Intestinal RICT-1/Rictor regulates larval germline progenitors via vitellogenins VIT-1 and

VIT-3 in *C. elegans*

Running title: *rict-1* regulates germline development via vitellogenins

Anke Kloock,

E. Jane Albert Hubbard*

Department of Cell Biology,

NYU Grossman School of Medicine

New York, NY 10016

*Corresponding author

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ABSTRACT

Highly conserved signaling pathways communicate cellular and organismal nutrient conditions to proliferating pools of cells such as stem cells and tumors. One such pathway is the Target of Rapamycin (TOR) pathway. The TOR kinase exists in two complexes, TOR complex 1 (TORC1) and TOR complex 2 (TORC2). In the *Caenorhabditis elegans* hermaphrodite, TORC1 signaling cell-autonomously promotes the establishment of the larval germline Progenitor Zone (PZ). Here, we show that RICT-1, the sole *C. elegans* ortholog of the TORC2-specific component Rictor, also promotes expansion of the larval PZ through canonical TORC2 signaling. Unlike the TORC1 components, intestinal *rict-1* is both necessary and sufficient for full germline PZ pool establishment. Comparative RNA-seq on staged L4 larvae indicates that intestinal RICT-1 likely acts via vitellogenins. These intestinally produced yolk proteins provision oocytes, but they were not previously known to act in larval germ line development. Genetic analysis supports roles for *vit-1* and *vit-3* in a linear pathway with *rict-1*. Our results establish the *C. elegans* germ line as a fruitful model for investigating TORC2 and its connection to stem cells and lipid biology.

Summary Statement

RICT-1/Rictor in *C. elegans* promotes larval germline development via canonical TORC2 signaling, and intestinal RICT-1 acts via vitellogenins VIT-1 and VIT-3 to promote the establishment of the germline progenitor pool.

INTRODUCTION

Highly conserved signaling pathways govern cellular responses to nutrients and metabolites. These responses are required for the proper regulation of pools of proliferating cells such as stem cells and tumor cells (Puca et al., 2022; Tu et al., 2023).

TOR is a highly conserved serine/threonine kinase that is conserved from yeast to mammals and integrates nutritional signals to regulate cellular responses (reviewed in (Liu and Sabatini, 2020)). TOR acts in two complexes bearing key subunits Raptor in TORC1 and Rictor in TORC2. Both complexes respond to nutritional signals and regulate many nutrient-dependent aspects of stem cell biology (reviewed in (Russell et al., 2011; Saba et al., 2021)). Albeit differently, both complexes respond to amino acid availability and impact lipid metabolism (reviewed in (Caron et al., 2015; Szwed et al., 2021; Zoncu et al., 2011)) and homeostasis (Kim and Chen, 2004). TORC2 furthermore promotes *de novo* fatty acid and lipid synthesis in mice (Guri et al., 2017) and worms (Jones et al., 2009; Soukas et al., 2009). In *C. elegans,* our prior work established that TORC1 components and/or downstream effectors affect germline stem cell proliferation and differentiation germ line-autonomously and in response to amino acid provision (Korta et al., 2012; Roy et al., 2018).

Reducing Rictor activity in rodents, worms, or flies results in small animals that develop slower (Guertin et al., 2006; Hietakangas and Cohen, 2007; Jones et al., 2009; Soukas et al., 2009). Rictor mutants in rodents and worms accumulate fat (Frei et al., 2023; Jones et al., 2009; Soukas et al., 2009; Yen et al., 2010), suggesting Rictor may facilitate trafficking of lipids from the intestine to other organs (Jones et al., 2009; Soukas et al., 2009). Adult *C. elegans* hermaphrodites bearing mutations in *rict-1*, the sole Rictor ortholog (Jones et al., 2009), exhibit reduced intestinal expression of the vitellogenin gene *vit-3* (Breen et al., 2024; Dowen et al., 2016) and produce fewer offspring (Jones et al., 2009; Soukas et al., 2009; Webster et al., 2013).

A pool of stem and progenitor cells, known collectively as the progenitor zone (PZ) pool, exists in the distal part of the hermaphrodite gonad (reviewed in (Hubbard and Schedl, 2019)), and the PZ pool is related to offspring production in sperm-replete worms (Agarwal et al., 2018; Kocsisova et al., 2019). The PZ is maintained by Notch pathway signaling via direct activation of downstream targets *sygl-1* and *lst-1* (Chen et al., 2020;

Kershner et al., 2014) that interfere with three partially redundant differentiation pathways
(Mohammad et al., 2018).

Our results show that *rict-1* mutant worms accumulate half the normal number of cells
in the PZ during larval stages and have a reduced number of offspring. As in other
phenotypic contexts, *rict-1* acts via *sinh-1* and *sgk-1*. However, in this role, *rict-1* does not
act via the IIS or TGF-ß pathways which are implicated in larval PZ expansion (Dalfó et
al., 2012; Michaelson et al., 2010; Pekar et al., 2017) and in *rict-1* control of dauer entry
(O'Donnell et al., 2018). Loss of *rict-1* reduces the average mitotic index in larvae and
likely acts in parallel to GLP-1. We show that intestinal RICT-1 is sufficient and necessary
for full establishment of the adult PZ. Our transcriptomics analysis indicates that during
the L4 larval stage, *rict-1* regulates expression of several members of the conserved
ApolipoproteinB-like vitellogenin family (reviewed in (Perez and Lehner, 2019))*,* and that
vit-1 and *vit-3* contribute to expansion of the progenitor pool, likely downstream of *rict-1*.

RESULTS

RICT-1 is required for normal germline development

To explore effects of TORC2 on the germ line, we examined the effects of reduced

rict-1. We first assessed phenotypes in two *rict-1* mutants (*ft7* in the third exon and *mg360*

in the 11th exon (Jones et al., 2009; Soukas et al., 2009)), in 6 additional alleles that we

generated using CRISPR-Cas9 genome editing, and in an additional deletion mutant

(Breen et al., 2024). Among three different isoforms *ft7* only affects isoforms A and B,

while *mg360* affects all three (Fig. 1A). We generated four CRISPR mutants with Stop-In

cassettes (Wang et al., 2018) inserted in the regions of each of the SNPs: *na112* and

na113 in the third exon, and *na114* and *na115* in the 11th exon. We also generated two

additional mutants: one that deletes 241bp of the 5'UTR and 29bp of the first exon

(*na116*), and one that deletes 520bp in total across the first three exons (*na119*). We

used the Stop-In strategy so as not to interfere with the *pqn-32* locus that resides within

the intron between exons 10 and 11. We furthermore assessed a mutant that deletes both

rict-1 and *pqn-32* (Breen et al., 2024).

To gauge the effects of *rict-1* on larval accumulation of the stem/progenitor pool,

we counted the number of nuclei per distal gonad arm in the distal progenitor zone (PZ)

at the L4-to-adult molt. We chose to assess the progenitor pool at the molt because this

represents a developmental timepoint that is independent of growth rate and is at the start

of the early adult steady-state PZ pool (reviewed in (Hubbard and Schedl, 2019)). All nine

rict-1 mutants displayed a similar significant reduction in the number of PZ nuclei,

reaching half of the wild-type level (average 106.2 ± 1.00 across all nine alleles versus

196.6 ± 3.08 in the wild type) (Fig. 1B-D). Given that all *rict-1* mutants behaved similarly,

our subsequent studies used the *na113* allele, indicated as *rict-1(-)* hereafter.

The brood size in mated worms is correlates with the number of PZ nuclei (Agarwal

et al., 2018; Kocsisova et al., 2019). To determine whether the PZ pool reduction we

observed in the *rict-1* mutants is associated with reproductive defects, we assessed live

broods and, consistent with previous results (Jones et al., 2009; Soukas et al., 2009), we

observed a significantly smaller number of hatched offspring for both *rict-1* alleles tested

(199.2 ± 9.21 for *rict-1(ft7)* and 199.8 ± 3.81 for *rict-1(na113)*) compared with the wild type

(312.8 ± 6.77) (Fig. 1E,F). We also observed that *rict-1* mutants display an extended
reproductive span of ~9 days compared with ~6 days in the wild type (9.0 ± 0.41 days for
rict-1(na113), 9.2 ± 0.49 for *rict-1(ft7)*, and 6.4 ± 0.31 for the wild type (Fig. 1F,G)),
consistent with previous results (Webster et al., 2013). Since hermaphrodite brood size
is sperm limited (Hodgkin and Barnes, 1991), and the correlation with the PZ can only be
assessed in the presence of replete sperm, we assessed live broods in mated worms.
We found that, unlike the wild type, where male sperm provision significantly increased
offspring number, the number of hatched offspring is not increased in mated *rict-1*
mutants (Fig. S1). Despite the extended reproductive period, the overall sum of hatched
brood of *rict-1* mutants is still reduced relative to wild type (Fig. 1F). We conclude that
RICT-1 promotes normal germline development, and we focused on the PZ pool
phenotype as this is a primary early aspect of germline development.

RICT-1 acts through canonical TORC2 to establish the early adult PZ pool

We next assessed known pathway components or downstream effectors of the
canonical TORC2 complex. Canonically, Rictor and SINH-1 are in the TORC2 complex,
and TORC2 activates SGK (reviewed in (Blackwell et al., 2019; Jang et al., 2022)).

In *C. elegans*, SINH-1 acts similarly to Rictor in many phenotypic contexts
(Aspernig et al., 2019; Emans et al., 2023; McLachlan et al., 2022). To test if RICT-1 is
acting through canonical TORC2 to establish the larval PZ, we assessed the number of
PZ nuclei in worms bearing mutations in *rict-1(-)* or *sinh-1(-)* or both (Fig. 2A). We found
that the number of PZ nuclei was similarly reduced in each single mutant and in the double
mutant (104.7 ± 3.35, 114.3 ± 3.68, and 107.8 ± 3.25, respectively). These results are
consistent with RICT-1 and SINH-1 acting in the same complex.

In *C. elegans*, SGK-1 acts genetically downstream of Rictor in many phenotypic
contexts (Aspernig et al., 2019; Dowen et al., 2016; Emans et al., 2023; Gatsi et al., 2014;
Jones et al., 2009; Ruf et al., 2013; Soukas et al., 2009; Webster et al., 2013). To
determine whether a similar genetic interaction exists for PZ establishment, we compared
PZ counts in the null single and double mutants. We found that the number of PZ nuclei
is similar in *rict-1* or *sgk-1* single mutants (108.8 ± 3.17 and 104.5 ± 2.15 for *rict-1(-)* and
sgk-1(-), respectively) and in the *rict-1; sgk-1* double mutant (94.7 ± 2.15) (Fig. 2B). While

PZ counts in each single mutant do not differ, the *rict-1*; *sgk-1* double mutant is modestly,

but significantly, lower than in the *rict-1* mutant alone (p=0.024). This result suggests that

while *sgk-1* is likely acting downstream of *rict-1*, it may have additional *rict-1*-independent

minor effects on the PZ phenotype independent of *rict-1* (Fig. 2B).

An *sgk-1* gain-of-function allele (*gf*) (Jones et al., 2009) fully (Jones et al., 2009;

Sakai et al., 2017) or partially (Aspernig et al., 2019; Ruf et al., 2013) suppresses *rict-1*

mutant phenotypes, consistent with a role for SGK-1 downstream of RICT-1 (Jones et al.,

2009; Sakai et al., 2017). To determine whether the *sgk-1(gf)* mutant suppresses the

rict-1 mutant PZ phenotype*,* we examined *sgk-1(gf)* alone and in combination with

rict-1(-). We found that *sgk-1(gf)* alone displays a PZ count similar to the wild type (178.7

$\pm$ 5.10 versus 189.8 $\pm$ 4.06). As expected if SGK-1 were acting downstream of RICT-1*,*

we found significant, though partial, suppression of the *rict-1* PZ phenotype (to 124.1 $\pm$

3.48 PZ nuclei). Taking the loss- and gain-of-function results together, we conclude that

SGK-1 likely acts downstream of RICT-1, even though the two may have other minor

independent outputs that affect the PZ phenotype.

RICT-1 does not act via DAF-2/IIS or DAF-7/TGF-ß pathways to promote

accumulation of the larval progenitor pool

In the phenotypic context of dauer entry, intestinal *rict-1* signals via neuronal

DAF-28 Insulin and DAF-7 TGF-ß from ASI and ASJ (O'Donnell et al., 2018). This finding

was of particular interest to us since we previously characterized roles for both the IIS

and TGF-ß pathways in establishing the PZ pool (Dalfó et al., 2012; Michaelson et al.,

2010; Pekar et al., 2017). In both pathways, these same neurons are implicated: *ins-3* is

implicated upstream of DAF-2 for PZ phenotypes and is expressed in ASI and ASJ

(Ghaddar et al., 2023; Michaelson et al., 2010), while ASI is implicated by cell ablation for

the DAF-7 pathway regulation of the germ line stem cell niche (Dalfó et al., 2012).

Importantly, the PZ accumulation defect upon reduced *daf-2* or *daf-7* is fully suppressible

by loss of *daf-16* or *daf-3*, respectively.

If the relevant IIS and/or TGF-ß pathways mediate the effects of *rict-1* on the PZ,

we would expect loss of *daf-16* and/or *daf-3* to suppress the *rict-1* mutant PZ defect. To

test this hypothesis, we constructed strains bearing double or triple mutants of *rict-1(-)*

with *daf-16(-)* and/or *daf-3(-)* and counted the number of nuclei in the PZ pool. We found

that neither *daf-16(-)* nor *daf-3(-)* alone strongly suppressed the PZ defect in the *rict-1*

mutant (Fig. 3A). The PZ of the *daf-16(-); rict-1(-)* averaged 119.1 ± 2.91 (compared with

97.6 ± 2.73 for *rict-1(-)* alone). While this small difference is statistically significant, we

note that *daf-16(-)* has a greater (though not statistically significant) average number of

PZ nuclei than the wild type (Fig. 3A). For the DAF-7/TGFß pathway, we found that the

PZ pool of *daf-3(-); rict-1(-)* was not significantly different from the *rict-1* mutant alone.

Most important, the triple mutant *daf-16(-); rict-1(-); daf-3(-)* averages the same number

of PZ nuclei (109.0 ± 2.54) as either double mutant or the *rict-1(-)* mutant alone (Fig. 3A).

We conclude from these results that neither DAF-2/IIS (via DAF-16) nor DAF-7/TGFß

pathways mediate the effects of RICT-1 on PZ accumulation.

RICT-1 promotes larval cell cycle progression, but does not enhance the Glp-1-like

"loss of progenitor pool" phenotype

Our prior work established that *rsks-1/*S6K affects both the cell cycle and cell fate

in the PZ (Korta et al., 2012; Roy et al., 2016). Loss of *rsks-1* reduces both larval mitotic

index and S phase index, as well as on the proportion of cells in G1 or G2, suggesting a

generally slower cell cycle in the mutant. These reductions were observed in the mid-L4

stage larvae when the PZ is still expanding, however no differences were observed in the

adult homeostatic stage when the cell cycle is already slowed relative to larval stages.

Moreover, in combination with a reduction of *glp-1* (using a temperature-sensitive allele

at a semi-permissive temperature), loss of *rsks-1* had a dramatic effect on the PZ such

that in over 50% of *glp-1(ts) rsks-1(sv31)* double mutants at 20ºC, all germ cells had

differentiated, mimicking a complete loss of *glp-1* and demonstrating a parallel role for

rsks-1 in cell fate (Korta et al., 2012; Roy et al., 2016).

To determine how *rict-1* affects cell cycle and cell fate, we assessed the mitotic

index in the *rict-1(-)* mutant in mid-L4 stage larvae and found that, similar to *rsks-1,* the

larval mitotic index was reduced in *rict-1(-)* mutants (2.23 ± 0.16 for *rict-1(-)* mutants

versus 2.85 ± 0.23 for wild-type (Fig. 3B)). Similar to prior results with *rsks-1, rict-1* does

not affect the mitotic index in adults (Fig. S2A).

Furthermore, we assessed the genetic interaction with *glp-1*. Unlike what was
observed with *rsks-1*, the double *glp-1(ts); rict-1(-)* mutant did not cause differentiation of
the entire PZ (Fig. 3C). However, the double mutant (*rict-1(-); glp-1(ts)*) showed a minor
increase in the percentage of gonad arms with fewer than 50 PZ nuclei (39% of gonad
arms for the *rict-1(-); glp-1(ts)* mutant with <50 PZ nuclei, versus 0% for each single
mutant) (Fig. 3B). This suggests that RICT-1 acts in parallel to *glp-1* (Fig. 3B).
Furthermore, the number of PZ nuclei for the double mutant of *rict-1(-)* and *glp-1(ts)* is
additive (Fig. S2B). Together, these results support the conclusion that RICT-1 is acting
to promote robust larval cell cycle progression but does not affect the stem cell fate
decision.

Within the PZ pool there are distal SYGL-1(+) stem cells (Shin et al., 2017) and
more proximal SYGL-1(-) progenitors that are completing a final round of mitosis (Fox
and Schedl, 2015). We asked whether loss of *rict-1* affects these early adult pools
independently. Using as a readout the distance from the distal end of the gonad to the
proximal border of each pool, we found that *rict-1(-)* mutants had a significantly shorter
SYGL-1(+) zone than wild-type worms (p<0.001, 48.3 ± 0.96 µm versus 56.0 ± 0.96 µm,
respectively) (Fig. 3C). The length of the PZ was also reduced in *rict-1(-)* mutants in
comparison to wild-type worms (p<0.001, 87.0 ± 1.24 versus 105.2 ± 1.44, respectively)
(Fig. 3D). When we assessed the relative length of the SYGL-1(+) zone to the PZ, we
observed that in both strains the SYGL-1(+) zone is about half the length of the PZ (0.55
± 0.013 for *rict-1(-)* mutants and 0.53 ± 0.009 for the wild type) (Fig. 3E). These results
suggest that the loss of robust cell cycle progression in larval stages affects both the stem
and non-stem-progenitor portions of the adult PZ pool.

236   Intestinal RICT-1 contributes to PZ pool establishment

In several different phenotypic contexts, *rict-1* acts from the intestine. These
contexts include dauer entry and foraging behavior (O'Donnell et al., 2018), associative
learning (Sakai et al., 2017), fat accumulation (Jones et al., 2009; Soukas et al., 2009),
and food seeking (McLachlan et al., 2022). Single cell RNA-seq analyses show that *rict-*
1 mRNA is widely expressed but is most highly abundant in the intestine (Fig. S3A from
(Cao et al., 2017; Hutter and Suh, 2016)).

We therefore asked whether intestinal RICT-1 might influence PZ pool
establishment. To test this, we depleted RICT-1 in the intestine using tissue-specific
auxin-mediated protein degradation(Zhang et al., 2015). We generated a sAID::RICT-1
fusion (*rict-1(na117)*) by CRISPR-Cas9 genome editing, and determined that it does not
impact protein function, as the number of PZ nuclei is not significantly different from that
of wild-type worms (Fig. S3B). We then crossed this allele into a strain in which TIR1 is
driven by the intestine-specific promoter *ges-1p.* We observed that in the presence of
auxin, the number of PZ nuclei is significantly reduced (153.3 ± 3.23 with auxin vs. 189.7
± 3.21 without auxin). Neither the vehicle (EtOH) nor auxin alone affected the PZ counts
of the other strains tested (wild type, *rict-1(-)*, *rict-1(na117*[sAID::RICT-1]) or *ieSi61*[*ges-*
1p::TIR1] alone), indicating that the lower PZ count we observed in the presence of the
TIR1 and auxin is due to auxin-induced protein degradation and not to auxin-induced
stress (Fig. 4A).

To determine whether intestinal *rict-1(+)* is sufficient to promote accumulation of
the larval PZ pool, we expressed *rict-1(+)* from an intestinal promoter, *ges-1p,* on an
extrachromosomal array in the *rict-1(-)* background. We found that the array-bearing
siblings contain a significantly greater number of PZ nuclei (145.2 ± 3.73) than their non-
array-bearing siblings (100.6 ± 3.48). In addition, there is no difference between the PZ
counts of non-array bearing progeny of array-bearing mothers and homozygous
rict-1(-) mutants (Tukey comparison p=0.533). This result supports the conclusion that
maternal effects do not contribute to *rict-1* regulation of the PZ (Fig. 4B).

Taken together, our necessity and sufficiency tests demonstrate that intestinal
RICT-1 is a major contributor to the accumulation of the larval PZ pool. Interestingly,
intestinal degradation of RICT-1 does not lower the number of PZ nuclei to the level of
the *rict-1(-)* (Fig. 4A), nor does intestinally-expressed *rict-1* entirely rescue to wild-type
levels (Fig. 4B). These results indicate that either degradation and heterologous rescue
do not reach null or wild-type levels, respectively, or that RICT-1 acts in additional tissues.

Single cell RNA-seq analysis (Fig. S3A, data from (Cao et al., 2017; Hutter and
Suh, 2016)) indicates that in addition to the intestine, larval *rict-1* is expressed in other
tissues, including the germ line. Given our prior results indicating a role for TOR in the
germ line (Korta et al., 2012) we tested RICT-1 germline degradation using *ieSi38*[*sun-*

1p::TIR1] and found that it also contributes, though less than the intestine (Fig. S3C). We

conclude that although other tissues contribute, the intestine is the primary source of

RICT-1 that is important for establishment of the early adult germline PZ, with additional

contribution from the germ line.

279   Transcripts of four vitellogenin-encoding genes are depleted in the *rict-1(-)* mutant

280   relative to wild type at the mid-L4

To determine how *rict-1* influences the larval germ line, we performed comparative

bulk RNA-sequencing in biological triplicate of three strains of tightly synchronized mid-

L4 stage worms: wild type, the *rict-1(-)* mutant, and the *rict-1(-)* mutant in which *rict-1(+)*

is expressed solely in the intestine. We integrated the extrachromosomal array and

determined that the resulting strain was functional and displayed a similar PZ phenotype

to worms with *Ex[intestinal rict-1(+)]* (Fig.S3C). This combination of strains allowed us to

explore the impact of both global and intestine-specific activity of *rict-1* on the

transcriptome. The PCA analysis for all three strains indicates that all three strains are

distinctly different from each other (Fig. 5A).

Comparing the *rict-1* mutant and the wild type, we found that among 16,034 protein

coding transcripts detected (see Methods), 151 transcripts were differentially abundant

(adjusted $p < 0.05$ and log2 fold change >2), with 44 less abundant and 107 more

abundant in the *rict-1(-)* mutant than in the wild type (Fig. 5B). Among the genes with

lower transcript abundance in the mutant, the vitellogenin genes caught our attention for

several reasons. The *C. elegans* genome encodes six vitellogenins, members of a family

of conserved yolk proteins (reviewed in (Perez and Lehner, 2019)) that are best described

for their adult function provisioning oocytes (Grant and Hirsh, 1999; Kimble and Sharrock,

1983). However, no function in larval stages or the larval germ line is yet described. We

found that the steady-state mRNA levels of four of the six vitellogenins (*vit-1, -3, -4,* and

-5) are significantly lower in the mid-L4 *rict-1* mutant relative to wild type (adjusted

$p<0.001$, log2 fold change < -2) (Fig. 5B, orange circles).

To assess the contribution of intestinal *rict-1(+)*, we then analyzed the 151

transcripts to determine which of these were significantly different between the mutant

alone and the strain expressing *rict-1(+)* solely in the intestine (Fig. 5C). We found that a

third of these 151 transcripts were significantly different between the global *rict-1* mutant

versus *rict-1* mutants expressing *rict-1(+)* only in the intestine: 18 were higher and 35

were lower for *rict-1(-)* versus *rict-1(-); Is[intestinal rict-1(+)]* (Fig. 5D, upper left and lower

right, respectively). Interestingly, transcripts of two of the *vit* genes (*vit-1* and *vit-3)* are

significantly higher in the *rict-1(-)* mutant expressing intestinal *rict-1(+)* relative to the

rict-1(-) mutant alone (Fig. 5D), suggesting that their expression may be regulated by

intestinal *rict-1*.

VIT-1 and VIT-3 promote germline progenitor pool establishment

We wished to determine the functional relevance of VIT-1 and VIT-3 to progenitor

zone establishment in larvae. Among the vitellogenin genes we detected in our

comparative RNA-seq analysis, *rict-1* was previously found to indirectly regulate *vit-3*

transcription in the adult intestine (Breen et al., 2024; Dowen et al., 2016). However, no

previous function has been described in larvae for any of the vitellogenins, and no

previous connection has been made between *vit-1* and *rict-1*.

We therefore tested whether VIT-1 and VIT-3 could, like RICT-1*,* contribute to PZ

pool establishment, by counting the number of PZ nuclei in worms bearing loss-of-

function alleles of *vit-1* or *vit-3*. We observed that *vit-1(-)* and *vit-3(-)* null mutants each

contain significantly fewer PZ nuclei (138.1 ± 4.84 and 130.45 ± 2.30, respectively) than

the wild type (179.6 ± 5.62 and 202.9 ± 5.35) (Fig. 6A,B).

If *rict-1* and either *vit* gene were acting in a linear genetic pathway, we would expect

that loss of both *rict-1* and either *vit* gene would not further deplete the PZ pool beyond

either the *rict-1* or *vit* single mutant alone. We found that the double mutant *rict-1(-); vit-*

1(-) and the double mutant *rict-1(-); vit-3(-)* each display the same number of PZ nuclei

as the *rict-1(-)* mutant alone (96.0 ± 2.38 for *rict-1(-); vit-1(-) versus* 102.3 ± 2.96 for *rict-*

1(-) alone, and 108.7 ± 3.40 for *rict-1(-); vit-3(-)* versus 99.5 ± 3.10 for *rict-1(-)*). Together,

these results are consistent with a linear genetic pathway and reveal an unexpected role

for *vit-1* and vit-*3* in the larval accumulation of germline progenitors, likely downstream of

rict-1.

DISCUSSION

This work establishes a developmental context for a novel non-autonomous activity of intestinal RICT1/Rictor on a stem cell system. In addition, it indicates a role for vitellogenins downstream of intestinal RICT-1 in establishment of the germline progenitor pool. In the course of this work, we generated seven new alleles of *rict-1*, including six similarly-behaving alleles encoding small deletions or early stop codons, and one encoding a functional AID-tagged RICT-1 protein. Using these and prior existing alleles, we show that RICT-1 is required for several aspects of germline development and reproduction.

Using multiple mutant alleles of *rict-1*, we confirmed low broods reported by others (Jones et al., 2009; Soukas et al., 2009), and we also confirmed an extended period of progeny production (Webster et al., 2013). Interestingly, we observed no increase of progeny production upon replete sperm provision, suggesting that sperm is not the limiting factor for offspring production in the *rict-1* mutant. In mated worms, brood size correlates with an increased number of cells in the PZ pool, suggesting that the number of PZ cells destined to become oocytes is limiting (Agarwal et al., 2018; Kocsisova et al., 2019). We speculate that a similar limitation could account for our observation.

We focused on a larval requirement for RICT-1 in the accumulation of germline progenitors and determined that the *rict-1* mutant PZ pool reaches half the normal number of cells at the adult molt. Multiple *rict-1* mutants affecting different areas of the protein displayed similarly reduced PZ numbers (~half of the wild-type). The N-terminus and third exon mutants disrupt only isoform A and B but nevertheless display the same PZ phenotype as those mutants that affect all three isoforms. This suggests that the C isoform is unlikely to play a specific role in the establishment of the PZ.

We observed a similarly-reduced PZ phenotype upon loss of SINH-1, a part of the canonical TORC2 complex, and SGK-1, a canonical TORC2 effector, and found evidence for genetically linear relationships with *rict-1.* By contrast, we find no obvious genetic interaction with the DAF-2/IIS or DAF-7/TGF-ß pathways. We find that RICT-1 promotes robust larval, but not adult, germline cell cycle progression but does not affect the stem cell fate decision.

While both TORC1 and TORC2 are implicated in progenitor pool establishment,
our work reveals interesting differences. We previously found that loss of RSKS-1/S6K,
a presumed downstream effector of TORC1, has a similarly reduced PZ as RICT-1, and
that the requirement for *rsks-1(+)* is germline-autonomous (Korta et al., 2012). By
contrast, although we observed a minor germline-autonomous effect, *rict-1* has a strong
non-autonomous (intestine-specific) effect on the germ line. In addition, loss of either *rict-*
1 or *rsks-1* results in reduced larval, but not adult, mitotic index. The reduced larval mitotic
index was observed at a time when the cell cycle is relatively short and the mitotic index
higher, while the unchanged adult mitotic index was observed at a time when the cell
cycle is longer and the mitotic index lower (Roy et al., 2016). However, in contrast with
rsks-1, loss of *rict-1* does not affect the stem cell fate decision. That is, while loss of *rict-*
1 additively reduces the number of PZ nuclei in combination with *glp-1(ts)* at a semi
permissive temperature, unlike *rsks-1,* it does not enhance the "Glp-1-like" phenotype
such that the entire PZ is lost to differentiation. We conclude that RICT-1 promotes robust
larval cell cycle progression but not the stem cell fate decision. We nevertheless found
that this larval cell cycle role impacts the borders of the early adult stem and non-stem
progenitor pools.
We discovered a prominent non-autonomous role for intestinal *rict-1* in larval
establishment of the germline PZ that is both necessary and sufficient for establishment
of the full wild-type PZ pool. The necessity experiments were conducted using an auxin-
mediated protein degradation system. Because auxin exposure prolongs lifespan (Loose
and Ghazi, 2021) and promotes resistance to endoplasmic reticulum stress (Bhoi et al.,
2021), we used a minimal concentration of auxin (1mM) that did not enhance the PZ
defect in the *rict-1* mutant nor in other control strains. RICT-1 intestinal sufficiency has
been demonstrated for other phenotypes including entry to the dauer stage, foraging
behavior (O'Donnell et al., 2018), associative learning (Sakai et al., 2017), fat
accumulation (Jones et al., 2009; Soukas et al., 2009), and food seeking (McLachlan et
al., 2022). Our results indicate that the intestinal rescue of *rict-1(+)* in the *rict-1(-)*
background does not rescue the number of PZ nuclei to the full wild-type level, and that
the intestinal degradation does also not reduce the number PZ nuclei from the wild-type
level to the *rict-1(-)* level, a difference that is likely attributable to the additional germline-

autonomous role for *rict-1* (Fig. S2C). Whether the intestine and germ line are the only
required tissues and how the germline-autonomous role interacts with TORC1 function
are areas for further investigation.

Our comparative RNA-sequencing analysis of L4 larvae identified four vitellogenin
genes among transcripts that are less abundant in *rict-1* relative to wild type, among which
vit-1 and *vit-3* are partially restored by expression of intestinal *rict-1(+)* in the *rict-1(-)*
mutant background. Published RNA-seq analyses of *rict-1* day 1 adults (Breen et al.,
2024; VanDerMolen et al., 2025) found significant differential expression of *vit-1*, *vit-2*,
vit-3, and *vit-4*. RICT-1 indirectly promotes high levels of *vit-3* transcription in the adult
intestine (Breen et al., 2024; Dowen et al., 2016).

Although no function has been previously ascribed to vitellogenins in larval stages
nor in the germ line prior to adult oocyte provisioning, many studies have examined *vit*
regulation, including extensive promoter dissection of *vit-2* (reviewed in (Perez and
Lehner, 2019)). In addition, in the L4, *vit-3* expression is regulated by *ins-37*, while *wrt-6*
modestly regulates both *vit-1* and *vit-3* (Abete-Luzi et al., 2020). In general, expression of
all vitellogenins is low to negligible during early larval stages and increases rapidly during
the fourth larval stage and into adulthood, but individual *vit* gene expression dynamics
varies somewhat between each gene and across life stages (Boeck et al., 2016; Cao et
al., 2017; Heine and Blumenthal, 1986; Hillier et al., 2009; Hutter and Suh, 2016). Taken
together, these studies suggest the possibility that despite high sequence similarity
between the six vitellogenin-encoding genes (Fig. S4), the *vit* genes may have additional
and differential functional roles during larval development.

We demonstrate a functional role for *vit-1* and *vit-3* in promoting progenitor pool
establishment, likely downstream of *rict-1.* The *vit-1* and *vit-3* mutant PZ defects are
similar to, though not as severe as, loss of *rict-1,* and loss of either *vit* mutant does not
further enhance loss of *rict-1*. Although loss of either *vit-1* or *vit-3* causes a mutant
phenotype somewhat less severe than *rict-1*, other *vits* identified in our RNA-seq analysis,
or other *rict-1*-regulated gene products may contribute to PZ expansion. In support of the
former hypothesis, we note that the rapid increase in all *vit* gene expression during the
L4 stage correlates with the time of rapid expansion of the PZ pool (Killian and Hubbard,
2004).

We speculate that RICT-1 regulates the establishment of the PZ via intestine-
germline transport of lipids or other molecules associated with vitellogenin-containing lipid
particles in larval stages. While molecules associated with oocyte-bound vitellogenins
likely act as a nutrient source for post-embryonic survival (reviewed in (Perez and Lehner,
2019)), our results suggest that vitellogenins may promote germ cell cycle in earlier
stages. One possibility is that vitellogenins facilitate transport of critical nutrient lipids,
such as cholesterol. Another possibility is that they provide limiting membrane lipids
required for the demands of germ cell division. Yet another possibility is that they
associate with as-yet unknown moieties such as hormones or with microRNAs which are
part of yolk (Aupérin et al., 2025) to direct germline development. The oocyte receptor for
vitellogenins, RME-2, is not detectable by immunohistochemistry in the distal gonad
during larval stages (Grant and Hirsh, 1999; Salinas et al., 2007), though it is detected in
larval stages by both bulk (Boeck et al., 2016; Hillier et al., 2009; Hutter and Suh, 2016)
and single-cell RNA-seq (Cao et al., 2017; Hutter and Suh, 2016) studies. However, a
function for RME-2 prior to oogenesis has not been tested. Alternatively, a different
receptor may fulfill this role in larvae. Additional studies are required to determine how
larval vitellogenins participate in the establishment of the PZ pool.

In conclusion, we present the first evidence that TORC2 contributes to
establishment of the full germline stem/progenitor pool. Our results suggest a model
whereby intestinal RICT-1 promotes the expression of vitellogenins that support germline
progenitor pool expansion during larval stages. Due to the high conservation of TORC2
components, vitellogenins, and their receptors, our results may have general implications
for how Rictor and TORC2 regulate germline development in other organisms and, more
generally, how they may support pools of proliferating stem or progenitor cells in other
organisms and organ contexts. Moreover, since vitellogenin-like molecules, such as
ApoB, are implicated in heart disease and other aspects of lipid metabolism (reviewed in
(Sniderman et al., 2019)), the *C. elegans* larval germ line may provide inroads to the
identification of additional associated moieties and receptors.

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

Worm maintenance and husbandry

C. elegans nematodes were grown on NGM solid media at 20°C and fed *Escherichia coli* strain OP50 (Stiernagle, 2006). All strains generated and used in this study are listed with full genotypes in Table S1, including the oligonucleotides used for strain validation. The sequences of these oligonucleotides are listed in Table S2. Some strains were provided by the CGC. All strains were based on Bristol N2 (RRID:WBSTRAIN: WBStrain00000001). Many experiments required access to information on WormBase (Sternberg et al., 2024). The following strains were generated in this study: GC1745, GC1746, GC1747, GC1755, GC1756, GC1759, GC1762, GC1764, GC1779, GC1779,

485   GC1780, GC1793, GC1801, GC1802, GC1815, GC1816, GC1829, GC1832, GC1842,

486   GC1886, GC1893, GC1905.

Determination of progenitor zone nuclei counts and mitotic index

Mid-L4 worms (L4.5; (Mok et al., 2015)) were picked from mixed stage plates and

transferred to new plates. 6h later all early adult worms bearing a vulval slit were picked

into 1ml of M9+Tween within a 1.5ml of low-retention microfuge tube (02-681-320,

Fisherbrand). Worms were spun down on a table-top centrifuge for 10 seconds, before

the supernatant was carefully removed with a pipette under the dissecting scope, to avoid

loss of worms. Another 500µl of M9+Tween was added, followed by a centrifugation and

supernatant removal. 50µl of 100%EtOH were added to each sample, and worms were

allowed to settle at the bottom for ~10min. After 10min as much EtOH was removed as

possible without disturbing the worms, and ~5µl of Vectashield+DAPI (H-1000, Vector

Laboratories) was added. Worms were gently pipetted onto a 4% agar pad on a glass

slide. Slides were kept in the cold and dark and were imaged within 2 weeks after staining.

Imaging was performed on Nikon W1 spinning disk confocal microscope with 60x oil

immersion magnification with z-stacks of 0.5µm step size. Only one gonad arm was

counted per individual worm. PZ nuclei were manually counted using the point tool in

ImageJ (Arganda-Carreras et al., 2024). The PZ border was determined as the distal-

most row with 2 or more crescent-shaped nuclei typical of the transition zone (Crittenden

et al., 2006). Mitotic index is presented as a percentage of the number of mitotic figures

(characteristic metaphase and anaphase figures) divided by the total number of PZ nuclei.

Brood Size Determination

L4 worms were picked from mixed stage plates. Single hermaphrodites were added to

plates and, for the mated treatment, were joined by 3 wild-type males, which were

replaced every two days. In mating experiments (Fig. S1), mating was confirmed by

abundant male offspring (N2 males) and/or mating plug (CB4855 males). Mated

rict-1(-) hermaphrodites exhibited poorer survival than self-fertile hermaphrodites;

however, offspring counts are included only from worms that lived several days after the

last progeny were produced (see Fig. S1). All worms were transferred every day to new

plates, and hatched offspring were counted 2 days later.

CRISPR-Cas9 genome editing

CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing was performed using pre-incubated Cas9

(Berkeley)::(crRNA +tracrRNA) (IDT) ribonucleoprotein, and screening was facilitated by

co-CRISPR detection using the *dpy-10(cn64)* mutation as described (Paix et al., 2017).

DNA repair templates contained ~25–35 bps of homology on each arm as ssDNA oligos

(<150 bps) (IDT). The guide RNAs and oligos are listed in Table S3. For Stop-In mutants

(*na112, na113, na114*, and *na115*) the inserted stop cassette led to an early stop in all

frames (Wang et al., 2018), while the sAID tag did not interfere with the function of RICT-

1 (Fig. S3B).

Integration of extrachromosomal array

The extrachromosomal array *oyEx713* in GC1756 was integrated using x-rays, as

previously described (Evans, 2006).

RNA extraction for bulk RNA-seq

Worms were bleached and synchronized as previously described (Stiernagle, 2006). Due

to differences in growth rate (as previously empirically determined), synchronized L1

larvae were added to 15 10cm NGM plates (each inoculated with 1ml of OP50) at different

times so that all strains would reach the mid-L4 stage at the same time. Worms were

washed off the plates with RNAse-free water (10977015, Invitrogen) and collected atop

pluristrainers with 40µl mesh size (#43-10040-40 from Pluristrainer.com) and washed

three times with 5ml of RNAse free H_2O. Pluristrainers were turned over, and 1ml of

RNAse-free water was used to wash the worms off the mesh and collect them in RNAse-

free 2ml Eppendorf microfuge tubes (E0030123620, Eppendorf). Each 1ml of packed

worms was resuspended in 4ml of Trizol. The worm+Trizol mix was vortexed and flash-

frozen by carefully dropping into liquid nitrogen and then thawed at 37ºC. After three

freeze-thaw cycles, samples were thawed at 37ºC, and 2ml of Trizol+2ml of chloroform

per packed ml of worms was added and vigorously shaken by hand. Samples were
aliquoted into 2ml RNAse-free tubes and incubated at room temperature for three
minutes. Samples were then spun at 12,000g at 4ºC for 15 min. The aqueous layer was
removed into new RNAse-free tubes, and an equal volume of 70% ethanol was added
and inverted to mix. This solution was transferred to a spin column (RNeasy Qiagen kit #
74104) and was spun down at 21k rcf for 30sec. The column was washed once with buffer
RW1 and centrifuged for 15 seconds at 21k rcf DNase I was added directly to each
RNeasy column membrane and was left to incubate at room temperature for 15 minutes.
Each column was washed with Qiagen RW1 and RPE buffers, before the sample was
eluted from the spin column in RNase-free water to be collected in a fresh 2ml RNase-
free tube. RNA quality was initially assessed with a nanodrop (NanoDrop 8000 UV-Vis
Spectrophotometer). Samples were submitted to the NYU genome technology core
where RNA extractions were quantified using RNA Nano Chips (Cat. #5067-1511) on an
Agilent 2100 BioAnalyzer. RNA-Seq library preps were constructed with the Illumina
TruSeq Stranded mRNA Library Prep kit (Cat #20020595) according to manufacturer's
recommendations. The input amount of total RNA was 450ng with 12 cycles of
amplification. Final libraries were visualized using High Sensitivity DNA ScreenTape
(Agilent, Cat. #5067-5584) on the Agilent TapeStation 2200 instrument. Quant-It
(Invitrogen, Cat. P11495) was used for concentration determination and libraries were
pooled equimolar. The pool was sequenced paired-end 50 cycles on an Illumina NovaSeq
X+ 10B 100 cycle flowcell with 2% PhiX spike-in.
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RNA-seq analysis
Version WBCel235 of the *C. elegans* genome was used to map sequencing reads (Table
S4). Seq-N-Slide (Dolgalev, 2024) was used to align the sequencing results and
determine those gene transcripts that are differentially expressed between the mutant
and wild-type strains. Transcript counts were restricted to protein coding genes (19,983
genes). Mapping Efficiency is provided in Table S5. Prior to further analysis this count
data was further restricted to include only genes represented in at least 2/3 libraries per
strain with non-zero counts (16,034 genes). Principal component analysis (PCA) was
performed on log2 normalized CPM values on all genes included in the differential gene

expression analysis (16,034 genes), using the stats package in R (version
2024.04.2+764) (RStudio Team, 2020). Lists of genes with differentially abundant
transcripts between WT versus *rict-1* and *rict-1* versus *rict-1; Is[intestinal rict-1(+)]* can be
found in Table S4. The entire dataset will be publicly available at NCBI Gene Expression
Omnibus.

Statistical analyses

Plots in Figures 1-6 and Figures S1-S3 were generated using R with minor modifications
using Adobe Illustrator or Inkscape. Statistical analysis was conducted in R (version
2024.04.2+764) (RStudio Team, 2020). All PZ counts and the offspring data were
analyzed with a Generalized Mixed Effect Model (Nelder and Wedderburn, 1972), taking
the replicate as a random factor into account. The Mitotic Index data was analyzed using
a Linear Model (Nelder and Wedderburn, 1972), and the Reproductive Period data was
analyzed with a Linear Mixed Effects Model (Nelder and Wedderburn, 1972). All results
from the statistical tests can be found in Table S6 and all detailed p-values can be found
in Table S7. Summaries of all data are in Table S8.
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Formal analysis: A.K.
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Investigation: A.K.
Methodology: A.K., E.J.A.H.;
Project administration: E.J.A.H.;
Supervision: E.J.A.H.;
Visualization: A.K.
Writing original draft: A.K.
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FIGURES + FIGURE LEGENDS

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792 Figure 1: *rict-1* regulates reproduction and the germline progenitor zone. (A) Overview of
793 the nine different *rict-1* mutants used in this study (two SNP mutations in magenta, four
794 Stop-in mutants in black, and three knock-out mutants in blue). Scale bar indicates 1kb.

Alleles *mg360*, *na114*, *na115,* and *rhd314* affect all isoforms. (B) Number of PZ nuclei for wild type and nine tested *rict-1* mutants. (C, D) Micrographs of representative wild type (C) and *rict-1(na113)* mutant (D) progenitor zones. (E) Average of hatched offspring per adult over a lifetime. (F) Hatched offspring per adult over time; the thick lines indicate the average per strain, while the thinner lines indicate single worms. Error bars indicate standard error of the mean. (G) Reproductive period in days. (B, E, G) Black circles indicate the means across independent replicate experiments (these replicate experiments are shown in different colors), while the smallest circles indicate gonad arms (n = number of gonad arms scored), also summarized below each violin. The violin displays the overall distribution of data points. Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean. Statistical results and p-values are summarized in Tables S6 and S7, respectively. The asterisks indicate *** $p<0.001$, ** $p<0.01$, * $p<0.05$. Panel B, E, and G were analyzed with a Linear Mixed Effects Model, Panel F was analyzed with a Generalized Linear Model, followed up with a Tukey Post Hoc test where appropriate.

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Figure 2: RICT-1 likely acts via canonical TORC2 signaling pathway. (A, B) Number of
PZ nuclei in the wild type (WT) and indicated mutant genotypes. Black circles indicate the
means across independent replicate experiments (these replicate experiments are shown
in different colors), while the smallest circles indicate gonad arms (n = number of gonad
arms scored), also summarized below each violin. The violin displays the overall
distribution of data points. Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean. Statistical
results and p-values are summarized in Tables S6 and S7, respectively. The asterisks
indicate *** p<0.001, ** p<0.01, * p<0.05. The asterisks indicate *** p<0.001, ** p<0.01, *
p<0.05 of a Linear Mixed Effects Model with a Tukey Post Hoc Test.
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823 Figure 3: RICT-1 does not act via the IIS or the DAF-7/TGF-ß pathway but regulates larval
824 cell cycle and not stem cell fate. (A) Number of PZ nuclei in the wild type (WT) and

indicated mutants. (B) Mitotic index at the mid-L4 in the WT and *rict-1(-)* mutant. (C) The percentage of gonad arms displaying the indicated range in numbers of PZ nuclei. (D, E, F) The Length of the SYGL-1(+) (D) and PZ (E) zones, and their ratio (F) in WT and *rict-1(-)* mutants. (A, B, D-F) Black circles indicate the means across independent replicate experiments (these replicate experiments are shown in different colors), while the smallest circles indicate gonad arms (n = number of gonad arms scored), also summarized below each violin. The violin displays the overall distribution of data points. Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean. Statistical results and p-values are summarized in Tables S6 and S7, respectively. The asterisks indicate *** $p<0.001$, ** $p<0.01$, * $p<0.05$ of a Linear Mixed Effects Model with a Tukey Post Hoc Test. (C) Stacked bar plots represent the ratio of gonad arms that fall into different categories, indicated on the right (yellow for gonad arms with >150 PZ nuclei, light blue for gonad arms with 100-150 PZ nuclei, green for gonad arms with 50-100 PZ nuclei, and orange for gonad arms with <50 PZ nuclei. Individual examined gonad arms are indicated below each bar.

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Figure 4: Intestinal RICT-1 is necessary and sufficient for full establishment of the PZ. (A)
Numbers of PZ nuclei in the presence of the vehicle (EtOH) and auxin in the wild type
(WT) and *rict-1(-)* and in strains bearing sAID::RICT-1 and/or the intestinal TIR1 (*ieSi61*).
(B) Numbers of PZ nuclei in the wild type (WT) and in array bearing and non-array bearing
sibling progeny from *rict-1(-)* mothers carrying (*oyEx713[ges-1p::rict-1(+)]*), an array that
expresses *rict-1(+)* in the intestine. Black circles indicate the means across independent
replicate experiments (these replicate experiments are shown in different colors), while
the smallest circles indicate gonad arms (n = number of gonad arms scored), also
summarized below each violin. The violin displays the overall distribution of data points.
Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean. Statistical results and p-values are
summarized in Tables S6 and S7, respectively. The asterisks indicate *** $p<0.001$, **
$p<0.01$, * $p<0.05$ of a Linear Mixed Effects Model with a Tukey Post Hoc Test.

Figure 5: RNA-sequencing reveals that two vitellogenin encoding genes are regulated by intestinal RICT-1. (A) Principal Component Analysis of the three strains, in which each filled circle indicates one library, color coded by the three different strains. (B) Volcano plot displaying a comparison of transcript abundance between *rict-1(-)* mutants and wild type (WT) as circles in both the *rict-1(-)* mutant and the WT: not significantly regulated (grey), down-regulated in the *rict-1(-)* mutant (blue – 107 genes) or up-regulated in the *rict-1(-)* mutant (red – 44 genes) relative to WT. Vitellogenin genes are labeled and marked in orange circles. The horizontal dashed line indicates the adjusted p-value threshold of <0.001, while the vertical dashed lines indicate a log2 Fold Change of -2 or 2. (C) Heatmap in which each line indicates one differentially regulated gene (log2 fold change >2 and adjusted p value < 0.001 – colored points from panel B) between WT, the *rict-1(-),* and the *rict-1(-)* mutant with *Is[intestinal rict-1(+)]*. The color scale indicates the Fragments per Kilobase of transcript per Million mapped reads (FPKM), where darker colors indicate a stronger differential, where blue colors indicate lower and red higher abundance. (D) The fold change between WT and *rict-1(-)* is displayed on the x-axis and fold change between *rict-1(-)* and *rict-1(-); Is[intestinal rict-1(+)]* are shown. Blue circles indicate those transcripts of < -2 log2 Fold Change between WT and *rict-1(-)* and >2 Fold Change between *rict-1(-)* and *rict-1(-); Is[intestinal rict-1(+))]*. Red circles indicate those transcripts of >2 log2 Fold Change between WT and *rict-1(-)* and < -2 Fold Change between *rict-1(-)* and *rict-1(-); Is[intestinal rict-1(+))]*. *vit-1* and *vit-3* are labelled in orange circles. Grey circles indicate those transcripts that did not fall into the above-mentioned categories (15981 transcripts). All transcripts can be found in Table S4.

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Figure 6: Two vitellogenins, VIT-1 and VIT-3, are likely acting in a linear pathway with
RICT-1 to promote establishment of the PZ pool. (A, B) Numbers of PZ nuclei in the wild
type (WT) and indicated genotypes. Black circles indicate the means across independent
replicate experiments (these replicate experiments are shown in different colors), while
the smallest circles indicate gonad arms (n = number of gonad arms scored), also
summarized below each violin. The violin displays the overall distribution of data points.
Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean. Statistical results and p-values are
summarized in Tables S6 and S7, respectively. The asterisks indicate *** p<0.001,
** p<0.01, * p<0.05 of a Generalized Linear Model with a Tukey Post Hoc Test.
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