptide (ILP) INS-6. In contrast, other

sensory neurons, the olfactory neurons AWA, regulate food type-dependent differences

in *C. elegans* fertilization rates, but not onset of oogenesis. AWA modulates fertilization

rates at least partly in parallel to insulin receptor signaling, since the insulin receptor DAF-2

regulates fertilization independently of food type, which requires ILPs other than INS-6.

Together our findings suggest that optimal reproduction requires the integration of diverse

food-derived inputs through multiple neuronal signals acting on the *C. elegans* germline.

Introduction

The survival of an individual and its species involves reproductive mechanisms that are

subject to food-dependent modulation. In the worm *C. elegans*, sensory neurons influence

food-dependent survival (***Maier et al., 2010***) and germline physiology (***Dalfo et al., 2012;***

Sowa et al., 2015; Aprison and Ruvinsky, 2017; Perez et al., 2021). This suggests the

intriguing possibility that sensory perception optimizes survival by modulating the germline

in a given environment, which makes it important to understand how the sensory system

affects germ cells.

In the germline of the *C. elegans* hermaphrodite, germ cells first undergo

spermatogenesis, before switching to oogenesis [***Figure 1A***; reviewed by (***Kimble and***

Crittenden, 2007)]. After oogenesis begins, oocytes undergo arrest at the diakinesis

stage of prophase I [reviewed by (***Greenstein, 2005***)]. Oocytes are released from this

arrest in an assembly-line manner by a hormone secreted from sperm, where the oocyte

most proximal to the spermatheca matures first (***McCarter et al., 1999; Miller et al.,***

2001). Once released from arrest, the oocyte is also immediately ovulated into the

spermatheca, where it is fertilized by a sperm (***McCarter et al., 1999; Miller et al., 2001***).

Thus, in *C. elegans* hermaphrodites, the rate of oocyte maturation determines the rate of

fertilization (***McCarter et al., 1999***).

Some of the *C. elegans* sensory neurons have been shown to modulate germ cell

proliferation (***Dalfo et al., 2012; Aprison and Ruvinsky, 2017***) and oocyte senescence

(***Sowa et al., 2015***) in response to food or pheromones. However, it remains unclear

whether the same sensory neurons regulate germline differentiation and fertilization or

what signaling mechanisms underlie these sensory influences.

Insulin signaling could mediate the sensory responses to food [reviewed by (***Allen***

et al., 2015)]. Worms have 40 insulin-like peptides [ILPs; (***Duret et al., 1998; Kawano et***

al., 2000; Pierce et al., 2001; Li et al., 2003), many of which are expressed in sensory

neurons and could act alone or combinatorially to regulate several physiological programs

(**Cornils et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2013; Ritter et al., 2013; Fernandes de Abreu et al.,**

2014). Indeed, two ILPs, *ins-3* and *ins-33*, have already been shown to regulate germ cell

proliferation (**Michaelson et al., 2010**); however, the cells that secrete these signals that

affect the germline are unknown.

In this study, we find that specific sensory neurons and ILPs regulate the timing of

oogenesis and fertilization through food type-dependent and -independent mechanisms.

In response to a specific food type, we show that the chemosensory neuron ASJ promotes

early oogenesis. This ASJ-dependent effect on oogenesis involves ASJ-specific

expression of the ILP *ins-6*. In contrast, an olfactory neuron, AWA, regulates food type-

dependent fertilization rates through mechanisms that differ from insulin receptor

signaling. The insulin receptor pathway alters fertilization rates independent of food cues

and employs other ILPs. Thus, our work demonstrates that oogenesis onset and

fertilization are subject to different ILP signals and sensory neuron activities, which ensure

optimal reproduction within a changing environment.

Results

The bacterial food source modulates onset of oogenesis and fertilization rate in *C.

elegans*

Previously, we have shown that different *E. coli* strains that serve as food for *C. elegans*

can modulate the animals' reproductive physiology, independent of their somatic

development (**Maier et al., 2010**). Wild-type *C. elegans* fed two different *E. coli* strains,

OP50 and CS180, developed through four larval stages (L1 to L4; **Figure 1A**) at about

the same rate (**Figure 1B**), before they molted into young adults. However, *C.*

elegans grown on CS180 produced fewer progeny when compared to animals grown on

OP50 (**Figure 1C**, **Figure 1—supplement 1**). This CS180-dependent phenotype was not

because the animals had restricted food intake, since they showed no delay in

developmental rates (*Figure 1B*). In fact, CS180-fed animals exhibited faster fertilization

rates during the first 24 hours of adulthood (*Figure 1D*, *Figure 1—supplement 1*), which

is opposite of what would be expected for food level-restricted animals (*Maier et al., 2010*).

In *C. elegans*, the total number of sperm made before the gametogenesis switch

to oogenesis can limit the number of progeny (*Ward and Carrel, 1979*). Consistent with

this idea, animals fed CS180 not only had fewer progeny (*Figure 1C*, *Figure 1—*

supplement 1), but also fewer sperm than animals on OP50 (*Figure 1E*). To test the

hypothesis that the lower sperm number in *C. elegans* on CS180 was because of an earlier

switch from spermatogenesis to oogenesis, we examined when the oogenesis

marker *lin-41::GFP* (*Spike et al., 2014; Noble et al., 2016*) was first expressed (*Figure*

1F to H, Figure 1—supplement 1). We found that a significant fraction of worms on

CS180 began to express the oogenesis marker *lin-41::GFP* at the mid-L4 stage, which

was before the marker was observed in any worms on OP50 (*Figure 1H*, *Figure 1—*

supplement 1). Worms fed OP50 started to express *lin-41::GFP* only at late L4 (34%),

when most animals on CS180 (69%) had already expressed the GFP marker (*Figure 1H*,

Figure 1—supplement 1). To confirm further the effect of the CS180 diet on oogenesis,

we also analyzed the initial expression of a second oogenesis reporter, *oma-1::GFP*

(*Detwiler et al., 2001; Lin, 2003*), on CS180 or OP50. Similar to what we observed with

lin-41::GFP, worms fed CS180 started to express *oma-1::GFP* at mid-L4 (20%), again

before any OP50-fed worms (*Figure 1I*, *Figure 1—supplement 1*). The gonads of

CS180-fed animals also had more arrested oocytes than the gonads of age-matched

adults on OP50 (*Figure 1J*). Thus, our data are consistent with the hypothesis that the

fewer progeny on CS180 can reflect earlier oogenesis on this food source. Together with

the increased rate of fertilization in CS180-fed animals (*Figure 1D*, *Figure 1—*

supplement 1), which would depend on the oocyte maturation rate (*McCarter et al.,*

1999), our data suggest that CS180 promotes earlier and faster oocyte development.

CS180-derived cues that affect oocyte development are absent from the K-12 HT115

bacteria and *Serratia marcescens*

OP50 is derived from an *E. coli* B strain (*Brenner, 1974*); CS180, from an *E. coli* K-12

strain (*Pradel et al., 1992*). One of the differences between the two bacterial strains is the

outer core structures of the lipopolysaccharides (LPS) on their cell walls [(*Maier et al.,*

2010) and references therein]. The OP50 LPS is shorter than the CS180 LPS [*Figure 2A*;

(*Maier et al., 2010*)]. To test if this difference in LPS alters oogenesis onset and fertilization

rate, we examined wild-type *C. elegans* oocyte development on *E. coli* CS2429, which is

a K-12 strain that is derived from CS180 but has a truncated LPS [*Figure 2A*; (*Pradel et*

al., 1992; Zhang et al., 2006)]. Interestingly, like on CS180, worms on CS2429 still

displayed a lower number of progeny (*Figure 2B, Figure 2—supplement 1*), early

oogenesis (*Figure 2C, Figure 2—supplement 1*), and faster fertilization (*Figure 2D,*

Figure 2—supplement 1). This indicates that this difference in LPS structure is

insufficient to affect oocyte development.

Since CS180 is an *E. coli* K-12 strain, we then asked if other K-12 bacteria elicit

the same oocyte physiological responses. While worms on the *E. coli* K-12 HT115 bacteria

(*Takiff et al., 1989; Dasgupta et al., 1998*) produced a similar number of progeny as

worms fed CS180 (*Figure 2—supplement 1*), HT115-fed worms did not exhibit an early

oogenesis onset (*Figure 2E, Figure 2—supplement 1*) or faster fertilization rates (*Figure*

2F, Figure 2—supplement 1). This suggests that the cue(s) that cause early oogenesis

and faster fertilization (i) might differ from the cue(s) that modulate an animal's number of

progeny and (ii) are specific to CS180 and its derivative CS2429.

Thus, we explored the potential nature of the CS180-derived cue(s) that affect

oocyte physiology and supplemented OP50-fed worms with CS180-conditioned media.

We found that these animals showed early expression of the oogenesis marker at mid-L4

and had faster fertilization rates, which are unlike the unsupplemented OP50-fed controls

(*Figure 2G and H, Figure 2—supplement 1*). However, filtration of the CS180-

conditioned media through a nylon membrane, which has a 0.45 μm-diameter pore size,

removed the cue(s) that promote early oocyte development and fast fertilization (*Figure*

2G and H, Figure 2—supplement 1). Because the cue(s) were lost by filtration through

the nylon membrane filters (*Hasegawa et al., 2003*), the CS180-derived cue(s) that

modulate oocyte physiology are unlikely to be small molecules, such as free metabolites.

Because it remains possible that the CS180-derived cue(s) stimulate *C. elegans*

innate immunity, which in turn modulate oocyte fate and physiology, we also exposed wild-

type worms to two strains of the more pathogenic bacteria *Serratia marcescens* (*Pradel*

et al., 2007). The absence of early oogenesis onset on *Serratia marcescens* (*Figure 2I,*

Figure 2—supplement 1) suggest that the CS180 responses are not general innate

immune responses. Our findings also show that bacterial pathogenicity is insufficient to

promote earlier oocyte development.

Food type modulates oogenesis onset and fertilization rate at different critical

periods during development

To identify the critical periods for food type-dependent effects on onset of oogenesis and

on fertilization, we grew worms on one food type and switched them to the second food

type at different stages of larval development. Worms that were switched from OP50 to

CS180 at the first larval stage (L1; *Figure 3—supplement 1*) or at the early part of the

third larval stage (L3) behaved like worms that were fed CS180 continuously (*Figure 3A*

and B, Figure 3—supplement 1). These worms produced less progeny (*Figure 3A,*

Figure 3—supplement 1) and expressed the oogenesis reporter earlier than animals

grown continuously on OP50 (*Figure 3B, Figure 3—supplement 1*). Since the germ cells

of worms transferred to CS180 still responded to this food source, this suggests that the

germ cell decision to switch to oogenesis occurs after early L3.

In contrast, animals that were transferred from OP50 to CS180 at late L3 or later

developmental stages showed the phenotype of animals that were always grown on OP50

(*Figure 3A and B, Figure 3—supplement 1*), which suggests that the germ cell decision

to switch to oogenesis has already been made by late L3. This is further supported by our

findings that the germ cells of worms that underwent the reciprocal switch from CS180 to

OP50 responded consistently to OP50 only until early L3, but not at later stages (*Figure*

3A and B, Figure 3—supplement 1). Thus, food type can only modulate onset of

oogenesis before late L3, consistent with a prior study that showed that germ cell fate

determination occurs during this stage (*Barton and Kimble, 1990*).

However, the critical window for the food-type effect on fertilization rate is after the

early part of the fourth larval stage (L4; *Figure 3C to F, Figure 3—supplement 1*). Worms

switched between one food source to the second food source at early L4 (*Figure 3D,*

Figure 3—supplement 1) had the same fertilization rates as animals consistently fed the

second food source. Animals switched at mid-L4 had a delayed and less robust fertilization

response to the second food source (*Figure 3E, Figure 3—supplement 1*), whereas a

food switch immediately after the molt into adulthood had no effect on fertilization rates

(*Figure 3F, Figure 3—supplement 1*). Thus, fertilization rate is influenced by food type

until just before *C. elegans* molts into a young adult.

A specific sensory neuron regulates the food-type differences in total progeny

We have previously shown that sensory perception of food type can alter *C.*

elegans longevity (*Maier et al., 2010*), which led us to hypothesize that sensory neurons

will also influence the number of progeny the animals produce on the different food

sources. Accordingly, we tested mutants that impaired different subsets of sensory

neurons. Unlike wild type, the *osm-3* mutant*,* which has many defective sensory neurons

(***Tabish et al., 1995; Taylor et al., 2021***), produced the same number of offspring on both

OP50 and CS180 (***Figure 4A, Figure 4—supplement 1***). This suggests that at least

some of the *osm-3*-expressing neurons alter the worm's total progeny in response to food

type.

176   Similar to *osm-3* mutants, a mutation in the guanylyl cyclase gene *odr-1*, which

impairs a different subset of sensory neurons (***L'Etoile and Bargmann, 2000; Taylor et***

al., 2021), also produced the same number of progeny on OP50 and CS180 (***Figure 4A,***

Figure 4—supplement 1). However, unlike *osm-3* and *odr-1* mutants, but like wild type,

a defect in the transcription factor gene *odr-7*, which causes the specific loss of the

olfactory neuron AWA (***Sengupta et al., 1994***), led to more progeny on OP50 than on

CS180 (***Figure 4A, Figure 4—supplement 1***). This suggests that there is some neuronal

specificity in the regulation of total progeny.

184   *osm-3* and *odr-1* mutants share defects in several sensory neurons, including ASI,

ASJ and ASK (***Tabish et al., 1995; L'Etoile and Bargmann, 2000; Taylor et al., 2021***).

Individual ablation of the ASI and ASK neurons did not abolish the food type-dependent

differences in total progeny (***Figure 4A, Figure 4—supplement 1***). Interestingly, loss of

the ASJ neurons suppressed the differences in progeny number (***Figure 4A, Figure 4—***

supplement 1) on OP50 versus CS180. Thus, our data show that, unlike ASI, ASK and

AWA, the neuron ASJ modulates the worm's total progeny in response to food cues.

The ILP *ins-6* also regulates food-type differences in total progeny

The number of *C. elegans* progeny is also subject to regulation by insulin signaling

[reviewed by (***Murphy and Hu, 2013***)], which led us to test whether insulin signaling will

modulate the food-type differences in progeny number. Reduction-of-function mutations

in *daf-2*, the *C. elegans* insulin-like growth factor receptor (**Kimura et al., 1997; Gems et**

al., 1998), reduced or abolished the food-type differences in total progeny (**Figure 4B,**

Figure 4—supplement 1). In contrast, a loss-of-function mutation in *daf-16*, the FOXO-

like transcription factor that is antagonized by DAF-2 (**Lin et al., 1997; Ogg et al., 1997**),

still led to food-type differences in the number of progeny on OP50 and CS180 (**Figure**

4B and E, Figure 4—supplement 1). Together these findings indicate that insulin

signaling regulates total progeny in response to food cues.

Because ASJ neurons express at least three potential ILP ligands for the DAF-2

receptor, INS-1 (**Kodama et al., 2006; Tomioka et al., 2006**), INS-6 (**Cornils et al., 2011**)

and DAF-28 (**Li et al., 2003; Taylor et al., 2021**), we tested the effects of these three

peptides on progeny number. Deletion of either *ins-1* or *daf-28* did not alter the OP50- or

CS180-dependent progeny number (**Figure 4C, Figure 4—supplement 1**). However,

ins-6 deletion mutants lost the food-type differences in total progeny (**Figure 4D and E,**

Figure 4—supplement 1), which were restored when *daf-16* was also deleted (**Figure**

4E, Figure 4—supplement 1). Together these data suggest that there are specific ILPs,

such as INS-6, that modulate food type-dependent total progeny, which depend on the

insulin pathway transcription factor DAF-16.

ASJ sensory neurons promote early oogenesis on a CS180 bacterial diet

Since sensory neurons modulate total progeny (**Figure 4A, Figure 4—supplement 1**),

we next asked whether the same sensory neurons will also alter the timing of oogenesis

in response to food-derived cues. We compared in parallel the onset of oogenesis in

osm-3 mutants and in animals lacking their ASI or ASJ neurons.

Similar to the loss of food-type differences in its total progeny (**Figure 4A, Figure**

4—supplement 1), *osm-3* mutants failed to exhibit early oogenesis on CS180 during mid-

L4 (**Figure 5A, Figure 5—supplement 1**). This suggests that there are *osm-3*-expressing

neurons that promote early oogenesis onset in response to food cues. In contrast, worms

lacking ASI neurons showed early oogenesis during mid-L4 (**Figure 5A, Figure 5—**

supplement 1). Yet, the continued low level of oogenesis during late L4 in ASI-ablated

worms on CS180 might suggest that ASI plays a minor role in oogenesis and that the

food-type differences in total progeny can be uncoupled from the food-type differences in

oogenesis onset.

More importantly, ASJ-ablated worms showed no early expression of the

oogenesis marker *lin-41::GFP* at mid-L4 and decreased *lin-41::GFP* even during late L4

and lethargus (**Figure 5A, Figure 5—supplement 1**). ASJ-ablated worms also did not

show any mid-L4 expression of a second oogenesis marker*, oma-1::GFP*, which was

again different from controls (**Figure 5E, Figure 5—supplement 1**). Thus, loss of ASJ

delayed oogenesis based on the temporal expression of the two oogenesis reporters,

lin-41::GFP and *oma-1::GFP*. These findings demonstrate that ASJ neurons not only

modulate the animal's number of progeny, but also play a major role in promoting early

oogenesis.

***ins-6* promotes food type-dependent early oogenesis independent of the**

***daf-16*/FOXO transcription factor**

How does ASJ promote oogenesis? Again, the ILPs expressed by ASJ are good

candidates through which ASJ affects this process, since insulin signaling is an important

regulator of oocyte development across metazoans [reviewed by (**Das and Arur, 2017**)].

Indeed, both *daf-2* reduction-of-function mutants lost the early expression of the oogenesis

marker *lin-41::GFP* on CS180 (**Figure 5B, Figure 5—supplement 1**), whereas *daf-16*

deletion mutants continued to have early oogenesis on CS180 (**Figure 5C, Figure 5—**

supplement 1). Together these observations suggest that insulin signaling also mediates

the food-type effects on worm oogenesis.

To determine whether the same ILP that regulates total progeny again regulates

the timing of oogenesis, we assayed the effects of *ins-6* on oogenesis and compared these

to the effects of *ins-1* and *daf-28*. Similar to their lack of effect on food type-dependent

total progeny (*Figure 4C, Figure 4—supplement 1*), the deletion of *ins-1* or *daf-28* had

no effect on the OP50- or CS180-dependent onset of oogenesis (*Figure 5D, Figure 5—*

supplement 1). However, *ins-6* mutants had no early expression of *lin-41::GFP* (*Figure*

5D and F, Figure 5—supplement 1) or *oma-1::GFP* (*Figure 5E, Figure 5—supplement*

1) at mid-L4 on CS180. Thus, our data show that of the three ILPs tested, *ins-6* alone is

sufficient to modulate the food type-dependent onset of oogenesis (*Figures 5 and 6*).

Surprisingly, however, the lack of early oogenesis at mid-L4 in *ins-6* mutants

cannot be rescued by the loss of *daf-16* (*Figure 5F, Figure 5—supplement 1*), which

suggests that *ins-6* modulates early oogenesis independent of *daf-16*. This is reminiscent

of the *daf-16*-independence of *daf-2* in promoting germline meiotic progression in

response to food availability (**Lopez et al., 2013**). The *daf-16*-independence *of ins-6* in

regulating oogenesis also indicates that the mechanisms that underlie food type-

dependent oogenesis onset are not completely the same as those that underlie the food-

type differences in total progeny.

ASJ neurons modulate food type-dependent oogenesis onset through INS-6

During the larval stages, *ins-6* is expressed in two sensory neurons, ASI and ASJ (*Cornils*

et al., 2011). Using the *drcSi68* transcriptional reporter, which expresses *ins-6p::mCherry*

in ASI and ASJ, we asked whether the *ins-6* reporter expression changes when the

animals are fed OP50 versus CS180. At mid-to-late L3, the stage when the food source

can still modulate oogenesis onset (*Figure 3B, Figure 3—supplement 1*), worms grown

on CS180 showed higher *ins-6p::mCherry* expression in ASJ, but not in ASI, unlike worms

on OP50 (**Figure 6A**). We also found that ASJ-expressed *ins-6*, but not ASI-expressed

ins-6, is sufficient to rescue the oogenesis onset phenotype of *ins-6* mutants, comparable

to the rescue observed when *ins-6* expression is driven from its own promoter (**Figure 6B,**

Figure 6—supplement 1). These findings suggest that ASJ modulates early onset of

oogenesis by producing INS-6.

To confirm that INS-6 does act from ASJ to modulate oogenesis, we next removed

the *ins-6* coding sequences from the ASJ neurons, but not from ASI neurons. Loss of *ins-6*

from ASJ delayed oogenesis, despite the continued presence of *ins-6* in ASI (**Figure 6C,**

Figure 6—supplement 1). Thus, we show that ASJ-expressed *ins-6* is both sufficient and

necessary to promote early oogenesis on the CS180 food source.

AWA olfactory neurons and insulin receptor signaling regulate food type-

dependent fertilization rates through different mechanisms

Next, we asked if sensory neurons also influence fertilization. While the *odr-1* mutation

had little effect on food type-dependent fertilization rates (**Figure 7—supplement 1**), a

mutation in either *osm-3* or another sensory gene, the G protein α subunit *odr-3* (**Roayaie**

et al., 1998), suppressed the faster fertilization on CS180 (**Figure 7A and B, Figure 7—**

supplement 1). This again suggests a role for sensory neurons in the food type-

dependent modulation of fertilization rates.

Both *osm-3* and *odr-3* are expressed in several chemosensory neurons, including

ADF, ASH, ASI, ASK and ASJ (**Tabish et al., 1995; Roayaie et al., 1998; Taylor et al.,**

2021). Ablation of either ADF or ASH had no effect on the food type-induced variation in

fertilization rates (**Figure 7C and D, Figure 7—supplement 1**). While the global

fertilization rates were lower on OP50 and CS180, loss of either ASI or ASK again did not

abolish the food-type differences in fertilization (**Figure 7E and F, Figure 7—supplement**

1). In addition, the ASJ neurons, which modulate onset of oogenesis (*Figure 5A and E,*

Figure 5—supplement 1), did not affect fertilization rates on OP50 versus CS180 (*Figure*

7G, Figure 7—supplement 1), suggesting that ASJ specifically influences oogenesis, but

not fertilization. Thus, our data suggest that other neurons expressing either *osm-3* and/or

odr-3, either individually or in combination, will modulate food type-dependent fertilization.

We also asked if the *odr-3*-expressing olfactory neurons AWA, AWB and AWC

(*Roayaie et al., 1998*) play a role in this process. While loss of AWB and AWC did not

eliminate the fertilization rate differences on OP50 and CS180 (*Figure 7H and I, Figure*

7—supplement 1), loss of AWA (*Sengupta et al., 1994; Yoshida et al., 2012*)

suppressed the food-type differences in fertilization (*Figure 7J, Figure 7—supplement*

1). However, this AWA-dependent regulation of fertilization is independent of the AWA-

specific olfactory receptor ODR-10 [*Figure 7—supplement 1*; (*Sengupta et al., 1996*)].

This suggests that AWA neurons regulate fertilization in response to food cues that are

not ligands of ODR-10.

Next, we asked if AWA and ASJ act synergistically during fertilization. However,

we found no synergistic effect between the two neurons in regulating this process

(compare *Figure 7G and J to Figure 7K, Figure 7—supplement 1*). To determine if

AWA neurons specifically regulate fertilization, we then examined when oogenesis begins

in animals lacking AWA. We found that absence of AWA had no effect on early onset of

oogenesis on CS180 (*Figure 7L, Figure 7—supplement 1*), similar to its lack of effect on

progeny number (*Figure 4A, Figure 4—supplement 1*). Moreover, we observed no

synergistic effect between AWA and ASJ in regulating oogenesis onset (*Figure 7L,*

Figure 7—supplement 1). Thus, on given diets, we show that there are specific neurons

that influence distinct aspects of oocyte development and physiology: ASJ for early

oogenesis versus AWA for fertilization.

To explore whether AWA regulates fertilization through insulin signaling, we

assayed the food type-dependent fertilization rates of insulin signaling mutants. The weak

reduction-of-function mutant *daf-2*(*e1368)* or the null *daf-16(mu86)* mutant had little or no

significant effect on fertilization (***Figure 8A and C, Figure 8—supplement 1***), but the

stronger reduction-of-function mutant *daf-2(e1370)* (***Lin et al., 1997; Gems et al., 1998***)

suppressed global fertilization rates (***Figure 8B, Figure 8—supplement 1***). However, the

daf-2(e1370) mutant fertilization rate on OP50 still differed from that on CS180 (***Figure***

8B, Figure 8—supplement 1). This suggests that the DAF-2 receptor modulates overall

fertilization rates, but not necessarily in response to food-derived cues. For this reason,

the AWA food type-dependent influence on fertilization differs from the effects of insulin

receptor signaling on this process.

To test if the ILPs that regulate fertilization also differs from the ILPs that regulate

total progeny or oogenesis onset, we measured the effects *of ins-6, daf-28* or *ins-1* on

fertilization. A single deletion of any of these ILPs had no effect on fertilization rates

(***Figure 8D to F, Figure 8—supplement 1***), and deletion mutant combinations of these

ILPs (***Figure 8—supplement 1***) did not exhibit any robust phenotypes that mirrored those

of the strong *daf-2(e1370)* mutant phenotypes. This implies that there are multiple ILPs

that act through the DAF-2 receptor to regulate fertilization. Notably, our findings indicate

that the set of ILP activities that regulates fertilization is distinct from the set of ILPs that

regulates onset of oogenesis.

Discussion

Germline development must be coordinated with existing environmental resources to

optmize population survival. The sensory system is an important interface between the

environment and an animal's physiology, which suggests a role for the sensory system in

germline biology. Not surprisingly, sensory neurons have been implicated in germline

proliferation or senescence in *C. elegans* (*Dalfo et al., 2012; Sowa et al., 2015; Aprison

and Ruvinsky, 2017*) and potentially in gamete development in mammals (*Boehm et al.,

2005; Yoon et al., 2005*). Here we show that distinct sensory neurons acting through

insulin-dependent and -independent signaling mechanisms influence specific steps in

oocyte development and physiology in response to food-derived cues. Discrete aspects

of oocyte biology—oocyte fate determination and successful oocyte fertilization—are thus

subject to different sets of cues that are sensed by different cells that work together to

control the production of an animal's total progeny.

The sensory neurons that regulate oogenesis onset differ from those that affect

fertilization

Unlike the olfactory neuron AWA, the chemosensory neuron ASJ promotes early onset of

oogenesis (*Figure 7L, Figure 7—supplement 1, Figure 9*). This ASJ-dependent effect

does not appear to be a general response to stress, like pathogen stress (*Figure 2I,

Figure 2—supplement 1*), but a response to specific food cues that are likely not small

metabolites (*Figure 2G, Figure 2—supplement 1*). In contrast, the olfactory neuron AWA

promotes the increased fertilization rates on the CS180 food source, but not ASJ and the

other neurons that we have so far tested (*Figure 7C to K, Figure 7—supplement 1,

Figure 9*). Together these data suggest that the sensory cue(s) that promote early

oogenesis differ from the sensory cue(s) that affect fertilization.

While AWA has a major role in food type-dependent fertilization, it is most likely

not the only sensory neuron involved in this process. The *osm-3* mutation, which impairs

several sensory neurons (*Tabish et al., 1995*), also partly suppresses the faster

fertilization on CS180 (*Figure 7A, Figure 7—supplement 1*). This raises the likelihood

that other neurons regulate fertilization. In fact, we find that worms lacking ASI, ASK and

AWB neurons fertilize at a slower rate at certain or at all time points on OP50 and CS180,

when compared to wild type (**Figure 7E, F and H, Figure 7—supplement 1**). However,

these animals still exhibit significant food-type differences in their fertilization rates (**Figure**

7E, F and H, Figure 7—supplement 1). This means that ASI, ASK and AWB are not

required to regulate food-type effects on fertilization, but might have a role that are

independent of food. A mechanism that includes several neurons to regulate fertilization

would be expected, since it is a dynamic process that proceeds for several days. This

makes it necessary for the worms to sense environmental changes continuously and

adjust their reproductive physiology accordingly. Thus, the involvement of multiple sensory

neurons would make for a more sensitive and efficient physiology.

Interestingly, at least one of the sensory neurons that inhibits germline proliferation

(**Aprison and Ruvinsky, 2017**), ASJ, also promotes food type-dependent early oogenesis

(this work). This suggests that this sensory neuron might regulate oogenesis onset by

regulating the first switch that occurs in the *C. elegans* germline, mitosis (*i.e.*, proliferation)

to meiosis (*i.e.*, differentiation) (**Kimble and Crittenden, 2007**). Consistent with this

hypothesis, we demonstrate that food type can only modulate onset of oogenesis before

the late L3 stage (**Figure 3B, Figure 3—supplement 1**), which coincides with the time

before germ cells enter meiosis (**Kimble and Crittenden, 2007**). Thus, some of the

sensory neurons that influence the germline might have more than one function at different

stages of germ cell development.

Oocyte development requires distinct insulin-like signaling mechanisms

Insulin signaling is an important regulator of oogenesis, where impaired signaling leads to

reproductive deficits across many species [reviewed by (**Das and Arur, 2017**)]. Here we

find that specific ILPs regulate discrete stages of oocyte physiology. The ILP INS-6 acts

from the ASJ neuron to modulate food type-dependent early oogenesis (**Figure 6B and**

C, Figure 6—supplement 1, Figure 9), whereas it appears to have little or no effect on

oocyte fertilization rates (***Figure 8D, Figure 8—supplement 1***). Although insulin receptor

DAF-2 signaling does not appear to mediate the AWA neuron-dependent food-type effects

on fertilization, DAF-2 does regulate overall fertilization independent of food sources

(***Figure 8B, Figure 8—supplement 1, Figure 9***), where its ILP ligands remain to be

identified. Since fertilization depends on oocyte maturation (***McCarter et al., 1999***), our

data also suggest that different ILPs regulate specific stages of oogenesis—onset versus

maturation.

Our findings further suggest that at least one of these ILPs, INS-6, can act

independent of DAF-16, a known transcriptional effector of the DAF-2 receptor (***Figure***

5F, Figure 5—supplement 1). Distinct insulin-like signaling mechanisms—*daf-16*-

independent and *daf-16*-dependent—might be necessary for optimal oogenesis and

fertilization. A worm's number of progeny will likely be impacted by the timing of the

spermatogenesis-to-oogenesis switch, as well as by successful fertilization. Hence,

distinct ILP signaling mechanisms that can respond to disparate environmental cues might

also explain the variability in the number of progeny of *daf-16* mutants (***Figure 4B and E,***

Figure 4—supplement 1).

ILPs might encode and integrate diverse cues that influence oocyte development.

Considering the pleiotropic effects of insulin signaling on metazoan reproduction (***Das and***

Arur, 2017), it is possible that the multiple ILPs present in other animals (***Allen et al.,***

2015) will also have specific roles in coordinating oogenesis with fluctuations in a given

environment. Thus, our study suggests that successful fertilization will require the careful

integration of multiple environmental inputs through ILPs acting on the germline from

neuronal, and potentially non-neuronal, cells.

Materials and Methods

Worm strains and culture

General maintenance. *C. elegans* were cultured on NGM agar plates (**Brenner, 1974**)

seeded with *E. coli* OP50, CS180, CS2429, or HT115 or with *S. marcescens* strains. All

bacterial strains were initially cultured in Luria broth (LB) medium to logarithmic phase,

prior to seeding the NGM agar plates. All animals were well-fed for at least two generations

before any phenotypic analyses were conducted. All experiments were performed at 25°C,

except for those that included the *daf-2(e1368)* or *daf-2(e1370)* temperature-sensitive

mutations. *daf-2* mutants grown as eggs until the L1 stage at 25°C become

developmentally arrested (**Gems et al., 1998**). Thus, these mutants were first grown at

20°C, the permissive temperature, and shifted to 25°C before the critical periods defined

for food-dependent modulation of oogenesis onset or fertilization, along with their

corresponding controls. See **Supplementary File 1** for the list of genotypes of the strains

used in this study, which include the neuronally ablated animals. All strains generated in

this study are available upon request.

Generation of the lin-41::GFP daf-16(mu86) recombinant. To recombine

lin-41::GFP with the *daf-16(mu86)* deletion on chromosome I, the strain carrying

lin-41(tn1541[GFP::tev::s::lin-41]) (**Spike et al., 2014**) was crossed to a *daf-16(mu86)*

homozygote. Among the subsequent progeny of the *lin-41::GFP + / + daf-16* cross-

progeny, we identified 1 recombination event out of 50 chromosomes, which was

homozygous for *lin-41::GFP* and heterozygous for *daf-16(mu86)*. This animal was allowed

to reproduce to isolate the homozygous *lin-41::GFP daf-16(mu86)* recombinant strain.

Generation of the loxP-flanked ins-6 strain, syb7547. A region of the *ins-6* genomic

locus, which begins at the translation start codon in exon 1 until the translation stop codon

in exon 2, was replaced with the *ins-6* open reading frame (ORF) through CRISPR/Cas9

technology by SunyBiotech (Fujian, China). The inserted ORF, which lacks intron 1, was

flanked at both ends with the *loxP* sequence, 5'-ATA ACT TCG TAT AGC ATA CAT TAT

ACG AAG TTA T-3'. The first *loxP* sequence was inserted 3 bases upstream of the start

codon, whereas the second *loxP* sequence was inserted immediately after the stop codon.

Two synonymous nucleotide changes were introduced into the inserted ORF to prevent

its cleavage by Cas9 during the integration step: L14L (CTC to CTG) and C96C (TGC to

TGT). *syb7547* was outcrossed four times to the *lin-41(tn1541[GFP::tev::s::lin-41])* strain

(**Spike et al., 2014**) before analysis in the presence or absence of the *trx-1p::nCRE*

recombinase transgene (ASJp::*CRE*)*.* Like animals that have a wild-type *ins-6* genomic

locus, *ins-6(syb7547)* animals showed an earlier onset of oogenesis on CS180 during

mid-L4 (**Figure 6C, Figure 6—supplement 1**) in the absence of the *trx-1p::nCRE*

recombinase.

Generation of the ASJp::CRE recombinase strain. We drove CRE recombinase

(gift of Mario de Bono) from the *trx-1* promoter (**Miranda-Vizuete et al., 2006; Cornils et**

al., 2011), with an *unc-54* 3' UTR from pPD95.77 (gift of Andrew Fire; pQZ116). The

plasmid pQZ116, was introduced into a *lin-41(tn1541[GFP::tev::s::lin-41])*; *ins-6(tm2416)*

animal, as an extrachromosomal array.

Measurement of the rate of development

L1 larvae that hatched within a 2-hr period on each bacterial food source were collected

and allowed to grow at 25°C for 32 hrs on the same food source. The number of animals

that were L1, L2, L3 or L4 larvae or adults were counted and represented as a percentage

of the total population. The chi-square test was used to compare the stage distributions of

worms fed the different bacteria.

Measurement of sperm and arrested oocytes

To count the number of sperm, 2- to 3-hr-old adult OD95 hermaphrodites that carry the

transgene *pie-1p::mCherry::his-58* (**McNally et al., 2006**) were anesthetized on a 1%

agarose pad that contained 6 mM sodium azide. Series of Z-stack images of the

spermathecae were captured at 100 msec as the exposure time, using a Nikon Eclipse

Ti-E microscope and a Photometrics Coolsnap Myo cooled digital camera. The number of

sperm were counted as red fluorescent puncta across the entire stacks.

To measure the number of arrested oocytes, young wild-type adult hermaphrodites

were anesthetized as described above. The gonads were imaged under differential

interference contrast microscopy. Counts from only one gonad arm were reported per

animal. The Student's t-test was used to compare gamete counts between animals.

Measurement of total progeny

Individual young adult hermaphrodites were grown on a 35-mm plate seeded with the

indicated bacteria. The mother was transferred to a new plate every 12-24 hrs until

reproduction ceased entirely. Total progeny that hatched were counted and reported. At

least ten animals were tested in each trial, and each strain studied was assayed in multiple

independent trials. To analyze the *daf-2* mutants and their corresponding controls, worms

were first grown at 20°C, before they were transferred to 25°C at the early L3 stage.

Statistical comparisons across multiple groups were determined by one-way ANOVA,

followed by Tukey's correction.

Imaging the oogenesis reporters

Control and mutants carrying *lin-41::GFP* (**Spike et al., 2014**) or *oma-1::GFP* (**Lin, 2003**)

were imaged in parallel at 400X magnification, using a Nikon Eclipse Ti-E microscope and

a Photometrics Coolsnap Myo cooled digital camera or a Nikon Eclipse Ni-U microscope

and a Photometrics Coolsnap ES2 cooled digital camera. The exposure time was set at

500 msec, and the presence or absence of GFP was reported at different stages. The

stages of the animal were determined by observing the vulval morphology under 400x, as

described by (**Mok et al., 2015**), and illustrated in **Figure 1F**. Based on the substages

505 described by Mok et al. (2015), early L4 corresponded to the L4.0 to L4.2 substages; mid

506 L4, to the L4.3 to L4.5 substages; late L4, to the L4.6 to L4.8 substages, when the finger-

507 like structures that formed at the sides of the vulva (red arrowheads in **Figure 1F**) had

508 started to migrate ventrally; and lethargus to the L4.9 substage. To analyze the *daf-2*

509 mutants and their corresponding controls, worms were grown at 20°C and transferred to

510 25°C at the early L3 stage and then imaged at different subsequent stages. Statistical

511 comparisons across multiple groups used the Fisher's exact test.

513 **Imaging the *ins-6p::mCherry* transcriptional reporter**

514 *Generation of the ins-6p::mCherry transcriptional reporter.* The mCherry gene was flanked

515 with 1.64-kb sequences upstream of the *ins-6* start codon and 7.57-kb sequences

516 downstream of the *ins-6* stop codon. This reporter was cloned into a MosSCI vector for

517 integration (pQL147) at the ttTi5605 site of chromosome II (**Frøkjær-Jensen et al., 2008**)

518 to generate the *ins-6p::mCherry drcSi68* worms.

519   *Imaging of drcSi68 worms.* The worms were grown continuously on OP50 or

520 CS180. Worms at the mid-to-late L3 stage were imaged at 1000x magnification, using a

521 Nikon Eclipse Ni-U microscope and a Photometrics Coolsnap ES2 cooled digital camera.

522 The exposure time was set at 50 msec. Fluorescence intensities were quantified using a

523 built-in fluorescence quantification algorithm (NIS-Elements, Nikon Instruments, Inc).

524 Statistical analyses used two-way ANOVA and Tukey's correction.

526 **Measuring the rates of fertilization**

527 For every trial, ten to twelve young adult worms were grown singly for a specified number

528 of hours. At the end of each time point, the mother was bleached in a 5% sodium

529 hypochlorite solution to release and count the fertilized embryos within its uterus. We also

530 counted the number of hatched progeny that were laid on the plates. The total number of

oocytes fertilized at each time point was the sum of the embryos within the uterus and

those laid on the plates. We then divided the total number of fertilized oocytes by the

duration of the collection to calculate the rate of fertilization at that specific time point. To

analyze the *daf-2* mutants and their corresponding controls, worms were first grown at

20°C and transferred to 25°C at the early L4 stage. Statistical comparisons across multiple

groups were performed by two-way ANOVA and Tukey's correction.

To compare the food type-dependent changes in fertilization rates between wild

type and different groups of animals, we normalized the 12- to 24-hour fertilization rates

on CS180 to the 12- to 24-hour fertilization rates on OP50 of a given strain. The resulting

normalized means were then compared to the food type-dependent change in fertilization

rates of wild-type controls. Thus, p values were calculated by obtaining the t-score after

comparing the percent change in wild type on CS180 versus OP50 to the percent change

for the specific mutant on CS180 versus OP50.

Food-switch experiments

C. elegans were grown on each bacteria and then transferred to the second bacteria at

different stages. The early L3, late L3, early L4, and late L4 were determined based on

the developmental rates of the animals on OP50 and CS180. L1 larvae that hatched within

a 1-hr period at 25°C were collected and allowed to develop further at this temperature on

the first bacteria for a certain duration before being shifted to the second bacteria: 20 hrs

for early L3, 24 hrs for late L3, and 26 and 30 hrs, respectively, for early and late L4. The

early and late L4 stages were also confirmed by examining vulval morphology. To

minimize contamination from the earlier bacteria, worms were allowed to roam on the

second bacteria for 45-60 minutes and then transferred to a fresh plate seeded with the

second bacteria. After this transfer, worms were assayed for total number of progeny,

fertilization rate, or the expression of the *lin-41::GFP* oogenesis reporter.

557   To compare the food type-dependent changes in fertilization rates during the food

558 switches, we normalized the 12- to 24-hour fertilization rates of the CS180-to-OP50

559 switched animals to the 12- to 24-hour fertilization rates of the OP50-to-CS180 switched

560 animals. The p values of the subsequent normalized means were calculated by obtaining

561 the t-score after comparing the percent change in food-switched animals to the percent

562 change in non-switched controls on CS180.

564 **Preparation of CS180-conditioned media for supplementation experiments**

565 For each experimental trial, we grew a single colony of *E. coli* CS180 in 10 to 25 ml LB to

566 an optical density of 0.5 to 0.6 at 600 nm (logarithmic growth phase) at 37°C. We then

567 centrifuged 3 to 4 ml of the CS180 culture at 2380 x g at 4°C for 15 min to remove the

568 bacterial pellet and isolate the CS180-conditioned medium. We added 100 μl of the

569 CS180-conditioned medium to each lawn of *E. coli* OP50 on 35-mm NGM agar plates to

570 determine the effects of the medium on oogenesis onset and oocyte fertilization rates.

571   In addition, we passaged the CS180-conditioned medium through a sterile nylon

572 membrane syringe filter with a 0.45 μm-diameter pore size. We added 100 μl of the

573 collected filtrate to a different lawn of OP50 on a 35-mm NGM agar plate to test whether

574 the CS180-derived cue(s) that modulate oocyte physiology are small, free metabolites. To

575 verify that the potential loss of CS180 cue(s) was not due to the cue(s) adsorbing to the

576 membrane, we pre-incubated 3 to 4 ml of the CS180-conditioned medium with a postage

577 stamp-sized 0.45 μm-diameter nylon membrane. The pre-incubation was carried out for

578 10 min at room temperature using a nutator set at low speed. We also added 100 μl of the

579 pre-adsorbed medium to other lawns of OP50 on 35-mm NGM agar plates. Preadsorption

580 of the CS180-conditioned media with a nylon membrane filter still led to faster fertilization,

581 similar to CS180-fed controls (***Figure 2—supplement 1***).

Statistical analysis

584 Statistical analyses were done using GraphPad Prism 8 software. For more details, refer

585 to above and the legends of the figures and their supplements.

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Figure 1. *C. elegans* exhibit early oogenesis and faster fertilization rate in response

to a specific bacterial food source. (A) The *C. elegans* reproductive developmental

program, which depicts the timing of the spermatogenesis-to-oogenesis switch at L4. **(B)**

Somatic development was unchanged between animals fed the two *E. coli* food types (n

= 286 on OP50; n = 265 on CS180; p = 0.72). **(C-E)** Worms fed OP50 had more progeny

(**C**), slower fertilization rates **(D)**, and more sperm **(E)** than worms fed CS180. **(F)**

Simplified illustration of vulval morphology at various sub-stages of L4, where the nuclei

of specific cells are shown [adapted from (***Mok et al., 2015***)]. Red arrowheads indicate

the finger-like structures at the sides of the vulva, which migrate ventrally during late L4.

Lethargus is the molting period from L4 to young adulthood. **(G)** Early onset of oogenesis

was determined by the initial expression of *lin-41::GFP*. Anterior is to the left and dorsal is

to the top of each panel. Scale bar is 10 μm. **(H-I)** Worms on CS180 began oogenesis

earlier at mid L4 than worms on OP50, based on the earliest *lin-41::GFP* **(H)** or

oma-1::GFP **(I)** expression. Early oogenesis onset at mid L4 is highlighted by a dotted box

in these panels and later panels. **(J)** Adults on CS180 had more arrested oocytes than

age-matched adults on OP50. Error bars in **(C-D)** represent standard deviation; **(E, J)**,

SEM. ** indicates $p \leq 0.01$; and ***, $p \leq 0.001$.

Figure 1—supplement 1. Statistical analyses of wild-type progeny,

fertilization rates and oogenesis onset on OP50 versus CS180. Sheet 1 shows the

analyses for total progeny; sheet 2, for fertilization rates; and sheet 3, for onset of

oogenesis. On sheets 1 and 2, N is the total number of animals assayed. Means are from

pooled data from multiple, independent trials. SD is the standard deviation. On sheet 3,

GFP (+) and GFP (-) are animals that expressed or did not express the indicated

oogenesis markers, respectively. On all sheets, significant p values are shown in red and

italicized. The **Figure 1** panels associated with the data are indicated. WT denotes wild

type. * denotes p values between OP50-fed worms versus CS180-fed worms.

Figure 2. The CS180 effects on oogenesis are independent of LPS length and absent

in HT115 and other bacteria. (A) The LPS of *E. coli* B and K-12 strains. CS2429 is

derived from CS180 and has a truncated LPS (***Maier et al., 2010***, and references therein).

The dotted blue line indicates the site of truncation. **(B-D)** The shorter LPS of CS2429

elicited the same total progeny **(B)**, a similar pattern of oogenesis reporter expression **(C)**,

and the same rate of fertilization **(D)**, as the longer LPS of the parent strain CS180. **(E-F)**

C. elegans oogenesis onset **(E)** and fertilization rates **(F)** on the *E. coli* K-12 HT115

bacteria were compared to those of *C. elegans* on OP50 and CS180. **(G-H)** Oogenesis at

mid L4 **(G)** and fertilization rates at 22 hr **(H)** on OP50 and CS180 were compared to

oogenesis onset **(G)** and fertilization rates **(H)** on OP50 that had been supplemented with:

(i) CS180-conditioned LB media (med) or (ii) CS180-conditioned media that was filtered

through a 0.45-μm nylon membrane (filtrate). For comparison, worms on OP50 that had

been supplemented with LB alone or with LB that was filtered through a nylon membrane

are also shown. **(I)** Two strains of the pathogen *Serratia marcescens*, Db1140 and Db11,

did not induce early oogenesis. Error bars represent standard deviations. * indicates $p \leq$

0.05; **, $p \leq 0.01$; ***, $p \leq 0.001$; and suppl, supplementation.

Figure 2—supplement 1. Statistical analyses of wild-type progeny,

oogenesis onset and fertilization rates on OP50, LPS mutant bacteria, HT115,

***Serratia marcescens* and CS180-conditioned media.** Sheet 1 shows the analyses for

total progeny; sheet 2, for onset of oogenesis; and sheet 3, for fertilization rates. On sheets

1 and 3, N is the total number of animals that were assayed. Means are from pooled data

from multiple, independent trials. SD is the standard deviation. On sheet 2, GFP (+) and

GFP (-) are animals that expressed or did not express the *lin-41::GFP* oogenesis marker,

respectively. On all sheets, significant p values are shown in red and italicized. The **Figure**

2 panels associated with the data are indicated. WT denotes wild type. NA means not

applicable.

Figure 3. Food type modulates oogenesis onset during L3 and fertilization rates

after early L4. Wild-type *C. elegans* were shifted between *E. coli* OP50 and CS180 at

different stages of larval development. **(A-B)** The critical period for food-type modulation

of total progeny **(A)** and oogenesis onset **(B)** is around late L3. **(C-F)** The critical period

for modulation of fertilization is after early L4. Error bars represent standard deviations. *

indicates $p \leq 0.05$; **, $p \leq 0.01$; ***, $p \leq 0.001$; ns, not significant; and leth, lethargus.

Figure 3—supplement 1. Statistical analyses of the progeny, oogenesis

onset and fertilization rates in food-switched versus non-switched wild-type

animals. Sheet 1 shows the analyses for total progeny; sheet 2, for onset of oogenesis;

sheet 3, for fertilization rates before normalization; and sheet 4, for normalized fertilization

rates. On sheets 1 and 3, N is the total number of animals that were assayed. Means are

from pooled data from multiple, independent trials. SD is the standard deviation. On sheet

2, GFP (+) and GFP (-) are animals that expressed or did not express the *lin-41::GFP*

oogenesis marker, respectively. On all sheets, significant p values are shown in red and

italicized. The **Figure 3** panels associated with the data are indicated. Symbols,

abbreviations and superscripted letters are described within each sheet.

Figure 4. The ASJ sensory neuron and insulin-like peptide INS-6 alter total progeny

in response to food type. **(A)** Food-type differences in total progeny were lost in sensory

mutants *osm-3* and *odr-1* and in animals lacking the ASJ neurons. **(B)** Total progeny of

the strong reduction-of-function mutant *daf-2(e1370)* and the *daf-16* loss-of-function

mutant on OP50 and CS180. **(C-D)** OP50- and CS180-dependent progeny of ILP deletion

mutants, *daf-28(tm2308)* and *ins-1(nr2091)* **(C)** and *ins-6(tm2416)* **(D)**. **(E)** Epistasis

analysis between the food type-dependent total progeny phenotypes of *daf-16(mu86)* and

ins-6(tm2416). While the animals in **(A)** and **(C-E)** were grown continuously at 25°C, the

animals in **(B)** were shifted from 20°C to 25°C at the early L3 stage, because *daf-2* mutants

arrest developmentally prior to the L3 stage at 25°C but not at 20°C. Error bars represent

standard deviations. ** indicates $p \leq 0.01$; ***, $p \leq 0.001$; and ns, not significant.

Figure 4—supplement 1. Statistical analyses of total progeny of different

groups of animals on OP50 versus CS180. N is the total number of mothers that were

assayed. Means are from pooled data from multiple, independent trials. SD is the standard

deviation. Significant p values are shown in red and italicized. The **Figure 4** panels

associated with the data are indicated. * denotes p values between OP50-fed worms

versus CS180-fed worms. [#] denotes experiments in which animals that carry the

daf-2(e1368), *daf-2(e1370)*, or *daf-16(mu86)* mutation and the corresponding wild-type

controls were grown at 20°C and transferred to 25°C at the early L3 stage. All other

experiments involved animals that were continuously grown at 25°C.

Figure 5. ASJ neurons and *ins-6* promote early oogenesis onset. (A) Food type-

dependent expression of the oogenesis reporter *lin-41::GFP* in control and different

sensory mutants. **(B-D)** *lin-41::GFP* expression in *daf-2* reduction-of-function mutants **(B),**

daf-16(mu86) **(C)** and in ILP deletion (∆) mutants **(D)**. **(E)** Food type-dependent expression

of a second oogenesis reporter, *oma-1::GFP*, in control, ASJ-ablated and *ins-6(tm2416)*

worms. **(F)** Loss of *daf-16* did not rescue the delay in oogenesis onset in *ins-6(tm2416)*

mutants. Controls and *daf-2* mutants in **(B)** were shifted from 20°C to 25°C as early L3s.

In contrast, all other animals were continuously grown at 25°C on OP50 (white bars) or

CS180 (grey bars). * indicates $p \leq 0.05$; **, $p \leq 0.01$; ***, $p \leq 0.001$; and leth, lethargus.

Figure 5—supplement 1. Statistical analyses of oogenesis onset in different

groups of animals on OP50 versus CS180. GFP (+) and GFP (-) are animals that

expressed or did not express the oogenesis markers, *lin-41::GFP* or *oma-1::GFP*,

respectively. The **Figure 5** panels associated with the data are indicated. Significant p

values are shown in red and italicized. * denotes p values between OP50-fed worms

versus CS180-fed worms. # denotes experiments in which animals that carry the

daf-2(e1368) or *daf-2(e1370)* mutation and the corresponding controls were grown at

20°C and transferred to 25°C at the early L3 stage. All other experiments involved animals

that were continuously grown at 25°C.

Figure 6. *ins-6* acts from ASJ neurons to promote early oogenesis. (A)

ins-6p::mCherry transcriptional reporter *drcSi68* expression in ASI (n = 29, OP50; n = 29,

CS180) and ASJ (n = 30, OP50; n = 30, CS180) neurons during mid-to-late L3. **(B)**

lin-41::GFP expression in *ins-6(tm2416)* deletion mutants that were either rescued with:

(i) the wild-type *ins-6* genomic locus in two independent lines, *jxEx27* and *jxEx28*; (ii) ASI

neuron-specific expression of *ins-6*; or (iii) ASJ neuron-specific expression of *ins-6* in two

independent lines, *jxEx58* and *jxEx59*. **(C)** *lin-41::GFP* expression in the (i) *loxP-flanked*

ins-6(syb7547) homozygotes, (ii) *ins-6(tm2416)* homozygotes that carry the CRE

recombinase transgene that is specifically expressed in ASJ (ASJp::*CRE*), (iii)

ins-6(tm2416) heterozygotes that carry the ASJp::*CRE* transgene, (iv)

ins-6(tm2416)/ins-6(syb7547) transheterozygotes, and (v) animals in which *ins-6* was

deleted specifically from ASJ but remains present in ASI. * indicates $p \leq 0.05$; **, $p \leq 0.01$;

***, $p \leq 0.001$; and leth, lethargus.

Figure 6—supplement 1. Statistical analyses of oogenesis onset in different

groups of animals on OP50 versus CS180. GFP (+) and GFP (-) are animals that

expressed or did not express the oogenesis marker *lin-41::GFP*, respectively. The **Figure**

6 panels associated with the data are indicated. Significant p values are shown in red and

italicized. * denotes p values between OP50-fed worms versus CS180-fed worms.

Figure 7. AWA olfactory neurons modulate food type-dependent fertilization rates, but not early oogenesis onset. (A-B) Sensory mutations influenced the food-type effects on fertilization rates. **(C-I)** Animals that lack the sensory neurons ADF **(C)**, ASH **(D)**, ASI **(E)**, ASK **(F)**, ASJ **(G)**, AWB **(H)**, and AWC **(I)**. **(J)** Animals lacking the sensory neuron AWA in *odr-7* mutants. **(K)** Animals that lack both AWA and ASJ. Controls for **G** and **K** carried the *ofm-1p::gfp* marker in the wild-type background. All other controls **(A-F, H-J)** were wild-type worms. **(L)** Food type-dependent expression of the oogenesis reporter *lin-41::GFP* in controls or animals lacking AWA and/or ASJ. ** indicates $p \leq 0.01$; ***, $p \leq 0.001$; and leth, lethargus.

Figure 7—supplement 1. Statistical analyses of fertilization rates and oogenesis onset in different sensory-impaired animals on OP50 versus CS180. Sheet 1 shows the analyses for fertilization rates before normalization; sheet 2, for normalized fertilization rates; and sheet 3, for oogenesis onset in animals lacking AWA and/or ASJ. On sheet 1, N is the total number of animals that were assayed. Means are from pooled data from multiple, independent trials. SD is the standard deviation. On sheet 3, GFP (+) and GFP (-) are animals that expressed or did not express the *lin-41::GFP* oogenesis marker, respectively. On all sheets, the **Figure 7** panels associated with the data are indicated. Significant p values are shown in red and italicized. On sheets 1 and/or 3, the following abbreviation and superscripted letters denote: WT, wild type; NA, not applicable; *A*, p values between a given strain grown on OP50 versus CS180 at each time point; *B*, p values between a given strain grown on OP50 versus wild type on OP50; and *C*, p values between a given strain grown on CS180 versus wild type on CS180.

Figure 8. Insulin receptor signaling alter global fertilization rates independent of

food type. (A) The weak reduction-of-function *daf-2(e1368)* mutant. **(B)** The strong

reduction-of-function *daf-2(e1370)* mutant. **(C-F)** *daf-16* null mutants and the three ILP

mutants, *ins-6*, *daf-28* or *ins-1*. Controls and *daf-2* mutants in **(A-B)** were shifted from 20°C

to 25°C as early L4s, whereas all other animals were continuously grown at 25ºC on OP50

(black closed circles for wild type; black closed triangles for the indicated mutants) or

CS180 (grey open circles for wild type; blue open triangles for the indicated mutants).

Figure 8—supplement 1. Statistical analyses of fertilization rates in insulin

signaling-impaired animals on OP50 versus CS180. Sheet 1 shows the analyses for

fertilization rates before normalization; and sheet 2, for normalized fertilization rates. N is

the total number of animals that were assayed. Means are from pooled data from multiple,

independent trials. SD is the standard deviation. The **Figure 8** panels associated with the

data are indicated. Significant p values are shown in red and italicized. [#] denotes

experiments in which animals that carry the *daf-2(e1368)* or *daf-2(e1370)* mutation and

the corresponding controls were grown at 20°C and transferred to 25°C at the early L4

stage. The following abbreviation and superscripted letters denote: WT, wild type; NA, not

applicable; *A*, p values between a given strain on OP50 versus CS180 at each time point;

B, p values between a given strain grown on OP50 versus wild type on OP50; and *C*, p

values between a given strain grown on CS180 versus wild type on CS180; *D*, p values

between a given strain versus the indicated ILP double or triple mutant on OP50; and *E*,

p values between a given strain versus the indicated ILP double or triple mutant on CS180.

Figure 9. A model for the sensory modulation of food type-dependent oogenesis

onset and fertilization. ILP INS-6 acts from ASJ neurons to promote early onset of

oogenesis. Olfactory neuron AWA promotes oocyte fertilization through mechanism(s)

distinct from DAF-2 insulin receptor signaling, which in turn regulates fertilization

independent of food type through the activities of other insulin-like peptide(s).

Supplementary File 1. List of strains

Strain	Genotype	Reference(s)
Oogenesis marker, *lin-41::GFP*	*lin-41(tn1541[GFP::tev::s::lin-41])*	Spike et al., 2014
Oogenesis marker, *oma-1::GFP*	*unc-119(ed3); teIs1(oma-1::GFP + unc-119[+])*	Lin, 2003
Sensory mutants	*odr-1(n1936)*	L'Etoile and Bargmann, 2000
	odr-3(n1605)	Roayaie et al., 1998
	odr-10(ky225)	Sengupta et al., 1996
	osm-3(p802)	Tabish et al., 1995
	lin-41(tn1541); osm-3(p802)	This work
ADF (-)	*udEx211(srh-142::ced-3(p15); srh-142::ced-3(p17; srh-142::gfp; elt-2::gfp)*	Krzyzanowski et al., 2016
ASH (-)	*peIs1713(sra-6p::mCasp-1 + unc-122p::mCherry)*	Yoshida et al., 2012
ASI (-)	*oyIs84(gpa-4p::TU813 gcy-27p::TU814 gcy-27p::GFP coelp::dsRED)*	Beverly et al., 2011
	lin-41(tn1541); oyIs84	This work
ASJ (-)	*pgIs(trx-1p::ICE)*	Cornils et al., 2011; integrated by M. Goodman (gift)
	lin-41(tn1541); pgIs(trx-1p::ICE)	This work
	teIs1(oma-1::GFP + unc-119[+]); pgIs(trx-1p::ICE)	This work
ASK (-)	*qrIs2(sra-9::mCasp1)*	Srinivasan et al., 2012
AWA (-)	*odr-7(ky4)*	Sengupta et al., 1994
	lin-41(tn1541); odr-7(ky4)	This work
	Ex[odr-10::mCasp1 + myo-3::GFP]	Yoshida et al., 2012; Schiffer et al., 2020
AWB (-)	*peIs1715(str-1p::mCasp-1 + unc-122p::GFP)*	Yoshida et al., 2012
AWC (-)	*oyIs85(ceh-36p::TU#813 + ceh-36p::TU#814 + srtx-1p::GFP + unc-122p::DsRed)*	Beverly et al., 2011
ASJ (-); AWA(-)	*pgIs(trx-1p::ICE); odr-7(ky4)*	This work
	lin-41(tn1541); pgIs(trx-1p::ICE); odr-7(ky4)	This work
Insulin signaling mutants	*daf-2(e1368)*	Gems et al., 1998
	lin-41(tn1541); daf-2(e1368)	This work
	daf-2(e1370)	Gems et al., 1998
	lin-41(tn1541); daf-2(e1370)	This work
	daf-16(mu86)	Lin et al., 1997
	lin-41(tn1541) daf-16(mu86)	This work
	ins-1(nr2091)	Pierce et al., 2001
	lin-41(tn1541); ins-1(nr2091)	This work
	ins-6(tm2416)	Cornils et al., 2011
	lin-41(tn1541); ins-6(tm2416)	This work
	lin-41(tn1541) daf-16(mu86); ins-6(tm2416)	This work
	ins-6(tm2416); teIs1(oma-1::GFP + unc-119[+])	This work
	daf-28(tm2308)	Cornils et al., 2011
	lin-41(tn1541); daf-28(tm2308)	This work
	ins-6(tm2416); daf-28(tm2308)	Cornils et al., 2011
	ins-6(tm2416); ins-1(nr2091)	Cornils et al., 2011
	ins-1(nr2091); daf-28(tm2308)	Cornils et al., 2011
	ins-6(tm2416); ins-1(nr2091); daf-28(tm2308)	Cornils et al., 2011
ins-6 full genomic rescue	*lin-41(tn1541); ins-6(tm2416); jxEx27(ins-6p::ins-6 [2 ng/ul]; ofm-1::GFP [25 ng/ul])*	Cornils et al., 2011; this work
	lin-41(tn1541); ins-6(tm2416); jxEx28(ins-6p::ins-6 [2 ng/ul]; ofm-1::GFP [25 ng/ul])	Cornils et al., 2011; this work

Strain	Genotype	Reference(s)
ins-6 **ASI-specific rescue**	*lin-41(tn1541); ins-6(tm2416); jxEx51(str-3p::ins-6 [25 ng/ul]; ofm-1::GFP [25 ng/ul])*	Cornils et al., 2011; this work
ins-6 **ASJ-specific rescue**	*lin-41(tn1541); ins-6(tm2416); jxEx58(trx-1p::ins-6 [25 ng/ul]; ofm-1::GFP [25 ng/ul])*	Cornils et al., 2011; this work
	lin-41(tn1541); ins-6(tm2416); jxEx59(trx-1p::ins-6 [25 ng/ul]; ofm-1::GFP [25 ng/ul])	Cornils et al., 2011; this work
ins-6p::mCherry drcSi68	*ttTi5605 drcSi68(ins-6p::mCherry; Cb-unc-119[+])II*	This work
floxed *ins-6* locus	*lin-41(tn1541); ins-6(syb7547)*	This work
ASJ-specific *CRE*	*lin-41(tn1541); ins-6(tm2416); jxEx225(trx-1p::nCRE::unc-54 3'UTR [50 ng/ul] + unc-122p::GFP [25 ng/ul])*	This work

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