Somatic aging pathways regulate reproductive plasticity in *Caenorhabditis*

elegans

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Summary

Early life stress of an animal often results in changes in gene expression that correspond with changes in their adult phenotype. In the nematode *C. elegans*, starvation during early larval stages promotes entry into a non-feeding, stress-resistant stage named dauer until environmental conditions improve. Here we show that the endocrine signaling attributed to the somatic aging pathways in *C. elegans* adults lacking a functional germline also regulate the reproductive phenotypes of adults that have experienced dauer as a result of early life starvation. Postdauer adults modulate their fatty acid metabolism in order to re-allocate fat reserves in a manner benefitting their progeny at the expense of the parental somatic fat reservoir. Our results also show that the metabolic plasticity in postdauer animals and the inheritance of ancestral starvation memory in the progeny are a result of crosstalk between somatic and reproductive tissues mediated by the HRDE-1 nuclear RNAi Argonaute.

Keywords: *C. elegans*, postdauer, *daf-16*, *daf-12*, *nhr-49*, *hrde-1*, starvation, dauer, endocrine signaling, somatic aging

Introduction

Evidence indicating that experiences during early development affect behavior

and physiology in a stress-specific manner later in life is abundant throughout the

animal kingdom (Telang and Wells, 2004; Weaver et al. 2004; Binder et al. 2008;

Pellegroms et al. 2009; van Abeelen et al. 2012; Zhao et al. 2014; Canario et al. 2017;

Dantzer et al. 2019; Vitikainen et al. 2019). Epidemiological studies and studies using

mammalian animal models have supported the "thrifty" phenotype hypothesis which

proposes that fetal or postnatal malnutrition results in the increased risk for metabolic

disorders in the offspring (Neel, 1962; Hales and Barker, 1992; Vaag et al. 2012; Smith

and Ryckman, 2015). For instance, individuals exposed to the WWII Dutch Hunger

Winter during gestation had lower glucose tolerance and increased risk of obesity,

diabetes, and cardiovascular diseases in adulthood compared to siblings born before

the famine. In addition, the increased propensity to develop metabolic disorders was

inherited for two generations (Painter et al. 2008; Lumey et al. 2011; Veenendaal et al.

2013). Thus, understanding the relationship between fetal malnutrition and the

increased susceptibility to metabolic disorders in adulthood is critical for development of

intervention and therapeutic strategies.

The nematode *C. elegans* makes a critical decision regarding its developmental

trajectory based on the environmental conditions experienced during its first larval stage

(L1). If conditions are poor (e.g. low food availability, crowding, or high temperatures),

decreased insulin and TGF-β signaling in L1 larvae promote entry into an alternative,

stress-resistant, non-aging, diapause stage named dauer. Once conditions improve,

dauer larvae resume development as postdauer L4 larvae and continue through

reproductive adulthood as postdauer adults (Cassada and Russell, 1975). Alternatively,

if conditions are favorable, L1 larvae proceed through additional larval stages (L2-L4)

until reaching reproductive adulthood (control adults) (Sulston and Horvitz, 1977).

Although postdauer adults are morphologically similar to control adults, we previously

showed that postdauer adults retained a cellular memory of their early life experience

that resulted in genome-wide changes in their chromatin, transcriptome, and life history

traits (Hall et al. 2010, 2013; Ow et al. 2018). Remarkably, postdauer adults also

encoded the nature of their L1 environmental experience and gauged their adult

reproductive phenotypes and genome-wide gene expression based on this memory

(Ow et al. 2018). Postdauer adults that experienced crowding or high pheromone

conditions exhibited increased fertility and upregulated expression of genes involved in

reproduction relative to control adults that never experienced crowding. In contrast,

postdauer adults that experienced starvation (PD_{Stv}) exhibited decreased fertility and an

enrichment in somatic gene expression compared to control adults that never

experienced starvation (CON_{Stv}) (Ow et al. 2018). Moreover, the changes in fertility and

somatic gene expression in PD_{stv} adults required a functional germ line (Ow et al. 2018).

The prerequisite of crosstalk between somatic and reproductive tissues for the

postdauer reproductive phenotypes is also a key regulatory feature governing adult

lifespan and stress response (Kenyon 2010, 2010b). In *C. elegans*, endocrine signaling

has emerged as one of the principal pathways extending the lifespan of animals lacking

a germ line due to either ablation of germ line precursor cells or a mutation in the *glp-*

1/Notch receptor gene. The two main effectors of endocrine signaling, the FOXO

transcription factor DAF-16 and the nuclear hormone receptor (NHR) DAF-12, are

required for the increased lifespan of germline-less animals and are regulated by the

physiological state of the animal (Hsin and Kenyon, 1999; Kenyon 2010, 2010b; Murphy

and Hu, 2013). When an animal experiences reproductive stress, including sterility,

DAF-16 is dephosphorylated and translocated to the nucleus where it can alter target

gene expression to promote the extended longevity of germ line-less animals (Kenyon

2010, 2010b; Murphy and Hu, 2013). DAF-12, a homolog of the mammalian vitamin D

receptor, binds to bile acid-like steroid ligands (dafachronic acids or DA) to promote the

expression of genes involved in reproduction and growth in favorable conditions (Antebi

2014). In *glp-1* mutants, the Δ^7 form of DA (Δ^7-DA) is four-fold increased compared to

wild-type and promotes DAF-16 nuclear localization (Berman and Kenyon, 2006; Shen

et al. 2012). One of the consequences of the DAF-16 and DAF-12 dependent endocrine

signaling in *glp-1* mutants is a significant increase in stored intestinal fat, which allows

for somatic maintenance and prolonged longevity in the absence of germline

development (Wang et al. 2008).

In this study, we show that steroid hormone signaling, reproductive longevity

signaling, and nuclear hormone receptors contribute to the decreased fertility of

postdauer animals that experienced early life starvation by regulating fatty acid

metabolism. The reproductive plasticity of PD$_{stv}$ adults is a result of crosstalk between

somatic and reproductive tissues, the effect of which is an increase in lipid metabolic

pathway function in an animal that has experienced dauer, resulting in decreased

fertility but endowing metabolic robustness to their progeny. Thus, the pathways that

bestow increased lipid storage and extended longevity in a germline-less animal

function to promote reproduction in a postdauer animal that experienced early-life

starvation. We also show that the signals between the soma and the germ line are

dependent on HRDE-1, a germline-specific nuclear RNAi argonaute. Given the principal

role of HRDE-1 in RNAi-mediated transgenerational inheritance, this pathway may

transmit the ancestral starvation memory to an ensuing generation and provide the

necessary hardiness to survive future famine.

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Results

Dafachronic acid-dependent DAF-12 signaling is required for decreased fecundity after

starvation-induced dauer formation

Given that endocrine signaling across tissues is a prominent feature of reproductive

longevity, we examined whether wild-type PD_{Stv} adults shared any gene expression

signatures with animals lacking a functional germ line. In *glp-1* mutants, increased

longevity is dependent on TOR (target of rapamycin) signaling, DAF-16/FOXO gene

regulation, steroid hormone signaling, and fatty acid metabolism regulation (Lapierre

and Hansen, 2012). With the exception of TOR signaling, we found significant gene

expression changes in PD_{Stv} adults of key genes in each of these regulatory pathways.

In the steroid signaling pathway, dafachronic acid (DA) biosynthesis requires the

cytochrome P450 DAF-9, the Reiske-like oxygenase DAF-36, and the hydroxysteroid

dehydrogenase HSD-1 (Fig. 1A) (Gerisch et al. 2004; Rottiers et al. 2006; Patel et al.

2008; Mahanti et al. 2014). In animals lacking a functional germ line, the levels of *daf-36*

mRNA and the Δ^7 form of DA (Δ^7-DA) are significantly increased compared to wild-type

(Shen et al. 2012). Interestingly, we found that in wild-type PD_{Stv} adults with a germ line,

daf-36 mRNA is also increased 3-fold (p = 3.25e-04; FDR = 0.01) compared to control

adults (Ow et al. 2018). To investigate whether DA signaling plays a role in mediating

reproductive plasticity as a result of early life experience, we asked whether mutations

in DA biosynthesis genes would affect the reduced brood size observed in PD_{Stv} adults.

We found that *daf-9(rh50)* and *daf-36(k114)* strains*, but not *hsd-1(mg433),* exhibited a

significant increase in brood size in PD_{Stv} adults, opposite of what we observed in wild-

type animals (Fig. 1B; Supplemental Table S1).

We next asked whether the steroid signaling that contributed to the reduced

fertility of PD_{Stv} adults acted through related NHRs, DAF-12 and NHR-8. Since null

mutants of *daf-12* are dauer defective, we used two *daf-12* alleles, *rh284* (Class 5

mutant) and *rh285* (Class 4 mutant), with lesions in the ligand binding domain (LBD)

that affect steroid signaling activity but otherwise have nearly normal dauer phenotype

(Antebi et al. 2000). Surprisingly, *daf-12(rh284)* and *daf-12(rh285)* exhibited a significant

increase in brood size, similar to that observed for the DA biosynthesis mutants (Fig.

1B; Supplemental Table S1). These results suggest that DA-dependent activity of DAF-

12 is required for reduced fertility in PD_{Stv} adults. The related gene *nhr-8* is also up-

regulated 2.5-fold in PD_{Stv} adults (Lindblom et al. 2001; Magner et al. 2013; Ow et al.

2018); however, *nhr-8(ok186)* exhibited a significant brood size reduction between

control and PD_{Stv} animals at levels comparable to wild-type N2 (Fig. 1B; Supplemental

Table S1). These results indicate that the reduced fertility of PD_{Stv} adults is dependent

on DA biosynthesis through DAF-9 and DAF-36 and the subsequent DA-binding activity

of DAF-12.

We next asked whether the exogenous addition of DA was sufficient to reduce

the brood size of PD_{Stv} adults. To test this hypothesis, we induced larva into dauer by

starvation with or without exogenously added 40 nM of Δ^7-DA and measured their brood

size. The addition of Δ^7-DA did not affect the fertility of wild-type and *daf-36(k114)* (Fig.

1C; Supplemental Table S2). However, *daf-9(rh50)* PD$_{Stv}$ adults exhibited a significant

decrease in brood size in the presence of exogenous Δ^7-DA (Fig. 1C; Supplemental

Table S2). DAF-9 is reported to promote a feedback loop of DA production between the

neuroendocrine XXX cells and the hypodermis; thus, *daf-9* mutants may be more

sensitive to small changes in DA concentration (Antebi 2014). Taken together, these

results suggest that increased DA-dependent DAF-12 signaling is necessary, but

perhaps not sufficient, for the reduced brood size phenotype of PD$_{Stv}$ adults.

The DAF-16 reproductive longevity pathway mediates reproductive plasticity

DAF-16 acts as a major effector of reduced insulin/IGF-1-like signaling (IIS) by

promoting the expression of a group of stress response genes (Class I targets) (Tepper

et al. 2013). PQM-1, a C2H2 zinc finger transcription factor, acts in a mutually

antagonistic manner to DAF-16 by up-regulating genes associated with growth and

reproduction (Class II targets), as its cellular localization in the nucleus is anti-correlated

to that of DAF-16 (Fig. 2A) (Tepper et al. 2013). Interestingly, we found that the set of

genes with significant changes in mRNA levels between PD$_{stv}$ and controls was

enriched for DAF-16 Class I and Class II targets (Supplemental Results, Fig. S2A). In

addition, we found two genes that regulate DAF-16 cellular localization, *pqm-1* and *daf-*

18, were significantly up- and down-regulated, respectively, in PD$_{stv}$ adults compared to

controls (Ow et al. 2018). DAF-18 the functional ortholog of the human PTEN tumor

suppressor gene that promotes the nuclear localization of DAF-16 (Ogg and Ruvkun,

1998; Gil et al. 1999; Mihaylova et al. 1999; Solari et al. 2005). Together, the overlap in

DAF-16 gene targets and the significant changes in the expression of *pqm-1* and *daf-18*

prompted us to ask whether PQM-1 and DAF-18 contribute to the reduced fertility in

PD$_{Stv}$ adults by altering the regulation of genes involved in reproduction and

sequestering DAF-16 in the cytoplasm. We investigated this hypothesis by performing

brood assays on adults carrying mutations in *pqm-1* and *daf-18*. Surprisingly, the brood

sizes of control and PD$_{Stv}$ adults in *pqm-1(ok485)* and *daf-18(e1375)* strains were

similar to wild type, indicating that gene regulation by PQM-1 is unlikely to contribute to

the PD$_{Stv}$ decreased brood size phenotype (Fig. 2B; Supplemental Table S4). Since *daf-*

18(e1375) is a hypomorph, we next tested the possibility that DAF-16 localization may

play a role in regulating postdauer reproduction. *daf-16* null mutants are dauer

defective; thus, we asked whether a *daf-16(mu86)* null mutant expressing a rescuing

transgene (*daf-16a^{AM}::gfp*) that constitutively localizes DAF-16 to the nucleus would

show a brood size plasticity phenotype (Lin et al. 2001). Similar to what was observed

for *daf-18(e1375)*, the *daf-16(mu86); daf-16a^{AM}::gfp* transgenic strain displayed a

reduced brood size in PD$_{Stv}$ similar to wild-type N2 (Fig. 2B; Supplemental Table S4).

These results suggest that the nuclear localization of DAF-16, and not PQM-1, may be

contributing to the diminished fertility phenotype of PD$_{Stv}$ adults.

To further investigate whether the nuclear localization of DAF-16 is required for

the reproductive plasticity between control and PD$_{Stv}$ animals, we measured the brood

size of animals with mutations in genes that regulate the cellular localization of DAF-16.

First, we tested SMK-1/PPP4R3A, which promotes the nuclear localization of DAF-16

when animals are exposed to pathogenic bacteria, ultraviolet irradiation, and oxidative

stress, but does not affect the dauer development and reproductive timing activities of

DAF-16 (Wolff et al. 2006). We found that *smk-1(mn156)* mutants continued to exhibit a

decreased PD_{Stv} fertility compared to controls. Secondly, we examined two genes, *kri-1*

(an ortholog of the human intestinal ankyrin-repeat protein KRIT1/CCM1) and *tcer-1* (a

homolog of the human transcription elongation factor TCERG1)*,* that are required for

DAF-16 nuclear localization and extend adult lifespan in germ line-less animals, but do

not regulate dauer formation (Berman and Kenyon, 2006; Ghazi et al. 2009). We found

that decreased brood size in PD_{Stv} was abrogated in the *kri-1(ok1251)* and *tcer-*

1(tm1452) mutants (Fig. 2B; Supplemental Table S4). Because TCER-1 regulates the

transcription of its target genes in a DAF-16-dependent and independent manner (Armit

et al. 2016), these results indicate that KRI-1, TCER-1, and possibly DAF-16 are

required for the reproductive plasticity in PD_{Stv} animals.

Increased fatty acid metabolism promotes PD_{Stv} fertility

In animals lacking a germ line, DAF-16 and TCER-1 are required to bolster the

expression of lipid biosynthesis, storage, and hydrolysis genes to promote adult

longevity (Armit et al. 2016). Similar to germ line-less *glp-1* mutants, PD_{Stv} adults

exhibited a significant altered expression of ~26% (33 of 127 genes) of all the fatty acid

metabolic genes, including ~46% (18 of 39 genes) also targeted by DAF-16 and TCER-

1 (Fig. S2B; Supplemental Table S5). These results suggest that DAF-16 and TCER-1

play a role in regulating reproductive plasticity between controls and PD_{Stv} by up-

regulating fatty acid metabolism.

To investigate this hypothesis, we asked if mutations in known regulators of lipid

metabolism would exhibit changes in brood size in PD$_{Stv}$ adults when compared to

controls. One of the genes jointly up-regulated by DAF-16 and TCER-1 is *nhr-49*, a

nuclear hormone receptor homologous to the mammalian HNF4α lipid sensing nuclear

receptor involved in the regulation of fatty acid metabolism and the oxidative stress

response (Ratnappan et al. 2014; Amrit et al. 2016; Moreno-Arriola et al. 2016; Goh et

al. 2018; Hu et al. 2018). Additional nuclear hormone receptors, NHR-80, NHR-13, and

NHR-66, and the Mediator complex subunit, MDT-15, partner with NHR-49 and co-

regulate the expression of genes involved in various aspects of lipid metabolism such

as fatty acid β-oxidation, transport, remodeling, and desaturation (Van Gilst et al. 2005a,

2005b; Taubert et al. 2006; Nomura et al. 2010; Pathare et al. 2012; Ratnappan et al.

2014; Folick et al. 2015; Amrit et al. 2016). In addition, SBP-1 (homolog of mammalian

SREBP) and NHR-49 are co-regulated by MDT-15 as part of a transcriptional network

coordinating the expression of delta-9 (Δ9) fatty acid desaturase genes (Fig. 3B) (Yang

et al. 2006; Taubert et al. 2006).

The reduced fertility of PD$_{Stv}$ characteristic of wild-type animals was also

observed in *nhr-80(tm1011)*, *nhr-13(gk796)*, *nhr-66(ok940)*, and *mdt-15(tm2182)*

strains*,* but not in *sbp-1(ep79)* (Fig. 3A; Supplemental Table S6). In addition, two *nhr-49*

loss-of-function (*lof*) mutants, *nhr-49(nr2014)* and *nhr-49(gk405)*, failed to exhibit the

decreased fertility in PD$_{Stv}$ adults compared to CON$_{Stv}$, while a third *nhr-49(ok2165) lof*

allele continued to display a PD$_{Stv}$ reduction in brood size (Fig. 3A; Supplemental Table

S6). Because the three *nhr-49* mutant alleles, *nr2014*, *gk405*, and *ok2165*, differ in the

nature and the location of their lesions (Lee et al. 2016), their biological function may

vary and hence result in phenotypic differences (*nr2041* and *gk405* vs. *ok2165*).

Animals expressing *nhr-49* gain-of-function alleles (*et7*, *et8*, and *et13*) with missense

lesions located at or near the LBD may augment NHR-49 activity resulting in a

reproductive plasticity phenotype comparable to that of wild-type N2 (Fig. 3A;

Supplemental Table S6) (Svensk et al. 2013; Lee et al. 2016). Because of the

interaction between NHR-49, NHR-80, NHR-13, and NHR-66, we also examined if

double and triple mutants of these NHRs would have any reproductive plasticity

phenotypes. Double and triple mutant combinations of alleles exhibited an abolishment

of the PD_{Stv} decreased brood size phenotype only if they expressed the *nhr-49(nr2041)*

mutation (Fig. 3C; Supplemental Table S7). Thus far, our results indicate that NHR-49

and SBP-1 are important in the reproduction program of PD_{Stv} adults, likely by up-

regulating fat metabolism genes.

NHR-49 and SBP-1 up-regulate the expression of genes involved in fatty acid

biosynthesis, including the $\Delta9$ desaturases, *fat-5*, *fat-6*, and *fat-7*, and the delta-12 ($\Delta12$)

desaturase *fat-2* (Nomura et al. 2010; Han et al. 2017). FAT-5, FAT-6, and FAT-7

convert saturated fatty acids (SFAs) to mono-unsaturated fatty acids (MUFAs), while

FAT-2 catalyzes the conversion of MUFAs to poly-unsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs)

(Watts and Ristow, 2017). Our previous mRNA-Seq results showed that the expression

of *fat-5*, *fat-6*, *fat-7*, and *fat-2* increased significantly between 3.8- and 26.6-fold in wild-

type PD_{Stv} adults compared to controls (Ow et al. 2018). While strains expressing a

single *fat-5(tm331)*, *fat-6(tm420)*, *fat-7(wa36)*, or *fat-2(wa17)* mutation continued to

exhibit the reduced brood size phenotype in PD_{Stv} adults, double mutants expressing a

mutation in *fat-6* no longer displayed the reduced PD_{Stv} phenotype. The double mutant

fat-7(wa36); fat-5(tm331) continued to display a significant fertility difference between

controls and PD$_{Stv}$ (Fig. 3D; Supplemental Table S8). These results suggest: 1) a

functional redundancy between the $\Delta 9$ fatty acid desaturases in modulating lipid

homeostasis of PD$_{Stv}$ adults, with FAT-6 playing a more principal role than FAT-5 and

FAT-7; and 2) MUFAs are required for the decreased fertility phenotype in PD$_{Stv}$ adults

compared to controls.

In *C. elegans*, MUFAs are essential for viability as a triple *fat-5; fat-6; fat-7*

mutant is lethal (Brock et al. 2006). MUFAs, such as oleic acid, can be remodeled to

become PUFAs, phospholipids, and neutral lipids such as triacylglycerols (TAGs), which

serve as energy storage molecules in the intestine, hypodermis, and germ line (Watts

and Ristow, 2017). In addition to acting as key regulators of fat metabolism, FAT-5,

FAT-6, and FAT-7 are also essential in promoting the long lifespan of adult worms

lacking a germ line (Van Gilst et al. 2005a; Brock et al. 2006; Goudeau et al. 2011;

Ratnappan et al. 2014). Given that MUFAs are required for the reduced fertility of PD$_{Stv}$

adults compared to controls, we asked whether the dietary addition of oleic acid to PD$_{Stv}$

animals would further reduce their brood size such that they would produce even fewer

progeny compared to PD$_{Stv}$ animals not supplemented with oleic acid. To test this

hypothesis, we compared the brood size of PD$_{Stv}$ adults fed *E. coli* OP50 grown with

oleic acid and PD$_{Stv}$ adults whose bacterial diet was not pre-loaded with oleic acid. We

tested the N2 wild-type, *nhr-49(nr2041)*, *nhr-49(gk405)*, and *nhr-49(nr2041); nhr-*

80(tm1011) strains, and found that for all genotypes, the supplementation of oleic acid

significantly increased the progeny number produced by PD$_{Stv}$ compared to PD$_{Stv}$ adults

on the control diet (Fig. 3E; Supplemental Table S9). These results indicate that oleic

acid is a limiting factor for reproduction, even for wild-type animals, after passage

through the starvation-induced dauer stage. Altogether, these results suggest that NHR-

49 and SBP-1 are critical for the decreased fertility in PD$_{Stv}$ adults by mediating the up-

regulation of fatty acid desaturases and promoting the synthesis of sufficient levels of

oleic acid needed for reproduction after the animals experienced starvation-induced

dauer formation.

Starvation-induced postdauer adults have reduced fat stores

In long-lived *glp-1* mutants lacking a germ line, fat stores are increased relative to wild-

type (Steinbaugh et al. 2015; Amrit et al. 2016). Given that PD$_{Stv}$ adults also have an

increased expression of lipid metabolism genes similar to *glp-1* adults, but have limited

quantities of oleic acid for reproduction, we questioned what the status of fat stores

would be in wild-type adults with an intact germ line that had passed through dauer due

to starvation. Using Oil Red O (ORO) staining, we compared the amounts of neutral

triglycerides and lipids (O'Rourke et al. 2009) in PD$_{Stv}$ one-day-old adults and age-

matched control adults. Interestingly, PD$_{Stv}$ adults have a significantly reduced amount

of stored lipids relative to control adults in their intestine, but still displayed ORO

staining in the embryos within the uterus (Fig. 4A, 4B). These results are consistent with

a model that PD$_{Stv}$ adults have increased expression of lipid metabolism genes in order

to produce sufficient levels of MUFAs needed for reproduction rather than lipid storage.

Next, we investigated whether the decreased lipid stores in PD$_{Stv}$ adults was

dependent upon DAF-12 and TCER-1. Both *daf-12(rh284)* and *daf-12(rh285)* mutants

displayed a significant increase in lipid storage in PD$_{Stv}$ adults relative to control adults,

opposite to what was observed in wild-type, indicating that DA-mediated DAF-12 activity

is required for regulation of fat stores in PD$_{Stv}$ adults (Fig. 4A, 4B). Interestingly, the

ORO staining positively correlated with brood sizes in wild-type N2 and the *daf-12*

mutants: fat stores and fertility decreased in wild-type PD$_{Stv}$ adults, while fat stores and

fertility increased in *daf-12* PD$_{Stv}$ adults compared to *daf-12* CON$_{Stv}$ adults (Fig. 1B, 4A,

4B; Supplemental Table S1). In *tcer-1(tm1452)* adults, lipid staining was diminished in

PD$_{Stv}$ compared to controls, similar to what is seen in wild-type (Fig. 4A, 4B). However,

since both *tcer-1* control and PD$_{Stv}$ adults have reduced fat stores compared to their

wild-type counterparts, and TCER-1 is known to positively regulate NHR-49 and fatty

acid metabolism, this result is likely due to the inability of these animals to store fat and

not because the decreased fat stores in wild-type PD$_{Stv}$ adults is TCER-1 independent.

In addition to regulation of fat metabolism genes in the intestine, TCER-1 also functions

redundantly with PUF-8, a member of an evolutionarily conserved stem cell proliferation

modulatory family, to potentiate germ cell proliferation in animals undergoing continuous

development (Pushpa et al. 2013). Thus, our *tcer-1(tm1452)* results suggest that TCER-

1 activity may also be necessary in regulating germline mechanisms that curtail fertility

following exit from dauer diapause.

During *C. elegans* reproduction, intestinal fat stores are reallocated into low-

density lipoproteins (LDL)-like particles (yolk lipoproteins or vitellogenins) that are

incorporated into oocytes through receptor-mediated endocytosis in a process called

vitellogenesis, and serve as the only supply of nutrients to the developing embryos

(Kimble and Sharrock, 1983; Grant and Hirsch, 1999). Six vitellogenins homologous to

the human ApoB proteins are encoded in the *C. elegans* genome, *vit-1* through *vit-6*,

and concomitant multiple RNAi knockdown of the *vit* genes increases adult lifespan in a

process that requires NHR-49 and NHR-80 (Spieth et al. 1991; Seah et al. 2016). The

transition from dauer to reproductive adulthood is an energetically costly process that

likely drains the already reduced fat reservoirs in dauers that experienced early-life

starvation. Because vitellogenesis mobilizes intestinal fat resources for reproduction

and depletes somatic lipid stores (Kimble and Sharrock, 1983), we hypothesized that

PD_{Stv} adults have reduced fat reservoirs because they prioritize vitellogenesis as a

reproductive investment over intestinal storage. To test this hypothesis, we examined

the fat stores in control and PD_{Stv} adults following RNAi knockdown of *vit-1,* which also

results in the knockdown of *vit-2/3/4/5* due to the high sequence homology amongst the

vit genes (Seah et al. 2016) (Supplemental Fig. S4). In the RNAi treated animals, PD_{Stv}

adults continued to exhibit decreased fat stores compared to control adults, similar to

the empty vector negative controls. However, PD_{Stv} adults treated with *vit* RNAi have

significantly greater intestinal fat deposits than PD_{Stv} negative controls ($p < 0.0001$),

indicating that increased vitellogenesis in PD_{Stv} adults may be one contributing factor to

the lack of stored intestinal fat (Fig. 4C, 4D). These results are consistent with our

previous finding that oleic acid is a limiting resource for reproduction in PD_{Stv} animals,

and suggests a model where PD_{Stv} adults utilize fat accumulated after diapause for

reproduction and not storage.

Steroid signaling, reproductive longevity, and fatty acid metabolic pathways act

synergistically at different developmental time points to regulate reproductive plasticity

Thus far, our results indicate that both DA-dependent DAF-12 activity and TCER-1 are

required for the reduced fertility phenotype in PD_{Stv} adults. However, the *daf-12* and

tcer-1 PD_{Stv} mutant phenotypes are distinct, suggesting that they act in different

pathways, tissues, or developmental time points to regulate PD_{Stv} fertility. Furthermore,

the brood sizes of *kri-1(ok1251)* or *tcer-1(tm1425)* PD_{Stv} adults supplemented with

exogenous Δ^7-DA were unaffected, indicating that the effect of DA on PD_{Stv} brood size

is independent of the reproductive longevity pathway (Supplemental Fig. S3;

Supplemental Table S12). To further investigate the developmental mechanism of

steroid signaling, reproductive longevity, and fatty acid metabolism pathways in the

regulation of reproductive plasticity, we examined if DAF-12, TCER-1, and NHR-49 play

a direct role in the timing of germline proliferation in postdauer larvae. We previously

demonstrated that wild-type PD_{Stv} animals delay the onset of germline proliferation

compared to control animals, resulting in a reduced brood size (Ow et al. 2018). *C.*

elegans begins germ cell proliferation after hatching and continues throughout larval

development. Germ cells at the most distal ends of the gonad undergo mitotic self-

renewal while germ cells located more proximal in the gonad enter and undergo meiosis

(Kimble and Crittenden, 2005). In *C. elegans* hermaphrodites, undifferentiated germ

cells initiate spermatogenesis during the L4 larval stage, followed by a transition to

oogenesis at the adult stage (L'Hernault, 2006). Therefore, reproduction in *C. elegans*

hermaphrodites is sperm-limited (Byerly et al. 1976; Ward and Carrel, 1979; Kimble and

Ward, 1988). In previous results, when control and PD_{Stv} somatic development was

synchronized using vulva morphology, we observed significantly fewer germ cell rows in

PD$_{Stv}$ larvae compared to control larvae, correlating with fewer sperm available for self-

fertilization in adulthood (Ow et al. 2018).

To determine if DAF-12, TCER-1, and NHR-49 play a direct role in germline

proliferation as a mechanism to regulate reproductive plasticity, we counted the number

of germ cell rows in control and PD$_{Stv}$ mutant larvae that were developmentally

synchronized by their somatic morphology. Because *daf-12(rh284)* and *daf-12(rh285)*

mutants have altered germline morphologies that prevent accurate synchronization, we

used the *daf-36(k114)* mutation to disrupt the steroid signaling pathway. First, we

recapitulated our previous results showing that wild-type PD$_{Stv}$ larvae have significantly

fewer total germ cell rows compared to control larvae due to reduced cell rows in the

meiotic transition zone (Fig. 5; Supplemental Fig. S6). In contrast, *daf-36(k114)* control

and PD$_{Stv}$ larvae did not exhibit a significant difference in total (mitotic and meiotic) cell

rows, indicating that DAF-36-dependent DA is required during early germline

development for the delay in PD$_{Stv}$ germ cell proliferation (Fig. 5; Supplemental Fig. S6).

This result is consistent with the increased brood size of PD$_{Stv}$ adults in *daf-12(rh284)*

and *daf-12(rh285)* mutants, which express DAF-12 proteins unable to bind to DA.

In contrast to the *daf-36* mutant, the *nhr-49(nr2041)* mutant exhibited a significant

decrease in the number of total germ cell rows in PD$_{Stv}$ larvae relative to control larvae,

similar to wild-type animals (Fig. 5). However, the numbers of germ cell rows in the

mitotic and meiotic zones of *nhr-49* control and PD$_{stv}$ animals were not significantly

different (Supplemental Fig. S6). Since NHR-49 is required for the reduced fertility in

PD$_{Stv}$ adults, these results suggest that NHR-49 plays a small role in regulating germline

proliferation in larvae, and a larger role in regulating fatty acid metabolism in the

intestine to support vitellogenesis in adults. Like NHR-49, TCER-1 plays a role in the

intestine acting to upregulate fatty acid metabolism genes in animals lacking germ cells,

but also plays a role in the regulation of germ cell proliferation (Pushpa et al. 2013;

Amrit et al. 2016). We found that a mutation in *tcer-1* resulted in a similar number of

total germ cell rows in control and PD$_{Stv}$ larvae, indicating that TCER-1 plays a role in

PD$_{Stv}$ reproductive plasticity by regulating germ cell proliferation in addition to its

intestinal role (Fig. 5). Interestingly, *tcer-1* PD$_{Stv}$ larvae also appear to have a defect in

the onset of meiosis, since PD$_{Stv}$ larvae have significantly great number of mitotic germ

cell rows compared to controls (Supplemental Fig. S6). Together, these results indicate

that DAF-12 steroid signaling and TCER-1 act early in germline development to delay

the onset of germ cell proliferation in PD$_{Stv}$ animals, while NHR-49 primarily functions

later in development to promote the reduced fertility of PD$_{Stv}$ adults.

Generational transmission of early life starvation memory

Our results suggest that PD$_{Stv}$ upregulate their fatty acid metabolism to increase fat

transport to embryos. In humans, nutritional stress *in utero* not only promotes metabolic

syndrome in adulthood of the affected individuals, but also promotes obesity in

subsequent generations (Painter et al. 2008; Veenendaal et al. 2013). Therefore, to

examine whether the starvation-induced physiology of PD$_{Stv}$ adults is inherited, we used

ORO staining to quantitate the fat storage in adult F$_1$ progeny of control and PD$_{Stv}$

adults that did not experience starvation themselves. Indeed, the adult F$_1$ progeny of

PD$_{Stv}$ adults had an increased level of stored fat compared to F$_1$ progeny of control

adults (Fig. 6), but the difference was abolished by the F$_2$ generation. These results

indicate that the F_1 progeny of PD$_{Stv}$ adults inherit a starvation memory that results in

metabolic reprogramming to increase their stored fat reserves.

In *C. elegans*, inheritance of gene expression states is often mediated by small

RNA pathways (Feng and Guang, 2013; Rechavi and Lev, 2017). The germline-specific,

nuclear Argonaute HRDE-1/WAGO-9 has been shown to promote transgenerational

silencing via the formation of heterochromatin at targeted genomic loci (Buckley et al.

2012; Feng and Guang, 2013; Rechavi and Lev, 2017). In particular, starvation-induced

L1 diapause has been shown to alter the small RNA populations of subsequent

generations in a HRDE-1 dependent manner (Rechavi et al. 2014). We examined

whether HRDE-1 was required for the generational inheritance of starvation memory by

quantifying fat storage in *hrde-1(tm1200)* mutant control and PD$_{Stv}$ adults and their F_1

and F_2 progeny. First, we observed that the stored fat levels between *hrde-1* control and

PD$_{Stv}$ adults were similar, suggesting that the germline-specific Argonaute is required for

decreased intestinal fat storage of PD$_{Stv}$ adults (Fig. 6). In addition, the ORO staining of

the F_1 progeny of control and PD$_{Stv}$ adults was also similar, indicating that HRDE-1 is

required for the generational inheritance of starvation memory (Fig. 6). Remarkably, in

the F_2 generation, the grand-progeny of *hrde*-1 PD$_{Stv}$ mutants displayed increased ORO

staining like that observed for the F_1 generation of wild-type adults, suggestive of a

generational delay in the physiological response to ancestral early-life starvation upon

the loss of HRDE-1 activity (Fig. 6). Our genetic evidence suggests that the germline

nuclear RNAi pathway plays two roles: it contributes to the metabolic programming of

individuals that experienced early life starvation as well as promotes the generational

inheritance of starvation memory in the progeny. Our results show that *C. elegans*, like

humans, inherit the disposition for increased adiposity from parents that experienced

early life starvation.

Discussion

The trade-off between reproduction and longevity has long been associated with

the notion that in the absence of reproduction, the fat stores of an animal would be

redistributed to promote somatic maintenance (Williams 1966; Kirkwood 1977;

Westendorp and Kirkwood, 1998; Partridge et al. 2005). As such, reducing or

suppressing reproduction in animals often extends lifespan, in part due to enhanced

lipogenic processes (Fowler and Partridge 1989; Kenyon 2010, 2010b; Judd et al.

2011). What remains unclear is how reproduction and somatic maintenance are

balanced by developmental signals. In this study, we show that starvation early in the

life of a *C. elegans* animal with an intact reproductive system programs its transcriptome

to promote reproduction. Because dauers are non-feeding, starvation-induced dauers

have limited stored fat to survive the diapause stage and remodel out of dauer. We

propose a model whereby steroid signaling, reproductive longevity, and fatty acid

metabolic pathways are reprogrammed in animals that experienced starvation-induced

dauer in order to delay the onset of germline proliferation and redistribute intestinal fat

to developing oocytes (Fig. 7). These changes allow PD_{Stv} adults to delay reproduction

until energy thresholds are met to provide adequate levels of nutrition to fewer albeit

viable embryos at the expense of somatic survival and maintenance. In the absence of

a functional germ line, the fat that would normally be allocated to the progeny is

channeled to nurture somatic tissues and, consequently, extend adult lifespan. Thus,

the mechanisms that prolong lifespan in the absence of a functional germ line are the

same cellular programs deployed to respond to developmental signals triggered by

starvation early in life history in an animal capable of reproduction.

The extended lifespan associated with animals missing a functional germ line is

specifically dependent on the lack of proliferating germ cells and not due to sterility

resulting from sperm, oocyte, or meiotic precursor cell deficiency (Hsin and Kenyon,

1999; Arantes-Oliveira et al. 2002). Animals without a functional germ line have up-

regulated fat metabolism pathways and exhibit increased levels of intestinal fat stores

that are associated with a longer lifespan (Kenyon 2010, 2010b; Amrit et al. 2016).

Postdauer adults that experienced early life starvation have a delay in the onset of germ

cell proliferation after dauer exit and similarly have upregulated fat metabolism

pathways in adulthood. These results indicate that the cellular mechanisms that

promote germline proliferation during a critical period in development also negatively

regulate lipid metabolism, leading to altered somatic fat accumulation and longevity

(Wang et al. 2008). While a number of genes and cellular components affecting

germline proliferation have been extensively investigated (Kimble and Crittenden,

2005), what might the actual signals communicating the state of proliferating germ cells

be that arbitrate lipid levels and the aging process? Because upregulation of DAF-36

and Δ^7-DA is crucial for aging extension in germline-less animals and reproductive

plasticity in PD_{Stv} adults, it is likely that the signal communicating the state of germ cell

proliferation may include dafachronic acids. Dafachronic acids mediating increased

longevity are produced in the somatic gonad, which includes the stem cell niche site of

the germ line (Yamawaki et al. 2010). Based on our results, DA is required for the delay

in germline proliferation (Fig. 5), but DA-dependent DAF-12 activity is not necessary for

the increase in fatty acid metabolism observed in PD_{Stv} adults (Fig. 4A, 4B), suggesting

the possibility that dafachronic acids act in a DAF-12-independent manner to regulate

germ cell proliferation and fat metabolism. In addition, our results showed that *hrde-1* is

required for the altered fat metabolism in PD_{Stv} adults (Fig. 6), raising the possibility that

small RNAs could be another type of signaling molecule communicating the state of the

germ line to the soma. Small RNA pathways are potent surveillance mechanisms that

guard against the threat of foreign genetic invaders such as viruses and transposons

which can compromise germline integrity (Almeida et al. 2019). Because germ line

proliferation occurs throughout the lifetime of *C. elegans*, it is likely that small RNA

pathways survey the proliferative nature of the germ line at all stages of animal

development and potentially act as signaling molecules to regulate somatic processes

dependent upon the germ line.

One of the most intriguing findings of this study is that the starvation memory of

the parent is "bequeathed" to the F_1 progeny, triggering elevated levels of fat stores,

presumably as a physiological defense against ancestral famine (Fig. 6). Interestingly,

the increased intestinal fat inherited by the F_1 progeny of wild-type postdauer parents

bypassed the F_1 generation in the *hrde-1* mutant and was only evident in the F_2

generation (Fig. 6). One potential explanation is that small RNA signals are transmitted

to the F_1 generation via the HRDE-1 nuclear RNAi pathway to effect somatic

phenotypes. However, with the exception of DAF-16, none of the germline longevity

pathway genes or the vitellogenesis genes examined in this study are categorized as

direct HRDE-1 targets (Buckley et al. 2012). Given that the life stage (adulthood) at

which the HRDE-1 targets were identified is the same life stage that was used in this

study, we speculate that HRDE-1 may be indirectly targeting endocrine and

vitellogenins genes by: 1) targeting germ line genes that then affect somatic gene

expression; or 2) indirectly regulating the function of the endocrine and vitellogenin

genes by targeting a different repertoire of somatic targets. Interestingly, we find that

62% of small RNAs associated with HRDE-1 target genes (984 out of 1587) are

expressed in somatic tissues, such as neurons, intestine, hypodermis, and muscle

(Ortiz et al. 2014; Kaletsky et al. 2016). While silencing somatic genes in the germ line

is consistent with the described function of HRDE-1, our results raise the possibility that

HRDE-1 may also directly, or indirectly, target somatic genes. Accordingly, HRDE-1 is

known to contribute to the heritability of a cohort of small RNAs targeting nutrition and

lipid transporter genes that was inherited for at least three generations from populations

that experienced L1 larval arrest (Rechavi et al. 2014). In addition, HRDE-1 is required

for the repression of a group of genes activated upon multi-generational high

temperature stress that is inherited for at least two generations in the absence of the

stress (Ni et al. 2016). Thus, it is likely that HRDE-1 and the nuclear RNAi pathway may

serve as a signaling referee between the soma and the germ line to effect changes due

to environmental and developmental signals to perdure ancestral starvation memory.

Our study showed that PD_{Stv} adults have upregulated expression of lipid

metabolism genes as a means to load embryos with increased fat and potentially

protect progeny against future starvation conditions. Not only are fatty acids critical for

cell and organelle maintenance and efficient energy storage molecules but they can

regulate aging by acting as signaling molecules (e.g. as nuclear hormone receptor

ligands). Indeed, the lipid profiles in a number of species change as animals age

resulting in the acceleration of cell and tissue damage such that levels of certain lipids

can serve as aging biomarkers (Papsdorf and Brunet, 2019). Also, studies have

reported that fatty acids can alter animal physiology through the modification of

chromatin states either by the direct addition of lipid moieties to chromatin or by

activating signaling pathways that affect chromatin landscapes (Hansen et al. 2013;

Papsdorf and Brunet, 2019). Furthermore, MUFAs have been shown to be the link

between H3K4me3 modifiers and lifespan in *C. elegans*, while the inheritance of

epigenetic memory through soma-germline crosstalk in response to cellular stresses are

associated with the H3K4me3 modification complex (Tauffenberger and Parker, 2014;

Kishimoto et al. 2016; Han et al. 2017). Altogether, these studies provide an exciting

groundwork to examine how the chromatin states in PD$_{Stv}$ animals correlate with

metabolic plasticity due to early life starvation across generations.

During the course of its natural history, *C. elegans* occupies ephemeral

environments such as rotting fruit or decomposing vegetation, where conditions and

food availability are highly unpredictable. The dauer larva affords *C. elegans* a survival

and dispersal strategy to escape harsh environmental conditions by often associating

with passing invertebrate carriers. Accordingly, *C. elegans* is often found in the wild as

dauers. Once a food source is found, dauers resume reproductive development to

colonize the new habitat. Upon exhaustion of resources and population expansion,

young larvae enter dauer and thereby repeating the boom and bust life cycle

(Schulenburg and Félix, 2017). Because of frequent environmental perturbations, an

adopted phenotypic plasticity strategy would ensure an advantage in species survival.

The generation following a bust period would inherit the cellular programs for increased

somatic lipid stores. It is thus remarkable that the cellular mechanisms to ensure

survival of the species are fundamentally similar between humans and nematodes, two

species that have diverged hundreds of millions of years ago, once again underscoring

the relevance of a simple roundworm in understanding basic animal physiology.

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Author contributions

M.C.O. and S.E.H. conceived and designed experiments. M.C.O. and A.M.N. performed

experiments. M.C.O., A.M.N., and S.E.H. analyzed the data. M.C.O. and S.E.H. wrote

the manuscript.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure legends

Figure 1.   Adult reproductive plasticity is dependent on DAF-12 steroid signaling. (*A*)

Model of DAF-12 NHR regulation of development. See text for details. (*B*) Brood size

comparison of PD_{Stv} relative to CON_{Stv} in wild-type N2 and mutant strains represented

as the mean $\pm$ S.E.M. ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, **** $p < 0.0001$; Student's *t*-test;

comparison of PD_{Stv} to CON_{Stv} of a given genotype. &&& $p < 0.001$, &&&& $p < 0.0001$; one-

way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD test; comparison of PD_{Stv}/CON_{Stv} brood size between

mutant and wild-type N2. Additional brood size data is provided in Supplemental Table

S1. (*C*) Brood size comparison of PD_{Stv} grown in the presence of 40 nM Δ^7-DA relative

to control, represented as the mean $\pm$ S.E.M. N= 4 trials, **** $p < 0.0001$ (Student's *t*-

test) indicates the comparison between PD_{Stv} with Δ^7-DA and control. & $p < 0.05$ (one-

way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD *post hoc* test) refers to the comparison of brood size fold

change between *daf-9* and wild-type N2. Additional brood size data can be found in

Supplemental Table S2.

Figure 2.   TCER-1 and KRI-1 regulate decreased fertility phenotype in PD_{stv} adults.

(*A*) Regulation of DAF-16 nuclear localization. See text for details. (*B*) Brood size

comparison of PD_{Stv} relative to CON_{Stv} in wild-type N2 and mutant strains represented

as the mean $\pm$ S.E.M. ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, **** $p < 0.0001$; Student's *t*-test;

comparison of PD_{Stv} and CON_{Stv} of a given genotype. $^{\&}$ $p < 0.05$, $^{\&\&\&\&}$ $p < 0.0001$; one-

way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD *post hoc* test; comparison of the PD_{Stv}/CON_{Stv} brood

size change between a given mutant genotype to wild-type N2. Additional brood size

data is provided in Supplemental Table S4.

Figure 3.   NHR-49, SBP-1, and FAT-6 modulate adult reproductive plasticity. (*A,C,*

D) Brood size comparison of PD_{Stv} relative to CON_{Stv} for wild-type N2 and mutant

strains represented as the mean $\pm$ S.E.M. Additional brood size data is provided in

Supplemental Tables S6, S7, and S8. (*B*) Model of lipid metabolism regulators. See text

for details. (*E*) Brood size of PD_{Stv} wild-type N2 and mutant animals fed with *E. coli*

OP50 pre-loaded with or without 600 μM of oleic acid (OA), represented as the mean $\pm$

S.E.M. Additional brood size data is provided in Supplemental Table S9. * $p < 0.05$, ** p

< 0.01, *** $p < 0.001$, **** $p < 0.0001$; Student's *t*-test; comparison of PD_{stv} and CON_{stv}

brood size within a given genotype. $^{\&}$ $p < 0.05$, $^{\&\&\&\&}$ $p < 0.0001$ and n.s. (no

significance); one-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD post hoc test; comparison of

PD_{Stv}/CON_{Stv} brood size between a given genotype to wild-type N2.

Figure 4.   Fat stores are reduced in wild-type postdauer adults that experienced

starvation-induced dauer. (*A, C*) Oil Red O (ORO) intensity in CON_{Stv} and PD_{Stv} adults,

represented as violin plots with the mean (dashed line), first, and third quartiles

indicated (dotted lines). (*A*) **** $p < 0.0001$; Student's *t*-test; comparison between

CON_{Stv} and PD_{Stv} of the same genotype. $^{\&\&\&\&}$ $p < 0.0001$; one-way ANOVA with Fisher's

LSD *post hoc* test comparing mutant CON_{stv} or PD_{stv} to wild-type N2. n.s.; no

significance. Total sample size is indicated by *n*. (*C*) **** $p < 0.0001$; Student's *t*-test;

comparison between CON_{Stv} and PD_{Stv} of the same condition. $^{\&\&}$ $p = 0.0038$ and $^{\&\&\&\&}$ *p*

< 0.0001; Student's *t*-test; comparison of CON_{stv} or PD_{stv} *vit-1* RNAi to empty RNAi

vector control. (*B, D*) Representative micrographs of one-day-old adults stained with

ORO.

Figure 5. DAF-12 and TCER-1 regulate the onset of germline proliferation. Total

germ cell rows in CON_{Stv} and PD_{Stv} wild-type N2 and mutant larva exhibiting L3 vulva

morphology (see Materials and methods). Data represented as violin plots with the

mean (dashed line), first, and third quartiles indicated (dotted lines) ** $p < 0.01$; **** *p* <

0.0001; Student's *t*-test. Total sample size is indicated by *n*.

Figure 6. Generational inheritance of starvation memory. *(A)* Intensity of ORO lipid

staining of wild-type N2 and *hrde-1(tm1200)* control and postdauer P_0, F_1, and F_2

generations, represented as violin plots with the mean (dashed line), first, and third

quartiles indicated (dotted lines). **** $p < 0.0001$; Student's *t*-test. n.s.; no significance.

Total sample size is indicated by *n*. (*B*) Representative micrographs of N2 and *hrde-*

1(tm1200) CON_{Stv} and PD_{Stv} P_0, F_1, and F_2 worms stained with ORO.

Figure 7. Model depicting endocrine signaling pathways acting as contributors to

fatty acid metabolism of PD_{stv} animals. Signaling between the soma and the germ line

establishing metabolic plasticity and the transmission of ancestral starvation memory

are dependent on HRDE-1.

STAR ★ METHODS
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691 CONTACT FOR REAGENT AND RESOURCE SHARING

692 Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and

693 will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Sarah E. Hall (shall@syr.edu).

694 EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

695 ***C. elegans* strains and husbandry**
696
N2 Bristol wild-type strain was used as the reference strain. Worms were grown at 20°C

unless otherwise indicated in Nematode Growth Medium (NGM) seeded with

Escherichia coli OP50 using standard methods (Brenner et al. 1974; Stiernagle 2006).

Mutants that were not previously backcrossed were backcrossed at least four times to

our laboratory N2 wild-type before use. All strains used in this study are listed in the Key

Resources Table.

703
704 METHOD DETAILS
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706 **Plasmid construction and transgenic strains**
707
To clone P*glp-4::glp-4 cDNA::gfp::glp-4* 3'UTR, primers sets MO2454 & MO2455;

MO2516 & MO2507; MO2508 & MO2468; MO2469 & MO2470; and MO2471 &

MO2472 were used to amplify pUC19, 1.2 kb of the *glp-4* promoter, the *glp-4* cDNA

(using a cDNA library prepared from total RNA of a mixed N2 population as template),

the *gfp* gene (using Fire vector pPD95.75 as the template), and 500 bp of the *glp-4*

3'UTR, respectively, using Phusion DNA polymerase (NEB). Assembly of PCR products

was done using the NEBuilder HiFi DNA Assembly (E2621) to generate pMO555. P*glp-*

4::glp-4 cDNA::gfp::glp-4 3'UTR was cloned into the pCFJ151 MosSCI vector to

generate plasmid pMO557 using primer sets MO2499 & MO2500 and MO2514 &

MO2504 to amplify pCFJ151and P*glp-4::glp-4 cDNA::gfp::glp-4* 3'UTR (using pMO555

as template), respectively, using Phusion DNA polymerase (NEB) and assembled with

the NEBuilder HiFi DNA Assembly. To clone P*nhx-2::glp-4 cDNA::gfp::glp-4* 3'UTR,

overlap extension PCR was done with primers MO2544 (*Xma*I) and MO2533 (with

genomic DNA as template); MO2534 and MO2532 (*Sbf*I) (with pMO555 as template).

The resulting amplicon was digested with *Xma*I and *Sbf*I and cloned into pUC19 to

generate pMO562. P*nhx-2::glp-4 cDNA::gfp::glp-4* 3'UTR was cloned into pCFJ151

using the NEBuilder HiFi DNA Assembly and PCR products from primers MO2509 &

MO2504 (with pMO562 as template) and primers MO2499 & MO2500 (with pCFJ151 as

template) to create pMO565. To clone P*pgl-1::glp-4 cDNA::gfp::glp-4* 3'UTR, overlap

extension PCR was done with primers MO2545 (*Xma*I) and MO2536 (with genomic

DNA as template); MO2537 and MO2532 (*Sbf*I) (with pMO555 as template). The

resulting amplicon was digested with *Xma*I and *Sbf*I and cloned into pUC19 to generate

pMO559. P*pgl-1::glp-4 cDNA::gfp::glp-4* 3'UTR was cloned into pCFJ151 using the

NEBuilder HiFi DNA Assembly and PCR products from primers MO2510 & MO2504

(with pMO559 as template) and primers MO2499 & MO2500 (with pCFJ151 as

template) to create pMO566. To clone P*zfp-2::glp-4 cDNA::gfp::glp-4* 3'UTR, overlap

extension PCR was done with primers MO2546 (*Xma*I) and MO2538 (with genomic

DNA as template); MO2539 and MO2532 (*Sbf*I) (with pMO555 as template). The

resulting amplicon was digested with *Xma*I and *Sbf*I and cloned into pUC19 to generate

pMO560. P*zfp-2::glp-4 cDNA::gfp::glp-4* 3'UTR was cloned into pCFJ151 using the

NEBuilder HiFi DNA Assembly and PCR products from primers MO2511 & MO2504

(with pMO560 as template) and primers MO2499 & MO2500 (with pCFJ151 as

template) to create pMO567. Plasmids pMO557, pMO565, pMO566, and pMO567 were

used to generate single copy insertions, *pdrSi1* (*Pglp-4::glp-4 cDNA::gfp::glp-4 3'UTR*),

pdrSi2 (*Pnhx-2::glp-4 cDNA::gfp::glp-4 3'UTR*), *pdrSi3* (*Pzfp-2 ::glp-4 cDNA::gfp::glp-4*

3'UTR), and *pdrSi4* (*Ppgl-1::glp-4 cDNA::gfp::glp-4 3'UTR*) by Mos1-mediated single

copy insertion (MosSCI) (Frokjaer-Jensen et al. 2008). All primers sequences are listed

in the Key Resources Table. Following integration into *unc-119(ed3)* animals

segregated from EG6699 [*ttTi5605 II; unc-119(ed3) III; oxEx1578* (*eft-3p::gfp + Cbr-unc-*

119)] that have lost the *oxEx1578* array, MosSCI insertions were genetically crossed

into the *glp-4(bn2)* background.

749
750   **Brood assays**
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Ten L4 larvae were placed individually onto 35mm NGM plates seeded with *E. coli*

OP50 and incubated at 20°C. Animals were transferred daily to fresh 35mm NGM plates

until egg laying ceased. Live progeny from each egg laying plate were counted. Assays

were done from at least three biological independent replicates.

Oil Red O staining

Fat stores were stained using Oil Red O (ORO) dye as described by O'Rourke et al.

2009. Age matched one-day-old adults were washed from 60mm seeded NGM plates

with 1x PBS pH 7.4 and rinsed 3-4 times until they were cleared of bacteria. Worms

were permeabilized in 1x PBS pH 7.4 with an equal volume of 2x MRWB buffer (160

mM KCl, 40 mM NaCl, 14 mM Na_2EGTA, 1 mM spermidine-HCl, 0.4 mM spermine, 30

mM PIPES pH 7.4, 0.2% β-mercaptoethanol) and supplemented with 2%

paraformaldehyde. Samples were rocked for 1 hour at room temperature. Following

fixation, worm samples were washed with 1x PBS pH7.4, resuspended in 60%

isopropanol, and incubated at room temperature for 15 minutes. An Oil Red O (ORO)

stock solution (prepared beforehand as a 0.5 g/100 mL in isopropanol and equilibrated

in the dark at room temperature at least several days) was diluted to 60% with dH_2O

and rocked for at least one day to be used as the working stock. The ORO working

stock was filtered through a 0.22 um filter immediately before use. Fixed worms were

incubated in filtered ORO working stock and rocked overnight at room temperature.

Next day, worm samples were allowed to settle and the ORO stain was removed. Worm

pellets were washed once with 1x PBS pH7.4 and resuspended in 200 μL of 1x PBS

with 0.01% Triton X-100. Aliquots of worm samples were mounted onto microscope

glass slides and imaged.

Images were captured with either a Nikon Eclipse Ci with Spot 5.2 software or with an

iPhone through iDu Optics® equipped with a LabCam® adapter (New York, NY, USA).

Color images were separated into their RGB channel components and the intensity

measured on the green channel (Yen et al. 2010) using ImageJ (NIH).

RNA interference

Gravid adults were treated with hypochlorite to obtain embryos using standard methods

(Stiernagle 2006). Embryos were placed on NGM plates supplemented with 1mM IPTG

and 50 μg/ml carbenicillin seeded with a 10x concentrated bacterial culture expressing

the *k09f5.2* (*vit-1*) RNAi clone obtained from the Ahringer library (Kamath et al. 2001).

Embryos were allowed to grow until adulthood at which time they were treated again

with hypochlorite to obtain embryos. The recovered embryos were grown until day one

of adulthood and collected for ORO staining.

Dafachronic acid supplementation

The Δ^7 form of dafachronic acid (Δ^7-DA) (a kind gift from Frank Schroeder) was added

to a freshly grown culture of *E. coli* OP50 at a concentration of 40 nM and immediately

seeded onto NGM plates. NGM plates supplemented with an equivalent volume of

ethanol (the Δ^7-DA solvent) to those of the Δ^7-DA-supplemented NGM plates were used

as the control plates. Seeded plates were allowed to dry overnight before use.

Oleic acid supplementation

Animals were induced into dauer by starvation on peptone-less NGM plates seeded

with *E. coli* OP50 pre-loaded with oleic acid (NuChek Prep, Inc.; Elysian, Minnesota,

USA) as described by Devkota et al. 2017. OP50 was grown overnight at 37°C in liquid

LB supplemented with 600 μM of oleic acid or with an equivalent volume of ethanol (the

oleic acid solvent) to serve as the control. Cultures were pelleted and washed several

times with M9 buffer (Stiernagle, 2006) and resuspended at a 10x concentration. The

10x OP50 was seeded onto peptone-less NGM plates and allowed to dry overnight

before use.

Germ cell rows

All worm strains used for germ cell row counting have the integrated transgene *gld-*

1::*gfp*::*3xFLAG* from the BS1080 strain in their genetic background. Worms with L3

vulva morphology were identified by using Nomarski DIC microscopy at 630x (Seydoux

et al. 1993) and DAPI stained using the standard whole worm DAPI staining protocol.

The stained worms were imaged using a Leica DM5500B microscope with a

Hamamatsu camera controller C10600 ORCA-R2. When performing the germ cell row

counts, the start of the transition was identified when at least two cells in a row exhibited

the crescent-shaped nuclei morphology (Shakes et al. 2009).

RNA extraction

Total RNA was extracted using TRIzol Reagent (Life Technologies). Four volumes of

TRIzol reagent were added to a frozen worm pellet followed by vigorous vortexing for 20

minutes. Samples were centrifuged in a tabletop centrifuge at maximum speed and the

cleared supernatant was transferred to a fresh tube. The RNA was precipitated with

equal volume of isopropanol at -80°C for at least 30 minutes. RNA pellets were washed

with cold 75% ethanol, dried, and resuspended in RNase-free water.

Quantitative reverse transcription real-time PCR

Total RNA was treated with DNaseI (NEB) and processed with Superscript IV First

Strand Synthesis Systems (Life Technologies) using oligo (dT) primers following the

recommendations of the manufacturer. Real-time PCR was done with iTaq Universal

SYBR Green Supermix (BioRad) according to the recommendations of the

manufacturer. C_t normalization was done using *act-1*. All primer sequences are listed in

Key Resources Table.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical significance was determined using Prism 8 (GraphPad Software) using the

statistical tests indicated in the figure legends.

DATA AND SOFTWARE AVAILABILITY
838
839 Not applicable.

Supplemental figure legends

Figure S1. GLP-4 is required in multiple tissues to regulate adult reproductive plasticity. Brood size comparison of PD_{Stv} relative to CON_{Stv} in wild-type N2, *glp-4(bn2)*, and tissue-specific rescue strains of *glp-4*. Assays were done at 15°C from at least three biological independent trials. *** $p < 0.001$, **** $p < 0.0001$, and specified p-value (Student's *t*-test) refer to the comparison of PD_{Stv} to CON_{Stv} of a given genotype. &&& $p < 0.001$ and &&&& $p < 0.0001$ (one-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD test) refer to the PD_{Stv}/CON_{Stv} brood size change between a given mutant genotype to wild-type N2. # $p < 0.05$ and n.s. (one-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD test) refer to the PD_{Stv}/CON_{Stv} brood size change between *glp-4(bn2)* and the indicated *glp-4* tissue-specific MosSCI rescues. Additional brood size data is provided in Supplemental Table S11.

Figure S2. Differentially expressed N2 PD_{Stv} genes are enriched for DAF-16 targets. (*A*) Venn diagram depicting overlap of DAF-16 and PQM-1 targets (Tepper et al. 2013) with differentially expressed N2 PD_{Stv} genes compared to CON_{Stv} adults (Ow et al. 2018). See Supplemental Table S3. (*B*) Venn diagram comparing DAF-16 and TCER-1 targets with functions in lipid metabolism from germ line-less *glp-1(e2141ts)* animals (Amrit et al. 2016) with differentially expressed N2 PD_{Stv} genes compared to CON_{Stv} adults (Ow et al. 2018). See Supplemental Table S5.

Figure S3. Brood size comparison of PD_{Stv} grown in the presence of 40 nM of Δ^7-dafachronic acid (Δ^7-DA) relative to the brood size of PD_{Stv} grown in the absence of Δ^7-DA of wild-type N2, *kri-1(ok1251)*, and *tcer-1(tm1425)* strains. p-values (Student's *t*-test)

indicate the comparison between PD_{Stv} with Δ^7-DA to PD_{Stv} without Δ^7-DA of a given

genotype. Assays were done at 20°C from three independent biological replicates.

Additional brood size data is provided in Supplemental Table S12.

Figure S4.   Reverse transcription quantitative PCR (qRT-PCR) measurements of the

of the levels of *vit-1*, *vit-2*, *vit-3/4/5*, and *vit-6* mRNA in one-day-old-adults following

RNAi-by-feeding of *k09f5.2* (*vit-1*). *act-1* was used as the normalization control. **** *p* <

0.0001 and n.s. (no significance) (Student's *t*-test) refer to the comparison of PD_{Stv} to

CON_{Stv} for a given RNAi knockdown. Primer sequences are provided in Supplemental

Table S16.

Figure S5.   DAF-12 acts downstream of TCER-1 and KRI-1. Brood size comparison of

PD_{Stv} relative to CON_{Stv} for wild-type N2, *kri-1(ok1251); daf-12(rh284)*, *tcer-1(tm1425);*

dat-12(rh284), *kri-1(ok1251); daf-12(rh285)*, and *tcer-1(tm1425); dat-12(rh285)*. * *p* <

0.05; *** *p* < 0.001, **** *p* < 0.0001 (Student's *t*-test) indicates the brood size

comparison between PD_{Stv} relative to CON_{Stv} of a given genotype. \&\&\&\& *p* < 0.0001 (one-

way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD test) indicates the comparison of PD_{Stv}/CON_{Stv} brood

size change between a given genotype to wild-type N2. Assays were performed at 20°C

from at least three independent biological replicates. Additional brood size data is

provided in Supplemental Table S10.

Figure S6.   DAF-36 and TCER-1 are required for the delay in the onset of proliferation

in animals that have experienced starvation-induced dauer formation. (*A*) The number

of meiotic (transition zone) cell rows in CON$_{Stv}$ and PD$_{Stv}$ wild-type N2, *daf-36(k114),*

nhr-49(nr2041), and *tcer-1(tm1452)* at L3 stage was determined by counting the germ

cells rows that express the crescent shaped morphology in DAPI stained worms. (*B*)

The number of mitotic cell rows in CON$_{Stv}$ and PD$_{Stv}$ wild-type N2, *daf-36(k114), nhr-*

49(nr2041), and *tcer-1(tm1452)* at L3 stage was determined by subtracting the meiotic

cell rows from the total cell rows for each animal. Student's *t*-test comparison between

CON$_{Stv}$ and PD$_{Stv}$ of the same genotype: * p <0.05, ** p < 0.01, **** p < 0.0001. Sample

size is > 51 from at least three independent trials.

Figure S7. Wild *C. elegans* isolates exhibit adult reproductive plasticity. Brood size

comparison of PD$_{Stv}$ relative to CON$_{Stv}$ for *C. elegans* N2 Bristol, *C. briggsae* AF16, *C.*

elegans AB1, CB4856, ED3040, JU440, KR314, and TR403. * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01, ***

p < 0.001, **** p < 0.0001 (Student's *t*-test) indicate the brood size comparison between

PD$_{Stv}$ relative to CON$_{Stv}$ of a given genotype. Assays were performed at 20°C from at

least three biologically independent replicates. Additional brood size data is provided in

Supplemental Table S13.

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Ow et al. Figure 1

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Ow et al. Figure 2

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Ow et al. Figure 4

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Ow et al. Supplemental Figure S3

Ow et al. Supplemental Figure S5

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Ow et al. Supplemental Figure S7