GLP-1 Notch - LAG-1 CSL control of the germline stem cell fate is mediated by

transcriptional targets *lst-1* and *sygl-1*

Jian Chen[1], Ariz Mohammad[1], Nanette Pazdernik[1,5], Huiyan Huang[2], Beth Bowman[3,6],

Eric Tycksen[4], Tim Schedl[1*]

[1] Department of Genetics, Washington University School of Medicine

[2] Department of Pediatrics, Washington University School of Medicine

[3] Department of Biology, Emory University

[4] Genome Technology Access Center, McDonnell Genome Institute, Washington

University School of Medicine

[5] Current address, Integrated DNA Technologies

[6] Current address, Vanderbilt University

*Corresponding author: Tim Schedl

Department of Genetics

Washington University School of Medicine

Campus Box 8232

4523 Clayton Avenue,

St Louis, MO, 63110

ts@wustl.edu

Running title: Germline GLP-1 signaling transcriptional targets

Abstract

Stem cell systems are essential for the development and maintenance of polarized

tissues. Intercellular signaling pathways control stem cell systems, where niche cells

signal stem cells to maintain the stem cell fate/self renewal and inhibit differentiation. In

the *C. elegans* germline, GLP-1 Notch signaling specifies the stem cell fate. We

undertook a comprehensive genome-wide approach to identify transcriptional targets of

GLP-1 signaling. We expected primary response target genes to be evident at the

intersection of genes identified as directly bound by LAG-1, the *C. elegans* Notch

pathway sequence-specific DNA binding protein, from ChIP-seq experiments, with

genes identified as requiring GLP-1 signaling for RNA accumulation, from RNA-seq

analysis. Furthermore, we performed a time-course transcriptomics analysis following

auxin inducible degradation of LAG-1 to distinguish between genes whose RNA level

was a primary or secondary response of GLP-1 signaling. Surprisingly, only *lst-1* and

sygl-1, the two known target genes of GLP-1 in the germline, fulfilled these criteria,

indicating that these two genes are the primary response targets of GLP-1 Notch and

may be the sole germline GLP-1 signaling protein-coding transcriptional targets for

mediating the stem cell fate. In addition, three secondary response genes were

identified based on their timing following loss of LAG-1, their lack of a LAG-1 ChIP-seq

peak and that their *glp-1* dependent mRNA accumulation could be explained by a

requirement for *lst-1* and *sygl-1* activity. Moreover, our analysis also suggests that the

function of the primary response genes *lst-1* and *sygl-1* can account for the *glp-1*

dependent peak protein accumulation of FBF-2, which promotes the stem cell fate and,

in part, for the spatial restriction of elevated LAG-1 accumulation to the stem cell region.

Author Summary

Stem cell systems are central to tissue development, homeostasis and regeneration,

where niche to stem cell signaling pathways promote the stem cell fate/self-renewal and

inhibit differentiation. The evolutionarily conserved GLP-1 Notch signaling pathway in

the *C. elegans* germline is an experimentally tractable system, allowing dissection of

control of the stem cell fate and inhibition of meiotic development. However, as in many

systems, the primary molecular targets of the signaling pathway in stem cells is

incompletely known, as are secondary molecular targets, and this knowledge is

essential for a deep understanding of stem cell systems. Here we focus on the

identification of the primary transcriptional targets of the GLP-1 signaling pathway that

promotes the stem cell fate, employing unbiased multilevel genomic approaches. We

identify only *lst-1* and *sygl-1*, two of a number of previously reported targets, as likely

the sole primary mRNA transcriptional targets of GLP-1 signaling that promote the

germline stem cell fate. We also identify secondary GLP-1 signaling RNA and protein

targets, whose expression shows dependence on *lst-1* and *sygl-1*, where the protein

targets reinforce the importance of posttranscriptional regulation in control of the stem

cell fate.

Introduction

Stem cell systems are required for the development and maintenance of polarized

tissues, controlling the position, number and timing of differentiated cell type production.

Stem cell systems have non-stem niche cells that signal nearby cells to promote the

stem cell fate/self renewal and to inhibit differentiation. Niche – stem cell signaling

pathways include Notch, BMP, Wnt and JAK/Stat [1–3]. A deep understanding of how a

stem cell system works requires knowledge of the full repertoire of genes that are the

primary targets of the signaling pathway, as well as secondary response gene products.

Here we focus on the *C. elegans* germline stem cell system, which shares a number of

features with other stem cell systems [4]. Niche - germline stem cell signaling employs

the Notch pathway, which has been extensively studied in *C. elegans* [5]. The worm

germline is a polarized tube-shaped cellular assembly line designed for the rapid

production of gametes. The germline is capped by the distal tip cell (DTC), which is a

large somatic niche cell that polarizes germline cellular organization. Germ cells

adjacent to the DTC are in a region called the progenitor zone, which distally contains

stem cells, then cells completing a terminal mitotic cell cycle and cells undergoing

meiotic S-phase, followed proximally by cells undergoing the earliest stages of meiotic

prophase, leptotene and zygotene [4,6,7](**Fig 1**). The DTC expresses two Notch

pathway DSL (for Delta, Serate, LAG-2) ligands, LAG-2 and APX-1 [8–10]. *C. elegans*

has two Notch receptors, GLP-1 and LIN-12 [5,11]. GLP-1 is expressed in progenitor

zone germ cells and continuously required to promote the germline stem cell fate.

Genetic loss of *glp-1* in larval or adult stages results in loss of all germline stem cells

because of their premature entry into meiotic prophase [12,13]. Conversely, gain of

function (gf) mutations in *glp-1* result in a tumorous germline, with a vast excess of stem

cells and reduced or no meiotic prophase cells [14,15]. *lin-12* functions only in somatic

cell fate specification, including mediating the anchor cell – ventral uterine decision and

2° vulval cell fate specification [16]. *lin-12* and *glp-1* function redundantly in late

embryonic fates, and their simultaneous loss results in an early larval lethal phenotype

called Lag (for *lin-12* and *glp-1*; [11]). The current model is that when the DTC

presenting LAG-2 and APX-1 interacts with GLP-1 expressed in germ cells, ligand

dependent cleavage of the receptor generates the GLP-1 intracellular domain, GLP-

1(ICD), which translocates to the nucleus and associates with the sequence specific

DNA binding protein LAG-1 to activate primary target gene transcription. LAG-1 is a

founding member of the CSL family of DNA binding proteins [for CBF1 (or RBPJ) in

mammals, Su(H) in Drosophila and LAG-1] [17]. Complete loss of *lag-1* results in L1

larval lethality, reflecting LAG-1 functioning as the DNA binding co-factor for both GLP-

1(ICD) and LIN-12(ICD), while a *lag-1* hypomorphic mutant results in incompletely

penetrant loss of germline stem cells due to premature entry into meiotic prophase

[11,18]. LAG-1 and other CSL proteins share the same *in vitro* DNA binding site

(GTGGGAA, LAG-1/CSL binding site hereafter) [17,19,20]. GLP-1(ICD), bound to LAG-

1, and associated with SEL-8 (also called LAG-3) that functions similarly to Drosophila

Mastermind, forms an activation complex that transcribes GLP-1 signaling targets. LAG-

1 is thus central to GLP-1 signaling as its sequence specific DNA binding determines

direct transcriptional targets. Through its transcriptional targets, GLP-1 signaling

pathway promotes the stem cell fate, at least in part, by inhibiting three parallel

pathways that promote meiotic development, the GLD-1 pathway, the GLD-2 pathway

and SCF^{PROM-1} (**Fig 1**).

Two germline GLP-1 signaling transcriptional targets, *lst-1* and *sygl-1*, have been

identified that are redundantly required to promote the stem cell fate through a

candidate gene approach [21,22]. A number of lines of evidence support this

identification. First, genetic manipulation of *lst-1* and *sygl-1* give the same phenotypes

as manipulation of *glp-1*: the *lst-1 sygl-1* double null mutant has the identical premature

meiotic entry of all cells in the L2 stage as *glp-1* null; loss of *lst-1* and *sygl-1* later in

larval and early adult stages results in all stem cells entering meiotic prophase as is

observed with loss of *glp-1*; and ubiquitous overexpression of *lst-1* or *sygl-1* in the

germline results in a tumorous phenotype similar to *glp-1(gf)* [21,23]. Second, epistasis

analysis place *lst-1* and *sygl-1*, like *glp-1*, upstream of the meiotic entry pathway genes.

Third, *lst-1* and *sygl-1* nascent transcripts are restricted to the distal most germ cells,

contacting the DTC, and this expression requires *glp-1* activity [21,22] (**Fig 1**). Fourth,

LAG-1 binding sites in a *sygl-1* promoter reporter are required for distal germline

specific expression [21]. Finally, *lst-1* was previously identified as a LIN-12

transcriptional target involved in vulval development [24]. LST-1 and SYGL-1 act, at

least in part, through binding to Pumilio family RNA binding proteins FBF-1 and FBF-2

that function in mRNA degradation and translational repression of the *gld-1* meiotic

entry pathway gene [23,25–28].

lst-1 and *sygl-1* were identified in a small candidate RNAi screen of 15 genes that meet

the following criteria – (i) the gene contained a cluster of at least four LAG-1 binding

sites and (ii) its mRNA was a target of FBF-1 regulation based on FBF-1

immunoprecipitation followed by microarray analysis [21,24,29]. The presence of LAG-1

binding sites in genes regulated by Notch signaling transcription is logically predicted.

However, as FBF-1 promotes the stem cell fate and functions in mRNA degradation and

translational repression, it is counterintuitive that GLP-1 signaling transcriptional targets

would be FBF-1 posttranscriptional repression targets. In addition, three other GLP-1

signaling germline transcriptional targets have been reported, *fbf-2*, *utx-1* and *lip-1* [30–

32]. Despite these findings, the full repertoire of the GLP-1 signaling primary

transcriptional targets is unknown.

We have taken an unbiased genome-wide approach to identify primary transcriptional

targets of GLP-1 signaling, through intersection of genes identified as directly bound by

LAG-1, from ChIP-seq experiments, with genes identified as requiring GLP-1 signaling

for RNA accumulation, from RNA-seq transcriptomics analysis. An important part of our

approach was identifying genes whose RNA level, or protein level, was dependent on

glp-1 signaling. However, in *glp-1* null mutants, germ cells enter meiosis in the L2 stage

complicating comparative RNA and protein accumulation studies because of very

different germ cell number and type. Therefore, we have taken advantage of the

epistasis of *gld-2 gld-1* double null over the *glp-1* null mutant, comparing meiotic entry

defective tumorous germlines, with and without *glp-1* activity, similar to other studies

[21–23,30,32,33]. We identified *lst-1* and *sygl-1* as the only genes that had both

germline LAG-1 binding and whose expression was dependent on *glp-1* and germline

lag-1 activity. Furthermore, we used a time course transcriptomic analysis following

auxin-induced degradation of LAG-1 to distinguish between primary versus secondary

changes in RNA level in GLP-1 signaling. *lst-1* and *sygl-1* were the first genes (2hrs

treatment) whose mRNA level were dependent on LAG-1 activity, representing a

primary effect. Five additional genes were then identified at a later time point (4hrs

treatment) whose RNA accumulation was dependent of LAG-1 activity. Consistent with

these changes being a secondary effect, the five genes were not bound by LAG-1 and

for three of the genes, RNA accumulation was dependent on *lst-1* and *sygl-1* activity.

We additionally showed that *glp-1* dependent peak FBF-2 accumulation [30] is fully

explained by a requirement for downstream *lst-1* and *sygl-1* activity. Finally, we expand

our understanding of *lag-1* function and expression. We showed that *lag-1* is germline

autonomously required for the stem cell fate and found that LAG-1 is spatially restricted,

with peak accumulation in the stem cell region of the progenitor zone. Peak

accumulation is regulated posttranscriptionally, with about 50% of *glp-1* dependent

LAG-1 accumulation contributed by *lst-1* and *sygl-1* activity. Together, our results are

consistent with the possibility that *lst-1* and *sygl-1* are the only mRNA transcriptional

targets and that GLP-1 signaling is mediated largely or completely by *lst-1* and *sygl-1*.

Results

LAG-1 expression is spatially restricted to stem cells and autonomously required in the germline for the stem cell fate

As a first step in examining GLP-1 Notch – LAG-1 CSL transcriptional control of the germline stem cell fate, we determined the LAG-1 protein accumulation pattern. The endogenous *lag-1* locus was tagged with 3xHA at the C-terminus of the LAG-1, using CRISPR/Cas9 engineering, to generate *lag-1(oz530[lag-1::3xHA])*, hereafter called *lag-1::HA* (**Fig 2A; Materials and Methods**). The *lag-1:: HA* strain appears phenotypically wild type (**S1 Fig**). We examined germline LAG-1::HA accumulation by anti-HA antibody staining in dissected hermaphrodite gonad preparations (**Fig 2B-C; Materials and Methods**). In young adults (1 day past mid-L4 larval stage) LAG-1::HA was found in germ cell nuclei in the distal most ~10 cell diameters (cd hereafter) of the progenitor zone (PZ), during late pachytene, diplotene and diakinesis of oogenesis. The late oogenic accumulation is consistent with maternal loading of LAG-1 for early embryonic GLP-1 signaling in specification of certain blastomere cell fates [34,35]. In mid/late L4, LAG-1::HA was also found in germ cell nuclei in the distal most ~10 cd of the PZ, but not observed in late pachytene cells in the proximal gonad, which correspond to germ cells undergoing spermatogenesis [36]. Distal germline LAG-1::HA staining was variable in 1-day adults, and the staining intensity was weaker than in the L4 stage. We also observed strong LAG-1::HA staining in nuclei of all somatic gonad cells, the DTC, and all sheath and spermathecal cells, as well as in polyploidy intestinal cells, in both the L4 and adult stages dissection preparations.

Knowledge of the cell type in which LAG-1 promotes the germline stem cell fate is a

prerequisite for genome-wide studies. While LAG-1 has been assumed to function in the

germline to promote the stem cell fate, observing strong LAG-1 accumulation in the

DTC raises the possibility that it may have a non-autonomous function in promoting the

stem cell fate. We used the auxin-inducible degradation (AID) system that destabilizes

degron tagged proteins [37], to test if LAG-1 is require in the germline to promote the

stem cell fate. The degron tag, followed by 3xHA, was placed at the C-terminus of LAG-

1 in the endogenous locus using CRISPR/Cas9 engineering, to generate *lag-*

1(oz536oz537), hereafter called *lag-1::degron::HA* (**Fig 2A; Materials and Methods**).

Germline restricted degradation was achieved by germline specific expression of the

TIR1 F-box substrate specificity protein, using the *gld-1* promoter [37] (*ieSi64[gld-*

1p::TIR1::mRuby]; **Materials and Methods**). In the absence of auxin treatment, the *lag-*

1::degron::HA strain is phenotypically wild type, with LAG-1::degron::HA accumulation

indistinguishable from LAG-1::HA (**Fig 2B, D; S1 Fig**). Auxin mediated degradation was

initiated at mid-L4. After 4 hrs of auxin treatment, LAG-1::degron::HA distal germ cell

nuclear staining was no longer detected and this was also true at 24hrs of auxin

treatment (**Fig 2D**). In contrast, strong LAG-1::degron::HA staining remained in the

DTC, sheath and spermathecal cells and the intestine at both 4 and 24 hrs of auxin

treatment, consistent with germline specific degradation of LAG-1 (**Fig 2D**).

To assess inappropriate entry of stem cells into meiotic prophase following loss of LAG-

1::degron::HA, we stained dissected gonads for progenitor zone marker CYE-1 cyclin E

[38] and meiotic chromosome axis protein HIM-3 [39,40] (**Materials and Methods**).

After 4 hrs of auxin treatment, when LAG-1::degron::HA is no longer detected, the

position of the progenitor zone – leptotene boundary [in cd from the distal tip] was not

significantly different from wild type and from animals not treated with auxin (**Fig 2E; S1**

Fig). Following 24 hrs of auxin treatment all progenitor zone cells were CYE-1 negative

and HIM-3 positive, indicating that all the stem cells had entered meiotic prophase. The

kinetics of stem cell meiotic entry following germline loss of LAG-1::degron::HA (also

see below) are consistent with the kinetics observed following loss of GLP-1 signaling

through shift of *glp-1* temperature sensitive mutants to the restrictive temperature; the

progenitor zone is maintained at 4 hrs and absent by 10/12 hrs [41]. Together, the

above results indicate that LAG-1 is germline autonomously required and expressed in

the appropriate distal germ cells to promote the stem cell fate.

LAG-1 accumulation is positively regulated by GLP-1 signaling at a

posttranscriptional level and negatively regulated by the GLD-1 and GLD-2

meiotic entry pathways

We next investigated how LAG-1 accumulation is regulated in the distal germline. The

lag-1 gene contains multiple consensus LAG-1/CSL binding sites [17], and along with

the distal germline restricted accumulation pattern, suggests the possibility that LAG-1

accumulation occurs through a positive transcriptional loop via GLP-1 signaling. If the

GLP-1(ICD) - LAG-1 complex is regulating *lag-1* transcription, we predicted that (i) *lag-1*

mRNA would be spatially restricted to the first ~5 - 10 cd from the distal tip in wild type,

where GLP-1 dependent transcription and cytoplasmic mRNA of known targets *lst-1*

and *sygl-1* are observed, and (ii) *lag-1* mRNA accumulation would depend on GLP-1

activity [22,42]. We performed single molecule fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (smFISH)

on dissected gonads with *lag-1* mRNA complementary probes, analyzing expression

quantitatively by counting foci along the distal-proximal axis of the germline

[43](**Materials and Methods**). In wild type, we found that *lag-1* mRNA was uniformly

distributed throughout the distal 25 cd; abundant *lag-1* mRNA was found from 10 - 25 cd

from the distal tip, a region where *lst-1* and *sygl-1* mRNAs are not observed (**S2 Fig**).

To examine GLP-1 dependence, we used the *gld-2 gld-1* null double mutant meiotic

entry defective background (**Introduction**) and compared foci distribution relative to

wild type in *gld-2 gld-1* with either *glp-1(+)* or the *glp-1* null allele *q175*. As an internal

control, wild type gonads were co-dissected and smFISH performed together with *gld-2*

gld-1 or *gld-2 gld-1; glp-1(q175)*. The *gld-2 gld-1* mutant background had no significant

effect on the uniform distribution of *lag-1* mRNA foci relative to wild type. Furthermore,

loss of *glp-1* activity had no significant effect on the uniform distribution of *lag-1* mRNA

foci in *gld-2 gld-1* (**S2 Fig**). The uniform distal *lag-1* mRNA accumulation, independent

of *glp-1* activity, suggests that GLP-1 signaling is not involved in regulation of *lag-1*

transcription in the distal germline.

The above results indicate that distal restricted LAG-1 accumulation occurs through a

post-transcriptional mechanism. To investigate this mechanism, we first quantified the

distal – proximal accumulation of LAG-1::HA from anti-HA antibody staining in an

otherwise wild type background, and subtracted background signal from staining of *lag-*

1(+) germlines, lacking 3xHA (**Materials & Methods**). Because germline staining for

LAG-1::HA in 24 hrs adults was variable, we employed mid/late L4 hermaphrodites

where staining is more consistent from gonad to gonad. High LAG-1::HA was observed

from 1 – 5 cd from the distal tip followed by a significant fall to a basal level from ~17 -

25 cd (**Fig 3A-B**). To allow comparisons, the mean peak intensity at 4 cd was set to

100. From peak to proximal base at 25 cd, there was an ~7-fold drop in LAG-1::HA

levels, with accumulation at base significantly above background, ~15% of peak.

We then investigated the possibility that GLP-1 signaling indirectly regulates LAG-1

peak levels, possibly through targets *lst-1* and *sygl-1*. The pattern and level of LAG-

1::HA was first assessed in the *gld-2 gld-1* background, and then in *gld-2 gld-1; glp-1*

null triple mutants and the *gld-2 gld-1 lst-1 sygl-1* quadruple null mutants, each co-

dissected and stained with wild type, with and without *lag-1::HA* to allow background

subtraction and normalization (**Fig 3A, C-D; Materials and Methods**). In *gld-2 gld-1*,

LAG-1::HA displayed a similar overall expression pattern as in wild type, but with

elevated accumulation throughout the progenitor zone, with peak levels increased by

~25% (also see below). In the absence of *glp-1*, LAG-1::HA level was reduced

throughout the progenitor zone, with a gradual rise from distal to proximal. Compared to

peak level at 4 cd, LAG-1::HA is 39% of *glp-1(+)* level, indicating that ~39% of peak

LAG-1 accumulation is independent of GLP-1 signaling, with a similar level continuing

into the proximal progenitor zone. Thus, ~61% of peak LAG-1 accumulation depends on

GLP-1 signaling. In the absence of *lst-1* and *sygl-1*, we observed a peak of LAG-1

accumulation that was intermediate between the presence and absence of *glp-1*, ~70%

of the LAG-1::HA peak in *gld-2 gld-1*. The difference in accumulation indicates that *lst-1*

and *sygl-1* activity account for ~50% of *glp-1* dependent LAG-1 accumulation (**Fig 3C-**

D). These results do not provide an explanation for the remaining 50% of *glp-1*

dependent control of LAG-1 accumulation, which is not reliant on control of *lag-1* mRNA

level (**S2 Fig**). Figure 3E summarizes the GLP-1 signaling dependent and independent

control of LAG-1 peak accumulation, indicating that about one third of LAG-1

accumulation is promoted by GLP-1 transcriptional targets *lst-1* and *sygl-1*.

GLD-1 and GLD-2 repress LAG-1 accumulation in the proximal part of the progenitor

zone (**Fig 3B; S3 Fig**). We found that in the *gld-2 gld-1* double null mutant, LAG-1 level

was elevated ~4.5-fold, as assessed at 25 cd from the distal tip. GLD-1 alone accounts

for more than half of this repression, as LAG-1 level is elevated almost 3-fold in the *gld-*

1 single null mutant, which is consistent with *lag-1* mRNA being identified as a GLD-1

target in RNA pull-down experiments [44,45]. As loss of *gld-2* function alone does not

affect LAG-1 level, the remaining repression is apparently through the combined action

of GLD-1 and GLD-2. The above results indicate that the fall in LAG-1 level in the

proximal part of the progenitor zone is largely through translational repression by GLD-1

and GLD-2, as well as the absence of *lst-1* and *sygl-1* promoting LAG-1 accumulation,

which are spatially restricted to the distal most ~5 – 10 cd. Peak LAG-1 accumulation is

also repressed by the combined activities of GLD-1 and GLD-2 (**Fig 3; S3 Fig**). This

modest repression is presumably because of lower *gld-1* and *gld-2* activity in the distal

most 10-cell diameters [4].

Genome-wide identification of GLP-1 Notch – LAG-1 CSL transcriptional targets:

ChIP-seq

lst-1 and *sygl-1*, which were identified in a small candidate gene RNAi screen, are GLP-1 transcriptional targets that are redundantly required for the germline stem cell fate [21,22,42] (**Introduction**). However, it is possible that there are additional primary transcriptional targets of GLP-1 signaling that remain to be identified. Here, we undertook an unbiased genome-wide approach to identify transcriptional targets of GLP-1 signaling, through intersection of genes identified as directly bound by LAG-1, from Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) experiments, with genes that are identified as requiring GLP-1 signaling for RNA accumulation, from RNA-seq transcriptomics analysis. LAG-1 CSL is the DNA binding protein that mediates transcription of GLP-1 and LIN-12 signaling targets, and was used in the ChIP-seq experiments. We first performed conventional ChIP-seq on whole mid-L4 worms, using the endogenous *lag-1* gene tagged with GFP and 3xFLAG, *lag-1(ar611[lag-1::GFP::3xFLAG])* (**S4 Fig**; gift from Iva Greenwald). We separately performed anti-FLAG or anti-GFP ChIP experiments; both antibodies can efficiently pulled-down tagged LAG-1 and gave a significant fold enrichment of *lst-1* and *sygl-1* DNA fragments compared to control genes in ChIP-qPCR (**S4C Fig, Materials and Methods**). Following high throughput sequencing, peaks were identified with greater than a two-fold enrichment compared to input control, and a false discovery rate (FDR <0.05). The Homer suite [46] was used to annotate the peaks to their nearest transcription start site (TSS). Seventy-five genes

were identified as binding to LAG-1 from the intersection of the FLAG-IP (one biological

replicate) and GFP-IP (two biological replicates) ChIP-seq (**S4 Fig; S3 Table**).

Known somatic LIN-12 signaling targets involved in vulval development, *lst-1* and *mir-*

61/250 [24,47], and germline target *sygl-1* [21] were identified with each having a single

major ChIP-seq peak that covers multiple canonical LAG-1/CSL binding sites. The *lag-1*

gene contained multiple peaks, particularly in the large first intron that contains multiple

canonical LAG-1/CSL binding sites. The *lag-1* first intron is also bound by a large

number of transcription factors (~50% of those analyzed to date,

http://www.modencode.org/), but this is less than the definition of a Highly Occupied

Target (HOT), where >65% of transcription factors bind to a region [48,49]. Thus, the

lag-1 gene may function in a LIN-12 (and possibly GLP-1) signaling dependent positive

autoregulatory feedback loop with LAG-1 in the soma, consistent with *lag-1* reporter

gene analysis in the anchor cell – ventral uterine cell decision [50] (K. Luo and I.

Greenwald, personal communication), although this does not appear to be the case in

the germline (see above). We did not identify peaks for other reported LIN-12 or GLP-1

signaling somatic targets, such as *ref-1* in the embryo or *lip-1* in vulval development

[51,52]. This maybe a result of our analysis being from only a single stage (mid-L4) or

because only a small number of cells are expressing the target gene under LIN-12 or

GLP-1 control, resulting in only a small amount of total LAG-1 bound DNA, which is

below the limit of detection in the ChIP-seq assay. We performed *de novo* discovery of

over-represented DNA sequence motifs among the 75 genes and found the highest hit

to be an 9-mer that contains the canonical LAG-1/CSL binding site (*p-value: e-42*)(**S4H**

Fig). Thus, we believe that the bulk of the genes identified are bound by LAG-1 *in vivo.*

To identify genes whose transcription promotes the stem cell fate through direct LAG-1

binding, we performed germline specific LAG-1 ChIP-seq, where the approach was

guided by our expression and germline autonomy analysis above. LAG-1 is modestly

expressed in germline stem cells compared to much higher expression in late stage

pachytene and diplotene oogenic germ cells and somatic cells (**Fig 2, 3**). This

necessitated performing germline LAG-1 ChIP-seq on L4 stage hermaphrodites that

lack oogenic germ cells in pachytene and diplotene. We generated a transgenic strain

with the following components: (1) A fosmid transgene where the BioTag, a 23-amino

acid peptide that is recognized and biotinylated by the *E. coli* enzyme BirA biotin ligase

[53], was placed at the C-terminus of LAG-1 (*ozIs43[lag-1::3xFLAG::BioTag*, hereafter

called *lag-1::BioTag*) (**S5A Fig; Materials and Methods**); (2) A transgene with germline

specific expression of *E. coli BirA* biotin ligase from the *pie-1* promoter (*ckSi11[pie-*

1p::BirA::gfp]); (3) The *lag-1* deletion allele, *tm3052*, which demonstrated that *lag-*

1::BioTag in *ozIs43* produced functional, rescuing, LAG-1. Germline specific expression

of BirA results in germline restricted biotinylation of LAG-1::BioTag, which can be pulled

down by streptavidin beads (**Fig 4A**). However, because of high levels of endogenous

C. elegans biotinylated proteins [54,55] we were not able to directly pull-down the low

levels of biotinylated LAG-1::BioTag. To overcome this issue, we performed sequential

ChIP, first with anti-FLAG and then with streptavidin beads, followed by library

construction directly on the beads due to ultra-low quantities of DNA following

sequential ChIP (**Fig 4B**). Germline specific LAG-1 ChIP-seq data was analyzed as

described for whole worm ChIP-seq.

One hundred and thirty seven genes with germline specific LAG-1 peaks were identified

in common between three biological replicates, including *lst-1*, *sygl-1* and *mir-61/250*

(**Fig 4C-D**), providing biochemical support that *lst-1* and *sygl-1* are germline GLP-1

transcriptional targets. The *lag-1* gene was also found to contain multiple peaks.

However, other linked genes on the fosmid (e.g., *zen-4*) and the selectable marker used

(*unc-119*) also contained multiple peaks, which were absent in the whole worm ChIP-

seq. Thus, they likely represent artificially peaks due to multiple integrated copies of

ozIs43, therefore not considered to be specifically bound by germline LAG-1. *De novo*

motif identification recovered the same 9-mer that contains the canonical LAG-1/CSL

binding site (*p-value: e-^{34}*) as found in the whole worm experiment, consistent with LAG-

1 binding many of these genes *in vivo*, in germ cells. Thirty-six genes were identified in

common between germline specific and whole worm that show LAG-1 ChIP-seq peaks,

further supporting that LAG-1 binds to these genes *in vivo* (**S5E Fig**). Thus, the ChIP-

seq analysis uncovered many genes bound by LAG-1 in germline, whether GLP-1

signaling regulates these genes is not clear.

Genome-wide identification of GLP-1 Notch – LAG-1 CSL transcriptional targets:

RNA-seq

To identify genes that require GLP-1 signaling for expression we performed RNA-seq

comparing two strains, one with GLP-1 signaling ON, using *glp-1* <u>g</u>ain of <u>f</u>unction (gf)

allele *ar202* that produces a large number of proliferating germ cells undergoing GLP-1

signaling at the restrictive temperature [15], and the other with GLP-1 signaling OFF,

using the null allele *q175*. As described above, we employed the meiotic entry defective

gld-2 gld-1 double null mutant to allow examination of the effect of *glp-1* null in

proliferating germ cells; *glp-1* gf was also placed in this background so that genotype

was identical, except for *glp-1* activity status (**Fig 5A; Materials and Methods**). Further,

we used dissected gonad preparations to significantly enrich for expression changes

that occur in the germline. *In situ* hybridization and qRT-PCR was used to confirm that

in GLP-1 ON, transcriptional target *lst-1* and *sygl-1* were expressed throughout the

germline at significantly elevated levels, compared to GLP-1 OFF where expression

was similar to background (**Fig 5B-C**, **S6A Fig**). RNA-seq was performed on 5

biological replicates, following ribosomal RNA removal, from GLP-1 ON and GLP-1 OFF

dissected gonad RNA preparations. Heatmap and <u>p</u>rinciple <u>c</u>omponent <u>a</u>nalysis (PCA)

demonstrated significant differences between the GLP-1 ON and GLP-1 OFF RNA-seq

results (**S6B-C Fig**). We identified 94 genes whose RNA accumulation was dependent

on GLP-1 signaling, with greater than 2-fold elevation of reads in GLP-1 ON versus

GLP-1 OFF, FDR<0.05, and requiring greater than two counts per million reads (CPM)

(**S5 Table; Materials and Methods;**).

To identify primary GLP-1 signaling germline transcriptional targets we intersected the

137 genes identified as bound by LAG-1 with the 94 genes whose RNA accumulation

was dependent on GLP-1 signaling, which yielded only two genes, *lst-1* and *sygl-1* (**Fig**

4, 5). Three additional genes have been reported as germline GLP-1 signaling targets,

fbf-2, *utx-1*, and *lip-1* [30–32]. We did not observe LAG-1 germline ChIP-seq peaks

(**S5B Fig**) for *fbf-2*, *utx-1* or *lip-1*. For GLP-1 dependent RNA accumulation in GLP-1

ON versus OFF, *fbf-2* mRNA level was unchanged, *utx-1* mRNA level was below the 2

CPM cutoff, while *lip-1* mRNA increased 2.3 fold in GLP-1 ON. Consistent with

unchanged mRNA level, an *FBF-2::fbf-2* 3'UTR reporter driven by the heterologous *pie-*

1 promoter gives a qualitatively similar FBF-2 progenitor zone protein accumulation as

observed in wild type [30,56] (see below), supporting GLP-1 signaling independent

control of *fbf-2* mRNA accumulation. Prior work indicated that *lip-1* mRNA accumulation

in the progenitor zone was principally controlled by FBF-1 mediated degradation [31],

inconsistent with it being a primary GLP-1 target. The RNA-seq method we employed

does not recover RNAs less than ~100nt. Thus, it remains possible that small RNAs,

including *mir-61/250*, are transcriptional targets of GLP-1 signaling (**Fig 4C-D**).

Together, the above experiments provide robust *in vivo* biochemical support for *lst-1*

and *sygl-1* being mRNA transcriptional targets of germline GLP-1 signaling, and

potentially being the only primary GLP-1 signaling transcriptional targets.

FBF-2 accumulation is controlled by GLP-1 signaling transcriptional targets *lst-1*

and *sygl-1*

Previous work showed that FBF-2 accumulation is enriched in the progenitor zone, with

peak FBF-2 accumulation dependent on GLP-1 signaling [30]. We used CRISPR/Cas9

tagged *fbf-2(q932[3xV5::fbf-2])* [23], hereafter called *fbf-2::V5*, to quantitatively examine

FBF-2 accumulation, following anti-V5 antibody staining in dissected gonads from

young adult hermaphrodites (**Materials and Methods**). We found that FBF-2::V5

displayed a peak of accumulation at 8 – 13 cd from the distal tip, followed by a

somewhat gradual fall to low proximal levels by ~35 cd (**Fig 6A-B**), similar to previously

reported [30], with peak accumulation ~4 fold higher than base. In *gld-2 gld-1* double

null mutant germlines, the FBF-2::V5 peak was ~80% of wild type, with a the fall more

rapid than in wild type and a flat base from ~18 cd through 35 cd, with the peak also ~4

fold higher than base (**Fig 6A, C**). In the *gld-2 gld-1; glp-1* triple null mutant germlines,

FBF-2::V5 levels are low throughout the progenitor zone (**Fig 6A, C-D**), with the level ~4

fold lower than in the *gld-2 gld-1* double mutant. Thus, peak FBF-2 accumulation

requires GLP-1 signaling, with ~15% of FBF-2 accumulation being GLP-1 signaling

independent, as previously reported [30]. Given that FBF-2 accumulation appears to be

controlled post-transcriptionally, and the *lst-1* and *sygl-1* promote peak LAG-1

accumulation in the progenitor zone [56] (**Fig 3**), we next examined whether LST-1 and

SYGL-1 promoted peak FBF-2 accumulation. Analysis of *gld-2 gld-1 lst-1 sygl-1*

quadruple null mutant germlines showed low FBF-2 accumulation throughout the

progenitor zone (**Fig 6**), consistent with LST-1 and SYGL-1 being required for peak

FBF-2 accumulation. In the proximal progenitor zone, GLD-1 appears to promote FBF-2

accumulation as the level is lower in the *gld-1* null mutant (**S7 Fig**). Since GLD-1 acts in

translational repression, the effect on FBF-2 accumulation is presumably indirect. In

summary, FBF-2 is a secondary protein accumulation target of GLP-1 signaling as *glp-1*

dependent peak FBF-2 progenitor zone levels appear to be explained through post-

transcriptional regulation by *lst-1* and *sygl-1* activity (**Fig 6E**).

Germline LAG-1 functions in transcriptional activation of *lst-1* and *sygl-1*

Only two of 137 germline LAG-1 ChIP-seq peaks are associated with GLP-1 dependent

activation of target transcription. The remaining peaks may reflect LAG-1 acting

independent of GLP-1 signaling, either as a transcriptional activator or repressor. In

Drosophila, it is known that in the absence of Notch ICD, *Su(H)* CSL functions in

actively repressing Notch transcriptional target genes [57]. To test if LAG-1 has a GLP-1

signaling independent transcriptional function in the germline, we performed LAG-1 AID

(see above) followed by gonad dissection and RNA-seq (**Materials and Methods**; **Fig**

2D, Fig 7). We used a strain containing *lag-1::degron::HA*, *glp-1(ar202)* gf that at the

restrictive temperature will have the bulk of germ cells undergoing GLP-1 signaling, and

the meiotic entry defective double mutant *gld-2 gld-1*, to allow analysis of proliferating

germ cells, with or without auxin treatment.

We performed RNA-seq following 48 hrs of auxin treatment from the L1 stage at 25°C, a

time where LAG-1 is undetectable, and the same time point where GLP-1 ON and OFF

RNA-seq was performed (**Fig 5**). Heatmap and PCA demonstrated that changes in

RNAs from LAG-1 ON (minus auxin) and LAG-1 OFF (plus auxin) were significantly

different, while biological replicates were similar (**S8A-B; S6 Table**). Ninety-four genes

were identified whose expression was dependent on LAG-1 (activated genes), where

~70% (64) of these were also GLP-1 dependent genes (**S8C Fig; S5-6 Tables**). Only

two of the LAG-1 activated genes overlapped with LAG-1 germline specific ChIP-seq

peak containing genes, *lst-1* and *sygl-1* (**S8E Fig**). Forty-eight genes were identified that

were LAG-1 repressed, where ~80% of these were also GLP-1 repressed genes (**S8D**

Fig). There was no overlap between LAG-1 repressed genes and germline LAG-1

ChIP-seq peak genes (**S8F Fig**), which is not consistent with LAG-1 functioning in

transcriptional repression in the *C. elegans* germline. We note that the LAG-1

activated/repressed genes list and the GLP-1 signaling activated/repressed gene list

derive from strains that functionally differ in at least two ways that may have resulted in

incomplete overlap of gene lists. First, LAG-1 AID may not completely eliminate LAG-1

protein, while the *glp-1(q175)* allele is null. Second, while both use dissected gonads for

RNA-seq, LAG-1 AID degrades LAG-1 specifically in the germline, while *glp-1(q175)*

lacks GLP-1 signaling in both the germline and the soma. The above results indicate

that while LAG-1 has an essential function in transcriptional activation of *lst-1* and *sygl-1*

for germline GLP-1 signaling, it does not have an essential GLP-1 signaling

independent function in either transcriptional activation or repression.

Primary versus secondary GLP-1 signaling mRNA targets

The LAG-1 AID system described above provides a route to distinguish between genes

whose expression is a primary or a secondary target of GLP-1 signaling/LAG-1 activity.

By performing a time course of LAG-1 degradation, using RNA-seq as the readout,

genes whose RNA levels are transcriptionally controlled by GLP-1 signaling should

change expression earlier, while genes whose RNA level is indirectly controlled/a

secondary effect of GLP-1 signaling, should change expression later.

We performed a LAG-1 AID time course, harvesting RNA following 0.5, 1, 2, 4 and 48

hrs of auxin treatment (**Fig 7**). *sygl-1* and *lst-1* mRNA levels, as assessed by qRT-PCR,

dropped ~3 fold by 1 hr of auxin treatment and by 2 hrs were not significantly different

from 48 hrs of auxin treatment or GLP-1 OFF. Staining for LAG-1::degron::3xHA

indicated that at 2 and 4 hrs of auxin treatment, LAG-1 was at a low/undetectable level,

while staining for WAPL-1 show no change in the size of the progenitor zone (**S9 Fig**),

indicating that the switch of all the stem cell to meiotic development, following loss of

LAG-1, was only just beginning. RNA-seq was therefore performed at 2 and 4 hrs, time

points, where there was minimal pleiotropy from loss of LAG-1. Multidimensional scaling

(MDS) plots revealed that the 0, 2, and 4 hrs auxin treatment clustered together, but

separately from 48 hrs auxin treatment, indicating that there are few changes in

expression at early times following degradation of LAG-1 compared to strong loss of

LAG-1 (**S8G Fig**). After 2 hrs of auxin treatment, among the GLP-1 dependent genes,

only *lst-1* and *sygl-1* were identified as LAG-1 mRNAs targets (**Fig 7B-D**). By 4 hrs of

auxin treatment, 5 additional genes were identified whose RNAs displayed both LAG-1

and GLP-1 dependent accumulation (**Fig 7D-E**). The new 5 genes from the 4 hrs time

point could represent additional GLP-1 - LAG-1 transcriptional targets, which have

longer RNA half-lives than *lst-1* and *sygl-1*, or they may represent changes in RNA level

that are secondary effects of GLP-1 signaling. However, we did not detect germline

LAG-1 ChIP-seq peaks or canonical LAG-1/CSL binding sites in these 5 genes,

indicating that they do not fit the criteria of a primary GLP-1 signaling transcriptional

target. From these results, and our previous finding that *lst-1* and *sygl-1* promote LAG-1

and FBF-2 protein accumulation, we reasoned that RNA accumulation for these 5

genes may also be dependent on *lst-1* and *sygl-1* activity.

We first examined the kinetics of loss of LST-1 and SYGL-1 following LAG-1 AID. Peak

LST-1 falls ~5 fold at 2 hrs and ~10 fold at 4 hrs, while SYGL-1 falls ~3 fold at 2 hrs and

10-fold at 4 hrs auxin treatment (**S10 Fig**). Given their rapid loss, the significant

reduction of LST-1 and SYGL-1 could be responsible for the reduction in RNA level of

the 5 genes at the 4 hrs auxin treatment time point. To test this, we measure RNA level

by qRT-PCR for the 5 genes (*epg-5*, *tbx-2*, C17H12.36, *ucr-2.1*, F40D4.13) from

dissected gonads with GLP-1 ON, GLP-1 ON but lacking *lst-1* and *sygl-1* activity (LST-1

SYGL-1 OFF) and GLP-1 OFF (see **Fig 7F** and legend for full genotype). For *epg-5*,

tbx-2 and C17H12.36, higher RNA accumulation in GLP-1 ON was dependent on *lst-1*

and *sygl-1* activity. Thus, *epg-5*, *tbx-2* and C17H12.36 are indirect or secondary targets

of GLP-1 signaling, with their RNA accumulation dependent on the downstream *lst-1*

and *sygl-1* gene activity. It is likely that other genes whose RNA level are dependent on

both LAG-1 at 48 hrs and GLP-1 signaling are secondary targets that also rely on *lst-1*

and *sygl-1* activity. The LAG-1 AID time course provides an estimate of the maximum

half-life of the *lst-1* and *sygl-1* mRNAs, 1 hr, and the LST-1 and SYGL-1 proteins, 2 hrs,

at 25°C. Taken together, the LAG-1 AID time course results supports findings from the

initial genome-wide analysis that *lst-1* and *sygl-1* are likely the only two mRNA

transcriptional targets of GLP-1 signaling.

Discussion

A central question for the *C. elegans* germline stem cell system is the identity of the

GLP-1 Notch dependent transcriptional targets that promote the stem cell fate. We

performed a genome-wide search for transcriptional targets through germline specific

ChIP-seq analysis with LAG-1, the Notch signaling CSL DNA binding protein homolog,

and intersected these results with transcriptomics analysis under conditions of the

presence or absence of GLP-1 signaling. We also employed a time-course

transcriptomics analysis following auxin inducible degradation of LAG-1 to distinguish

between genes whose RNA level was a primary or secondary response of GLP-1

signaling. These approaches identified only *lst-1* and *sygl-1*, two previously described

GLP-1 transcriptional targets, and supports the possibility that there are no additional

direct mRNA transcriptional targets of germline GLP-1 signaling. We further report

examples of GLP-1 dependent secondary targets, whose RNA level or protein

accumulation was dependent on *lst-1* and *sygl-1*. We elaborate on these and other

findings below.

GLP-1 - LAG-1 transcriptional control of the germline stem cell fate

We present three lines of genome-wide molecular support that *lst-1* and *sygl-1* are

direct GLP-1 signaling transcriptional targets. First, we identified robust germline LAG-1

ChIP-seq peaks in the promoters of *lst-1* and *sygl-1*, overlapping the position of

consensus LAG-1/CSL binding sites. Second, transcriptomics analysis demonstrated

GLP-1 signaling and germline LAG-1 dependent *lst-1* and *sygl-1* mRNA accumulation.

Third, in a LAG-1 AID time course, *lst-1* and *sygl-1* mRNAs were the first RNAs to fall,

as early as 0.5 to 1 hr after auxin treatment, indicating that their mRNA loss was a

direct/primary effect of reduced LAG-1 activity. Combined with prior work that *lst-1* and

sygl-1 transcription in the distal progenitor zone is dependent on GLP-1 signaling and

that distal *sygl-1* reporter gene expression requires canonical LAG-1/CSL binding sites

[21,22], our results strengthen the conclusion that *lst-1* and *sygl-1* are direct

transcriptional targets.

This work supports the possibility that there may not be any additional direct mRNA

transcriptional targets of GLP-1 signaling. Our results are not consistent with three

reported genes, *fbf-2*, *lip-1* and *utx-1*, being GLP-1 transcriptional targets [30–32]. ChIP-

seq peaks were not observed for the three genes. *fbf-2* mRNA level was unchanged

with or without GLP-1 signaling or LAG-1 protein. For *lip-1*, while GLP-1 signaling and

LAG-1 promoted mRNA accumulation, in the LAG-1 time course *lip-1* mRNA level was

unchanged at 2 and 4 hrs of auxin treatment, but was reduced at 48 hrs (**S5-7 Tables**).

The delayed fall in *lip-1* mRNA level is consistent with an indirect/secondary effect of

GLP-1 signaling and LAG-1 activity. For *utx-1*, its mRNA read count was below the 2

CPM cut-off for reliable RNA level assessment from transcriptomics analysis. While we

identified genes whose RNA accumulation was GLP-1 signaling dependent (92 genes)

or germline LAG-1 dependent (92 genes), other than *lst-1* and *sygl-1*, they lacked

germline or whole worm LAG-1 ChIP-seq peaks. From the LAG-1 AID time course, five

genes were identified where their RNA level was dependent of LAG-1 at 4 hrs of auxin

treatment, raising the possibility that they were direct/primary targets of LAG-1 activity.

However, in addition to the five genes lacking LAG-1 ChIP-seq peaks, RNA

accumulation for three of the genes was dependent on *lst-1* and *sygl-1*. Thus, our

genome-wide studies did not identify any new candidate GLP-1 signaling mRNA

transcriptional target genes. However, the RNA-seq approach employed cannot assess

the level of small RNAs (less than ~100nt), and a number of small RNA genes were

identified as containing germline LAG-1 ChIP-seq peaks (e.g, *mir-61/250*, five 21 U

RNA genes). Thus, it is possible that there are small RNA genes that are germline GLP-

1 signaling transcriptional targets. We note that because of the low amount of DNA that

was obtained for the germline LAG-1 ChIP-seq experiments, it is possible that we

missed some weak ChIP-seq peaks. We also note that all of the transcriptomics

analyses were performed using dissected gonads from the *gld-2 gld-1* meiotic entry

double mutant background, to allow germline RNA level analysis in the absence of *glp-1*

or *lag-1* activity. We cannot rule out the possibility that the absence of *gld-1* and *gld-2*

activity may mask GLP-1 signaling dependent changes in RNA levels. Nevertheless, the

observation that the premature meiotic entry phenotype of the *lst-1 sygl-1* null double

mutant is the same as *glp-1* null [21] indicates that no additional transcriptional targets

genes are necessary to account for germline GLP-1 signaling.

LAG-1 expression and function

We found that *lag-1* is germline autonomously required for the stem cells fate, as

predicted from our current understanding of Notch signaling and notwithstanding strong

LAG-1 accumulation in all somatic gonad cells. In the soma, LAG-1 appears to function

in a positive autoregulatory feedback loop to promote accumulation in cells undergoing

the LIN-12 dependent AC/VU decision [50] (K. Luo and I. Greenwald, personal

communication). Consistent with this possibility, we found multiple LAG-1 ChIP-seq

peaks in the *lag-1* gene in the whole worm ChIP-seq experiments. In the germline,

however, *lag-1* mRNA was found at a constant level in the progenitor zone, in the

presence or absence of *glp-1* activity. These findings are consistent with germline *lag-1*

transcription being independent of GLP-1 signaling, with a *lag-1* positive transcriptional

feedback loop not active in the germline. We note that the Notch signaling dynamics in

the *C. elegans* germline differs from well-known lateral signaling examples, which may

then affect mechanistic aspects of transcriptional control. GLP-1 signaling and *lst-1* and

sygl-1 activity are continuously required in the *C. elegans* germline to promote the stem

cell fate, from the L1 larval stage through at least mid-adulthood, under optimal growth

conditions [4]. Thus, with the possible exception of the early L1 stage, germline stem

cells are born undergoing GLP-1 signaling, and only lose GLP-1 signaling when cells

are displaced away from the DTC niche (ON>OFF). In contrast, cells undergoing lateral

signaling initially lack Notch signaling, then undergo Notch signaling, and then may

continue or downregulate Notch signaling (OFF>ON>OFF). Such differences in Notch

signaling dynamics are likely mirrored in the transcriptional states of respective cells

and may provide an explanation for differences observed between the *C. elegans*

germline, somatic cells, and other organisms in Notch mediated transcriptional control,

and may be a reason for the absence of the LAG-1 positive autoregulatory

transcriptional feedback loop in the germline.

Mammalian CBF1 and Drosophila Su(H), orthologs of LAG-1, can act as transcriptional

repressors in the absence of Notch signaling [57,58]. Following germline specific loss of

LAG-1, we found that *lst-1* and *sygl-1* RNA levels dropped significantly, equivalent to

the absence of GLP-1 signaling. Thus, LAG-1 is required for GLP-1 dependent

expression and, correspondingly, does not appear to function in repression of

transcriptional targets *lst-1* and *sygl-1*. In the genome-wide studies, none of the

germline LAG-1 repressed genes (RNA level elevated following LAG-1 AID) contain

germline LAG-1 ChIP-seq peaks, indicating that transcriptional repression is not a

general property of LAG-1 in the germline.

We identified 137 genes with LAG-1 ChIP-seq peaks but only two of these genes are

transcriptionally controlled by GLP-1 signaling/LAG-1. This disconnect between the

significantly larger number of genes that are bound by a transcription factor compared

to the smaller number of genes that are regulated by the transcription factor is similarly

observed in yeast and mammalian cells [59,60]. The biological significance of this

disconnect is currently unclear.

We found that LAG-1 protein accumulation is spatially restricted, high in the distal most

5 cd (peak) from the tip and then falls 7-fold to a base level ~17 cd from the tip.

Importantly, the germ cells with peak LAG-1 accumulation correspond to those where

GLP-1 dependent nascent *lst-1* and *sygl-1* transcripts are observed [22,42]. While GLP-

1 signaling is not controlling *lag-1* mRNA level, we nevertheless found that 61% of peak

LAG-1 accumulation was GLP-1 signaling dependent, suggesting a posttranscriptional

mechanism (**Fig 3E**). This is consistent with the observation that many genes in the

distal germline are regulated posttranscriptionally through the 3'UTR [61,62]. We found

that ~50% of the GLP-1 dependent LAG-1 accumulation required *lst-1* and *sygl-1*

activity. The basis for the remaining ~50% of GLP-1 dependent LAG-1 accumulation is

not known. Perhaps GLP-1(ICD) is stabilizing LAG-1 protein. The fall in LAG-1 levels in

the proximal progenitor zone can be attributed, at least in part, to GLD-1 and GLD-2

activity. We speculate that the spatial restriction of LAG-1 contributes to controlling the

size of the stem cells pool, with peak levels required for efficient *lst-1* and *sygl-1*

transcription in the first 5 cd, and that lower levels in the proximal progenitor zone

decrease the probability of stochastic GLP-1 signaling triggering transcription of *lst-1*

and *sygl-1* in cells as they progress toward meiotic development.

GLP-1 signaling indirectly mediates control of RNA and protein levels through

LST-1 and SYGL-1

We found a number of examples of GLP-1 dependent RNA and protein accumulation

that are through the activity of *lst-1* and *sygl-1*. Lamont et al. (2004) reported that distal

peak FBF-2 accumulation requires GLP-1 signaling. We found that the *glp-1* dependent

peak FBF-2 accumulation can be explained by the activity of *lst-1* and *sygl-1* (**Fig 6**).

FBF-2 activity functions in repression of the GLD-1 and GLD-2 meiotic entry pathways.

Additionally, as described above, ~60% of peak LAG-1 accumulation is GLP-1

dependent, about 50% of which can be attributed to *lst-1* and *sygl-1* activity. From the

LAG-1 AID time course, we identified 5 genes whose RNA accumulation depended on

LAG-1, as well as *glp-1* activity. For *epg-5*, *tbx-2* and C17H12.36 we found that their

GLP-1 and LAG-1 dependent expression can be explained by the requirement for *lst-1*

and *sygl-1*activity. The remaining two genes, *ucr-2.1* & F40D4.13, show a trend to *lst-1*

and *sygl-1* dependence, although it is not statistical significant with the number of

replicates examined. Previous work reported that GLP-1 signaling inhibits GLD-1

accumulation in the distal progenitor zone [40] and this posttranscriptional repression

required *lst-1* and *sygl-1* activity [23]. Thus, the bulk of germline gene expression

changes ascribed to GLP-1 signaling, and *lag-1* function, can be attributed to the activity

of transcriptional targets *lst-1* and *sygl-1*. These findings are consistent with the

possibility that there are no additional mRNA targets of GLP-1 signaling that promote

the stem cell fate.

LST-1 and SYGL-1 have been reported to function in conjunction with FBF-1 and FBF-2

in direct translational repression/mRNA destabilization in the posttranscriptional

inhibition of GLD-1 accumulation [23,28]. FBF-1 has also been shown to function in

translational repression/mRNA destabilization in the posttranscriptional inhibition of

FBF-2 accumulation [30]. In contrast, we find that *lst-1* and *sygl-1* function in

posttranscriptional activation of FBF-2 and LAG-1 accumulation. Future work will be

necessary to determine if *lst-1* and *sygl-1* act with or separately from FBF-1 and FBF-2

in posttranscriptional activation of FBF-2 and LAG-1 accumulation. Similarly, *lst-1* and

sygl-1 promote *epg-5, tbx-2* and C17H12.36 RNA accumulation, and the mechanism by

which this occurs remains to be determined.

Materials and Methods

Strain maintenance

Unless otherwise noted, *C. elegans* strains were maintained at 20°C through

conventional methods [63]. The animals were grown on NGM plates seeded with OP50

bacteria. *glp-1(ar202)* is a temperature sensitive (*ts*) allele and strains with this allele

were maintained at 15°C. Strains with complex genotypes were constructed by standard

genetic recombination and segregation methods and where necessary, balancer

chromosomes were employed to maintain sterile mutations. A complete list of strains

used in this study is provided in **S1 Table**.

Generation of *lag-1* CRIPSR alleles and transgenes expressing *lag-1* and BirA

lag-1(oz530[lag-1::3xHA]) (**Fig 2A**) was generated through *in vitro* assembled RNA

protein complex (RNP) CRISPR [64,65]. Briefly, each component was pooled in volume

of 20 µl with final concentration as follows before injection: 0.25 ng/µl HiFi Cas-9 (IDT,

#1081061), 30 µM tracrRNA (IDT, #1072534), 15 µM *lag-1* specific

crRNA(atacagtaatcccgcgagag<u>NGG</u>) (IDT, Alt-R™), 0.02 µM *lag-1* specific single strand

DNA repair templates (3xHA sequences are underlined)

(cctacaaatcattggaacgacatggaccgtgcagaattgtgtccaattac<u>TACCCTTACGACGTGCCAGAT</u>

<u>TACGCTTACCCCTACGACGTACCAGACTACGCCTACCCATACGACGTCCCAGACTA</u>

<u>CGCTTAG</u>attAAactctcgcgggattactgtatctttatattgtctcctaatttctcccaattcgt) (IDT), 15 µM *pha-*

1 crRNA and 0.02 µM *pha-1(e2123)* specific repair template [66]. The injected animals

were raised at 25°C to identify *pha-1(e2123)* rescued animals. PCR was used to screen

for edits (see **S2 Table** for oligonucleotide information). Generated alleles were then

examined by Sanger sequencing to ensure there were no extraneous mutations. One

allele, *lag-1(oz530),* outcrossed twice with wild type, was used for further analysis.

lag-1(oz536oz537[lag-1::degron::3xHA]) was used to assess LAG-1 protein function in

the germ cells (**Fig 2A**). This allele was generated through the Self Excising Cassette

(SEC) method [67], due to insert size. The SEC allele contains the *sqt-1* roller marker

and hygromycin antibiotic selection marker to facilitate screening [67]. Briefly, each

component was mixed in a final volume of 20 µl with the following concentrations prior

to injection of wild type animals: 50 ng/µl Cas9 plasmid (pDD121, *Cas9* driven by *eft-3*

promoter), 50 ng/µl *lag-1* small guide RNA (sgRNA) plasmid (*lag-1* sgRNA sequence

<u>atacagtaatcccgcgagag</u> was cloned into plasmid DR274 U6 through *BsaI* site), 10 ng/µl

lag-1 specific repair template and 2.5 ng/µl *myo-2p::gfp* co-injection marker. The *lag-1*

specific repair template was constructed through Golden Gate cloning method [68]. The

injected animals were raised at 20°C for three days prior of adding 500 µl of 5 mg/µl

hygromycin. Six days later, animals that survived the antibiotic treatment and without

myo-2p::gfp injection marker were screened for inserts by PCR (see **S2 Table** for

oligonucleotide information). *lag-1(oz536)*(rollers, with SEC in) was verified through

Sanger sequencing, followed by two times outcrosses with wild type prior to heat shock

to remove the SEC [67] to generate *lag-1(oz536oz537)*

lag-1(ozIs43[lag-1::3xFLAG::BioTag + unc-119]) fosmid transgenic line (**S5A Fig**) was

generated through insertion of the 3xFLAG and BioTag encoded peptide sequence at

the C-termimus of LAG-1 in pCC1FOS vector (Source BioScience, CBGtg9050C1288D)

by Recombinering [69]. BioTag is a 23 amino acid peptide that can be recognized and

specifically biotinylated by biotin ligase BirA [54]. All transgenic alleles were generated

through bombardment and *unc-119* rescue; three alleles were found to rescue the

phenotype of *lag-1(tm3052)*. One of the alleles, *lag-1(ozIs43)* was chosen to generate

strain BS1193 (**S1 Table**) and used for germline LAG-1 ChIP-seq analysis (**Fig 4**).

ckSi11[pie-1p::BirA::gfp]. *C. elegans* codon-optimized BirA was synthesized with artificial

introns (Genescript) and tagged at the C-terminus with GFP. Codon optimization was

necessary for efficient germline BirA expression. This construct was cloned with the *pie-1*

promoter and the *npp-9* 3' UTR to promote germline expression and incorporated into the

chromosome I safe-harbor site *ttTi4248* using MosSCI [70]. GFP expression was observed in

the L4 and adult germline, deposited into embryos, and visible until at least the 250 cell

stage.

Auxin treatment

The auxin treatment was used to degrade degron tagged LAG-1 in the germline. Indole

3-acetic acid (IAA), the native plant hormone used in this study was ordered from Alfa

Aesar (#A10556) [37]. Like Zhang et al. 2015, we noticed that high concentration of

auxin (4 mM) inhibited OP50 bacteria growth. Therefore, all treatments were done in

NGM plates supplemented with 1 mM auxin (auxin plates). The un-seeded auxin plates

were stored at 4°C in the dark, and used within two weeks. The auxin plates were

seeded with OP50 bacteria and kept at 20°C for 24 hours before use. The auxin

treatment was conducted either at 20°C (**Fig 2E**) or at 25°C (**Fig 7**, **S8-10 Fig**) with

seeded plates preincubated at appropriate temperature for 2 hours.

Three TIR1 expressing transgenes were tested for efficiency of germine specific

removal of LAG-1; TIR1 expressed from the *sun-1* promoter [37], the *pie-1* promoter

[71], or the *gld-1* promoter [37]. Efficacy of LAG-1 degradation was assessed by

determining the relative mRNA abundance of GLP-1/LAG-1 transcriptional targets, *lst-1*

& *sygl-1*, by qRT-PCR, following auxin treatment. We found that *gld-1* promoter driven

TIR1 transgene (*ieSi64[gld-1p::tir1]*) gave the largest reduction of *lst-1* and *sygl-1*

mRNA, and was used in this study.

Immunostaining and Progenitor Zone size

The gonad dissection and staining procedure is as described [72]. The primary

antibodies used are: WAPL-1 at 1:2000 (Rabbit, Novus, #49300002) [73], HIM-3 at

1:600 (Rabbit, Novus, 53470002), CYE-1 at 1:100 (mouse) [74], and HA at 1:100 (Rat,

Roche, #11867423001), V5 at 1:1000 (mouse, Bio-rad, #MCA1360) [23], OLLAS at

1:500 (Rat, Novus, #NBP1-96713) [23]. Both CYE-1 and WAPL-1 antibodies staining

gives similar estimate of progenitor zone size compared to REC-8 in *C. elegans*

germline [73]. Hyperstack images were captured and a slice in mid-surface nuclei

usually gives the best signal for both antibodies. Therefore this slice was used to count

the number of rows of cells that are positive for either antibody, as described previously

[73].

Protein quantification

In this work, a method was developed to quantify protein level to study LAG-1, FBF-2,

LST-1 and SYGL-1 accumulation changes in various genetic backgrounds. This method

follows the approach of Brenner & Schedl (2016) [72] with following differences.

Quantification of LAG-1 level was performed with mid-L4 stage dissected gonads as

LAG-1 accumulation was less variable than in 1-day old adults and this is the stage

where LAG-1 ChIP-seq was performed. FBF-2 quantification is carried out in young-

adult germlines (~8 hrs post-L4/adult molt). At this stage, the wild type worms have

started laying eggs and in tumorous animals (e.g., *gld-1* null germlines), the proximal

tumor is still small enough to have not invaded the entire gonad; thus, the polarity of the

germline is still intact [73]. Auxin treatment of animals carrying tagged LST-1 and SYGL-

1 was started at mid-L4 stage and dissection and staining, thus, quantification of protein

was carried out at 2 or 4 hours later at 25°C.

Apart from the protein to be quantified, gonads were co-stained with DAPI and antibody

against WAPL-1. DAPI stained nuclei were used to count and mark cell diameter (cd)

and WAPL-1 was used to measure progenitor zone length. WAPL-1 staining was also

used to distinguish between different genotypes that were dissected and stained

together. Hyperstack images were captured using a 63X objective lens on a spinning

disk confocal microscope (PerkinElmer-Cetus, Norwalk, CT). Exposure time, which is

kept constant for an individual experiment, is set by using auto exposure in Volocity

software (Perkin-Elmer) for each experiment using an epitope-tagged strain in wild type

background. To capture distal the end of germline, two overlapping hyperstack images

were obtained to give a coverage length of ~120-150 microns (equivalent to ~40-50 cd).

The images were exported, stitched in pairs, using Bio-Formats and Stitching plugin in

Fiji [75–77]. In Fiji, DAPI images were used to draw a line, starting at the distal end to

the desired cd [72].

Quantification of LAG-1, SYGL-1 and LST-1 was done for the distal most 25 cd, while

for FBF-2 it was the distal most 35 cd. A line was drawn, in Fiji, using the DAPI image,

starting at the distal tip and extending to the desired cd distance. A width of 75 pixels

was used to collect fluorescent intensity for each line. Some of the gonads become out

of focus across their length, therefore intensity values were collected for two or more

slices of the hyperstacks for every pixel and a maximum value is selected for every pixel

of the line. After manually drawing the line, ImageJ API

(https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/developer/api/index.html) was used with custom python scripts

to collect and store intensity data. The pixel intensities thus obtained, were processed

similar to Brenner & Schedl (2016) to produce protein level graphs. Brenner & Schedl,

2016, quantified GLD-1 levels using antibody against GLD-1, and used GLD-1 staining

in *gld-1* null germlines to remove "non-specific signal/background noise". Since protein

level quantification in this study involved antibody staining against epitope-tagged

proteins we instead used staining in N2, lacking the epitope tagged protein, to remove

non-specific signal. Additionally, instead of using *spo-11(-)* germlines as internal

normalization controls, we used strains carrying epitope-tagged protein, in an otherwise

wild type background, as the internal control and have termed them as wild type

germlines.

mRNA detection and quantification

The procedure for *in situ* hybridization was adapted from Jones et al. 1996 [78]. Briefly,

young adult animals were dissected in a glass dish. The dissected gonads were fixed

with 3% paraformaldehyde / 0.25% glutaraldehyde / 0.1 M K2HPO4 (pH7.2) for 2 hours

at room temperature, followed by post-fixed with 100% methanol at -20°C. After three

washes in phosphate buffered saline with 0.1% Tween (PBST hereafter) to remove

residual methanol, the gonads were incubated with 50 µg/ml protease K in PBST for 30

mins, followed by 15 mins re-fixation in 3% paraformaldehyde / 0.25% glutaraldehyde /

0.1 M K2HPO4 (pH7.2), three washes in PBST, 15 mins incubation in PBST with 2

mg/ml glycine to remove residue aldehyde, then another three washes in PBST prior to

hybridization. The hybridization buffer contains: 5xSSC, 50% deionized formamide, 100

µg/ml autoclaved Herring sperm DNA, 50 µg/ml Heparin and 0.1 % Tween-20. The

gonads were pre-hybridized in PBST/hybridization buffer (1:1) for 5 mins at 48°C,

followed by 1 hour of incubation in hybridization buffer. PCR primers (see **S2 Table** for

oligonucleotide information) were used to amplify *sygl-1* and *lst-1* cDNA from total RNA

preparation and 100 ng of DNA was used to perform 35 rounds of single oligo PCR to

incorporate digoxigenin labelled nucleotide into single stranded DNA probes that's

complementary to *sygl-1* and *lst-1* mRNA. Each probe was diluted in 1 ml hybridization

buffer (for ten 100 µl hybridization). After O/N incubation in either probe, gonads were

washed with hybridization buffer three times to remove the excess probe, followed by

three washes in PBST. The gonads were then incubated with anti-digoxigenin antibody

(Sigma, #11333089001) O/N at 4°C, followed by three washes in PBST, then developed

in AP substrate BCIP/NBT (Sigma, #B5655). The detection of *sygl-1* takes 30mins and

lst-1 takes 1 hour.

Single molecule fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (smFISH) experiments were performed

as described [43]. *lag-1* Stellaris smFISH probes were designed by and obtained from

Biosearch Technologies. The fixed dissected gonads were incubated with probe at final

concentration of 5 µM, at 37°C O/N. All the subsequent washes were done at 37°C:

three washes in 2xSSC with 10% formamide, three washes in PBST. DAPI was

introduced in the last wash to stain DNA. Gonads were mounted and imaged similar to

immunostaining.

To quantify smFISH foci, hyperstack images of the distal end of the gonads were

acquired using a 63X objective lens on a spinning disk confocal microscope

(PerkinElmer-Cetus, Norwalk, CT). A suitable z-stack distance (0.4 micron) was used in

order to capture all smFISH foci. Image acquisition along the entire thickness of the

gonad results in progressive bleaching of the smFISH foci, hampering its accurate

quantification. To circumvent this issue, instead of covering the entire thickness of the

germline, we only took images of the germline covering one germ cell thickness from

the surface. Two overlapping hyperstack images were acquired for each gonadal arm to

get at least 25 cell diameters from the distal end. Images were stitched and further

processed in Fiji. For every gonadal image, all the other external artifacts were cleared

and gonads were rotated and cropped to get an optimum size to minimize the

computational cost of further processing. 3D Objects Counter plugin [79] was used to

get smFISH foci and their positions. A threshold value was selected, which would

include most of the foci. For every germline, the first 25 cell diameters were marked,

forming an imaginary line passing through the center of the gonadal tube. These

markers and imaginary lines with a line-width of 100 pixels, roughly corresponding to

about 10 microns, were used to assign smFISH foci to a particular cell diameter.

Chromatin Immunoprecipitation (ChIP)

The overall ChIP procedure was adapted from Berkseth et al (2013) [80]. L4 stages

animals raised at 20°C were used for both whole worm and germline specific LAG-1

ChIP experiments. Typically, freshly starved plates with abundant L1 stage animals

were chunked onto NA22 bacteria plates [80], and grown to adult stage at 20°C. Gravid

adult hermaphrodites were bleached to obtain a synchronized L1 population [80], which

were plated onto NA22 plates (NA22 bacteria plates were seeded three days prior).

Each NA22 plate (100 mm x 15 mm) housed around $5x10^4$ animals till L4 stages or

$2x10^4$ animals till adult stage. If required, repeated growing/bleaching was used to

obtain even larger quantities of animals. The L4 animals were washed off the plate

using PBST and were further washed three times with PBST to remove NA22 bacteria,

and frozen into small worm balls in liquid nitrogen.

The frozen worm balls were ground up in liquid nitrogen with a pre-cooled mortar and

pestle. The worm powder was fixed in 1% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 15 mins, and

then post-fixed with 125 mM glycine for 5 mins. After centrifugation, the worm pellet was

washed in PBS three times before re-suspending in 1% SDS buffer. The worm

suspension containing fixed DNA-protein complexes was sheared using a Bioruptor

(Diagenode, Denville, NJ) on the high setting for 20 cycles (30 seconds ON/30 seconds

OFF), to generate ~ 500 base pair length fragmented DNA. After centrifugation, the

supernatant was pre-cleared with protein-G Dynabeads (ThermoFisher, Waltham, MA)

before the immunoprecipation experiment.

For immunoprecipitation of LAG-1 from the whole worm L4 lysate, different GFP and

FLAG antibodies were first tested for their ability to immunoprecipitate LAG-1 (**S4B Fig**).

Two antibodies were chosen for further analysis: FLAG M2, which has have been

successfully used in other ChIP experiments [81,82], and anti-GFP antibody, which

immunoprecipitated the highest amount of LAG-1 (**S4B Fig**). Two μg of either FLAG

(mouse, Sigma, #F1804) or GFP (goat, Rockland, #600-101-215) antibodies was used

to immunoprecipitate LAG-1 protein from 2 grams of worm powder. After O/N incubation

at 4°C, the precipitated DNA-protein complexes were washed and eluted in 1% SDS for

10 mins. DNA was then reverse crosslinked to prepare sequencing libraries following

the manufacturer's instructions (Kapa Biosystem, #KK8500). To immunoprecipitate

germline LAG-1, L4 animals were used as this stage lacks LAG-1 from late stages of

oogenesis that are not functioning in GLP-1 dependent stem cell fate regulation (**Fig 2**).

However, direct ChIP with streptavidin beads was not successful, likely due to

interference from large amounts of endogenous biotinylated protein [54,55]; hence, a

sequential ChIP method was developed to overcome this issue. First, 300 µl FLAG M2

beads/6 grams of worm powder per replicate (Sigma, #M8823) was used to precipitate

all LAG-1 from both germline and somatic tissues, following the same procedure from

whole worm ChIP. After eluting in 1% SDS, the DNA-protein complexes was diluted

five-fold and re-immunoprecipitated with streptavidin beads to specifically pull-down

biotinylated germline LAG-1. Since the binding between biotin and streptavidin is very

stable, the precipitated DNA-protein complex was washed in 2% SDS, then in 1% SDS,

for 10 mins each, to remove any none specific binding. Unlike the whole worm ChIP, the

DNA amount after sequential ChIP was ultra low, so the NGS libraries were prepared

directly with DNA on the streptavidin beads following manufacturer's instructions (Kapa

Biosystem, #KK8500).

Sequencing and Bioinformatic analysis was performed by Genome Technology Access

Center at the McDonnell Genome Institute (GTAC @ MGI, Washington University in St.

Louis). Short sequencing reads (50 nt) were aligned back to *C. elegans* reference

genome and ChIP-seq peaks were identified using MACS2.0 [83] by comparing ChIP

library to input DNA library, for both whole worm and germline ChIP experiments. The

association of peak to closest gene annotation was done with HOMER suite [46].

HOMER suite was also used to identify overly represented motifs in ChIP-seq data.

Gene list comparisons and Venn diagrams preparation were both conducted in R.

RNA-seq analysis

All RNA-seq experiments performed in this study used total RNA from dissected

gonads. All strains carried *gld-2 gld-1* double mutant background. For GLP-1 ON and

OFF RNA-seq, gain of function (gf) allele *glp-1(ar202)* or null allele *glp-1(q175)* were

introduced into the *gld-2(q497) gld-1(q485)* mutant background. *glp-1(ar202)* is a

temperature sensitive gain of function allele, used to produce cells throughout the

germline that are undergoing GLP-1 signaling. This increased our ability to detect gene

expression differences. For the auxin induced LAG-1 degradation time course RNA-seq

experiments, *lag-1(oz536oz537)* and *ieSi64[gld-1p::tir1]* were introduced into *gld-*

2(q497) gld-1(q485); glp-1(ar202). Animals were raised at 25°C for 48 hours from

synchronized L1s population before dissection. For shorter periods of auxin treatment

(e.g, 2 hours and 4 hours), animals grown on NGM plates were transferred to seeded

auxin plates (pre-conditioned to 25°C) and treated for the required time, prior to gonad

extrusion.

Fifty young adults were dissected in a glass dish and the gonads were dissected away

from rest of the animal's body at the spermatheca. The isolated gonads were

centrifuged for 15 sec and re-suspended in 500 μl Trizol (Invitrogen, #15596026). The

RNA isolation was done according to manufacturer's instructions. RNA was then treated

with DNase (Thermo Fisher Scientific, #EN0525) to remove the contaminating genomic

DNA before proceeding to the removal of ribosome RNA (rRNA). The rRNAs were

removed with the Ribo-Zero kit (Illumina, #RZE1206) according to manufacturer's

instructions. The conversion of RNA to dsDNA was done with NEBNext RNA first strand

(NEB, #E7525S) and second strand (NEB, E6111S) kits. The converted dsDNA was

used to prepare NGS libraries similar to ChIP-seq (Kapa Biosystem, #KK8500).

1000

The sequencing and bioinformatic analysis was performed by the Genome Technology

Access Center at the McDonnell Genome Institute. The samples were sequenced on an

Illumina HiSeq 3000 with 50 nt reads to a mean depth of 34.5 million reads and then

aligned back to the Ensembl Release 76 *C. elegans* genome with STAR version 2.0.4b

[84]. Gene counts were then quantitated with Subread:featureCount version 1.4.5 [85].

The gene counts were then TMM scaled with EdgeR [86] and voomWithQualityWeights

[87] transformed with Limma [88]. A Limma generalized linear model without intercept

was then fitted to the data and tested for statistical significance via Limma's empirical

Bayes moderated t-statistics. The genes were considered to be activated by GLP-1 if

the following three criteria were met: (1) its expression in GLP-1 ON gonads was at

least 2.0 fold compared to GLP-1 OFF gonads. (2) the Benjamini-Hochberg false

discovery rate (FDR) is less than 0.05 and (3) the gene expression level as determined

by Counts Per Million (CPM) must be greater than 2.0. The same criteria were applied

to obtain the gene list for either activated or repressed by LAG-1 in the time course

RNA-seq analysis. Gene list comparisons and Venn diagrams preparation were both

conducted in R.

1017

Immunoblot analysis

The immunobloting was performed as described [78]. Immunoblot was used to

determine the efficiency of different commercial antibodies in pull-down of LAG-1 in

ChIP conditions (**S4 Fig**). After ChIP experiments, the protein DNA complexes were

eluted in 1x SDS sample buffer by heating at 95°C for 5 mins. The eluted samples were

run on 10 % SDS-PAGE gel, then transferred to PVDF membrane. To detect LAG-1

after ChIP, FLAG antibody (Sigma, F1804) was used at 1:1250 dilution. The detection

of signal was achieved with HRP-conjugated anti-mouse secondary antibody (Jackson

Immunoresearch, #115-035-146).

1027

qRT-PCR analysis

For analysis of mRNA abundance in tumorous germline of relevant genotypes (**Fig 5,**

7), total mRNA was isolated from dissected gonads with Trizol (Invitrogen, #15596026)

following manufacturer's protocol. The RNA was then DNase treated before cDNA

synthesis with Superscript III (Invitrogen, #18080051). The cDNAs were usually diluted

five fold prior to qPCR analysis. For analysis of DNA enrichment after ChIP

experiments, the DNA concentration was determined and the same amount of DNA was

used for each qPCR reaction. iTaq Universal SYBR Green Supermix (Biorad,

#1725121) and CFX96 Real time System (Biorad) were used for qPCR analysis. The

delta Ct method was used to calculate the relative mRNA abundance compare to the

ama-1 control [89]. The primers used for qPCR analysis are listed in **S2 Table**.

1039

Data processing and statistical analysis

Data stored as either text or csv files, were imported into an R programming

environment, and graphs were plotted using the ggplot2 package (http://ggplot2.org).

The significance bars were generated using the ggsignif package (https://CRAN.R-

project.org/package=ggsignif) in R. Statistical significance was determined using either

two-tailed Student's t-test (for n < 30) or Z-test (for n ≥ 30).

1046

Acknowledgments

We thank our colleagues in worm community for unpublished alleles: Iva Greenwald,

Columbia University, *lag-1(ar611);* William Kelly, Emory University, *ckSi11*. We also

thank Julie Ni and Sam Gu for their help in the initial phases of ChIP-seq analysis and

our colleagues Mike Nonet, Jane Hubbard, Iva Greenwald, Dave Hansen, David

Greenstein, Jordan Ward, and Dan Dickenson for helpful advice and discussions. We

thank WormBase, funded by the National Human Genome Research Institute; the

Caenorhabditis Genetics Center, funded by National Institutes of Health Office of

Research Infrastructure Programs; and Shohei Mitani and the Japanese National

Bioresource Project for strains. This work was supported by National Institutes of Health

R01 GM-100756 to T.S.

1058

References

1.   Morrison SJ, Kimble J. Asymmetric and symmetric stem-cell divisions in

development and cancer. Nature. 2006. pp. 1068–1074. doi:10.1038/nature04956

2.   Morrison SJ, Spradling AC. Stem Cells and Niches: Mechanisms That Promote

Stem Cell Maintenance throughout Life. Cell. 2008. pp. 598–611.

doi:10.1016/j.cell.2008.01.038

3.   Simons BD, Clevers H. Strategies for homeostatic stem cell self-renewal in adult

tissues. Cell. 2011. pp. 851–862. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2011.05.033

4.   Hubbard EJA, Schedl T. Biology of the Caenorhabditis elegans Germline Stem

Cell System. Genetics. 2019;213: 1145–1188.

doi:doi.org/10.1534/genetics.119.300238

5.   Greenwald I, Kovall R. Notch signaling: genetics and structure. WormBook : the

online review of C. elegans biology. 2013. pp. 1–28.

doi:10.1895/wormbook.1.10.2

6.   Kimble J, Crittenden SL. Germline proliferation and its control. WormBook : the

online review of C. elegans biology. 2005. pp. 1–14.

doi:10.1895/wormbook.1.13.1

7.   Kimble J, Seidel H. C. elegans germline stem cells and their niche. StemBook.

2013. Available: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24354021

8.   Henderson ST, Gao D, Lambie EJ, Kimble J. lag-2 may encode a signaling ligand

for the GLP-1 and LIN-12 receptors of C. elegans. Development. 1994;120:

2913–2924.

9.   Tax FE, Thomas JH. Cell-Cell Interactions: Receiving signals in the nematode

embryo. Curr Biol. 1994;4: 914–916. doi:10.1016/S0960-9822(00)00203-7

10.   Nadarajan S, Govindan JA, McGovern M, Hubbard EJA, Greenstein D. MSP and

GLP-1/Notch signaling coordinately regulate actomyosin-dependent cytoplasmic

streaming and oocyte growth in C. elegans. Development. 2009;136: 2223–2234.

doi:10.1242/dev.034603

11.   Lambie EJ, Kimble J. Two homologous regulatory genes, lin-12 and glp-1, have

overlapping functions. Development. 1991;112: 231–240.

12.   Austin J, Kimble J. glp-1 Is required in the germ line for regulation of the decision

between mitosis and meiosis in C. elegans. Cell. 1987;51: 589–599.

doi:10.1016/0092-8674(87)90128-0

13.   Crittenden SL, Troemel ER, Evans TC, Kimble J. GLP-1 is localized to the mitotic

region of the C. elegans germ line. Development. 1994;120: 2901–2911.

14.   Berry LW, Westlund B, Schedl T. Germ-line tumor formation caused by activation

of glp-1, a Caenorhabditis elegans member of the Notch family of receptors.

Development. 1997;124: 925–936.

15.   Pepper ASR, Killian DJ, Hubbard EJA. Genetic analysis of Caenorhabditis

elegans glp-1 mutants suggests receptor interaction or competition. Genetics.

2003;163: 115–132.

16.   Sternberg PW. Vulval development. WormBook : the online review of C. elegans

biology. 2005. pp. 1–28. doi:10.1895/wormbook.1.6.1

17.   Christensen S, Kodoyianni V, Bosenberg M, Friedman L, Kimble J. lag-1, a gene

required for lin-12 and glp-1 signaling in Caenorhabditis elegans, is homologous

to human CBF1 and Drosophila Su(H). Development. 1996;122: 1373–1383.

18.   Qiao L, Lissemore JL, Shu P, Smardon A, Gelber MB, Maine EM. Enhancers of

glp-1, a gene required for cell-signaling in Caenorhabditis elegans, define a set of

genes required for germline development. Genetics. 1995;141: 551–569.

19.   Brou C, Logeat F, Lecourtois M, Vandekerckhove J, Kourilsky P, Schweisguth F,

et al. Inhibition of the DNA-binding activity of Drosophila suppressor of hairless

and of its human homolog, KBF2/RBP-Jκ, by direct protein-protein interaction with

Drosophila hairless. Genes Dev. 1994;8: 2491–2503. doi:10.1101/gad.8.20.2491

20.   Tun T, Hamaguchi Y, Matsunami N, Furukawa T, Honjo T, Kawaichi M.

Recognition sequence of a highly conserved DNA binding protein RBP-Jx.

Nucleic Acids Res. 1994;22: 965–971. doi:10.1093/nar/22.6.965

21.   Kershner AM, Shin H, Hansen TJ, Kimble J. Discovery of two GLP-1/Notch target

genes that account for the role of GLP-1/Notch signaling in stem cell

maintenance. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2014;111: 3739–3744.

doi:10.1073/pnas.1401861111

22.   Lee CH, Sorensen EB, Lynch TR, Kimble J. C. elegans GLP-1/Notch activates

transcription in a probability gradient across the germline stem cell pool. Elife.

2016;5. doi:10.7554/eLife.18370

23.   Shin H, Haupt KA, Kershner AM, Kroll-Conner P, Wickens M, Kimble J. SYGL-1

and LST-1 link niche signaling to PUF RNA repression for stem cell maintenance

in Caenorhabditis elegans. PLoS Genet. 2017;13.

doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1007121

24.   Yoo AS, Bais C, Greenwald I. Crosstalk between the EGFR and LIN-12/Notch

Pathways in C. elegans Vulval Development. Science (80-). 2004;303: 663–666.

doi:10.1126/science.1091639

25. Crittenden SL, Bernstein DS, Bachorik JL, Thompson BE, Gallegos M, Petcherski

AG, et al. A conserved RNA-binding protein controls germline stem cells in

Caenorhabditis elegans. Nature. 2002;417: 660–663. doi:10.1038/nature754

26. Suh N, Crittenden SL, Goldstrohm A, Hook B, Thompson B, Wickens M, et al.

FBF and its dual control of gld-1 expression in the Caenorhabditis elegans

germline. Genetics. 2009;181: 1249–1260. doi:10.1534/genetics.108.099440

27. Voronina E, Paix A, Seydoux G. The P granule component PGL-1 promotes the

localization and silencing activity of the PUF protein FBF-2 in germline stem cells.

Dev. 2012;139: 3732–3740. doi:10.1242/dev.083980

28. Haupt KA, Enright AL, Ferdous AS, Kershner AM, Shin H, Wickens M, et al. The

molecular basis of LST-1 self-renewal activity and its control of stem cell pool

size. Dev. 2019;146. doi:10.1242/dev.181644

29. Kershner AM, Kimble J. Genome-wide analysis of mRNA targets for

Caenorhabditis elegans FBF, a conserved stem cell regulator. Proc Natl Acad Sci

U S A. 2010;107: 3936–3941. doi:10.1073/pnas.1000495107

30. Lamont LB, Crittenden SL, Bernstein D, Wickens M, Kimble J. FBF-1 and FBF-2

regulate the size of the mitotic region in the C. elegans germline. Dev Cell.

2004;7: 697–707. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2004.09.013

31. Lee MH, Hook B, Lamont LB, Wickens M, Kimble J. LIP-1 phosphatase controls

the extent of germline proliferation in Caenorhabditis elegans. EMBO J. 2006;25:

88–96. doi:10.1038/sj.emboj.7600901

32. Seelk S, Adrian-Kalchhauser I, Hargitai B, Hajduskova M, Gutnik S, Tursun B, et

al. Increasing notch signaling antagonizes PRC2-mediated silencing to promote

reprograming of germ cells into neurons. Elife. 2016;5.

doi:10.7554/eLife.15477.001

33. Hansen D, Hubbard EJA, Schedl T. Multi-pathway control of the proliferation

versus meiotic development decision in the Caenorhabditis elegans germline. Dev

Biol. 2004;268: 342–357. doi:10.1016/j.ydbio.2003.12.023

34. Priess JR, Schnabel H, Schnabel R. The glp-1 locus and cellular interactions in

early C. elegans embryos. Cell. 1987;51: 601–611. doi:10.1016/0092-

8674(87)90129-2

35. Priess JR. Notch signaling in the C. elegans embryo. WormBook : the online

review of C. elegans biology. 2005. pp. 1–16. doi:10.1895/wormbook.1.4.1

36. Ellis R, Schedl T. Sex determination in the germ line. WormBook : the online

review of C. elegans biology. 2007. pp. 1–13. doi:10.1895/wormbook.1.82.1

37. Zhang L, Ward JD, Cheng Z, Dernburg AF. The auxin-inducible degradation (AID)

system enables versatile conditional protein depletion in C. elegans.

Development. 2015;142: 4374–4384. doi:10.1242/dev.129635

38. Fox PM, Vought VE, Hanazawa M, Lee MH, Maine EM, Sched T. Cyclin e and

CDK-2 regulate proliferative cell fate and cell cycle progression in the C. elegans

germline. Development. 2011;138: 2223–2234. doi:10.1242/dev.059535

39. Zetka MC, Kawasaki I, Strome S, Müller F. Synapsis and chiasma formation in

Caenorhabditis elegans require HIM-3, a meiotic chromosome core component that functions in chromosome segregation. Genes Dev. 1999;13: 2258–2270. doi:10.1101/gad.13.17.2258

40. Hansen D, Wilson-Berry L, Dang T, Schedl T. Control of the proliferation versus meiotic development decision in the C. elegans germline through regulation of GLD-1 protein accumulation. Development. 2004;131: 93–104. doi:10.1242/dev.00916

41. Fox PM, Schedl T. Analysis of germline stem cell differentiation following loss of GLP-1 notch activity in Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics. 2015;201: 167–184. doi:10.1534/genetics.115.178061

42. Lee CH, Shin H, Kimble J. Dynamics of Notch-Dependent Transcriptional Bursting in Its Native Context. Dev Cell. 2019;50: 426-435.e4. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2019.07.001

43. Spike CA, Coetzee D, Eichten C, Wang X, Hansen D, Greenstein D. The TRIM-NHL protein LIN-41 and the OMA RNA-binding proteins antagonistically control the prophase-to-metaphase transition and growth of caenorhabditis elegans oocytes. Genetics. 2014;198: 1535–1558. doi:10.1534/genetics.114.168831

44. Jungkamp AC, Stoeckius M, Mecenas D, Grün D, Mastrobuoni G, Kempa S, et al. In vivo and transcriptome-wide identification of RNA binding protein target sites. Mol Cell. 2011;44: 828–840. doi:10.1016/j.molcel.2011.11.009

45. Wright JE, Gaidatzis D, Senften M, Farley BM, Westhof E, Ryder SP, et al. A quantitative RNA code for mRNA target selection by the germline fate determinant

GLD-1. EMBO J. 2011;30: 533–545. doi:10.1038/emboj.2010.334

46.   Heinz S, Benner C, Spann N, Bertolino E, Lin YC, Laslo P, et al. Simple

Combinations of Lineage-Determining Transcription Factors Prime cis-Regulatory

Elements Required for Macrophage and B Cell Identities. Mol Cell. 2010;38: 576–

589. doi:10.1016/j.molcel.2010.05.004

47.   Yoo AS, Greenwald I. Developmental biology: LIN-12/notch activation leads to

microRNA-mediated down-regulation of Vav in C. elegans. Science (80-).

2005;310: 1330–1333. doi:10.1126/science.1119481

48.   Gerstein MB, Lu ZJ, Van Nostrand EL, Cheng C, Arshinoff BI, Liu T, et al.

Integrative analysis of the Caenorhabditis elegans genome by the modENCODE

project. Science (80-). 2010;330: 1775–1787. doi:10.1126/science.1196914

49.   Van Nostrand EL, Kim SK. Integrative analysis of C. elegans modENCODE ChIP-

seq data sets to infer gene regulatory interactions. Genome Res. 2013;23: 941–

953. doi:10.1101/gr.152876.112

50.   Choi VN, Park SK, Hwang BJ. Clustered LAG-1 binding sites in lag-1/CSL are

involved in regulating lag-1 expression during lin-12/Notch-dependent cell-fate

specification. BMB Rep. 2013;46: 219–224. doi:10.5483/BMBRep.2013.46.4.269

51.   Berset T, Hoier EF, Battu G, Canevascini S, Hajnal A. Notch inhibition of RAS

signaling through MAP kinase phosphatase LIP-1 during C. elegans vulval

development. Science (80-). 2001;291: 1055–1058.

doi:10.1126/science.1055642

52.   Neves A, Priess JR. The REF-1 family of bHLH transcription factors pattern C.

elegans embryos through Notch-dependent and Notch-independent pathways.

Dev Cell. 2005;8: 867–879. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2005.03.012

53.   Cronan JE. Biotination of proteins in vivo. A post-translational modification to

label, purify, and study proteins. J Biol Chem. 1990;265: 10327–10333.

54.   Ooi SL, Henikoff JG, Henikoff S. A native chromatin purification system for

epigenomic profiling in Caenorhabditis elegans. Nucleic Acids Res. 2009;38.

doi:10.1093/nar/gkp1090

55.   Watts JS, Morton DG, Kemphues KJ, Watts JL. The biotin-ligating protein BPL-1

is critical for lipid biosynthesis and polarization of the Caenorhabditis elegans

embryo. J Biol Chem. 2018;293: 610–622. doi:10.1074/jbc.M117.798553

56.   Wang X, Olson JR, Rasoloson D, Ellenbecker M, Bailey J, Voronina E. Dynein

light chain DLC-1 promotes localization and function of the PUF protein FBF-2 in

germline progenitor cells. Dev. 2016;143: 4643–4653. doi:10.1242/dev.140921

57.   Bray SJ. Notch signalling: A simple pathway becomes complex. Nature Reviews

Molecular Cell Biology. 2006. pp. 678–689. doi:10.1038/nrm2009

58.   Bray SJ. Notch signalling in context. Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology.

2016. pp. 722–735. doi:10.1038/nrm.2016.94

59.   Lenstra TL, Holstege FCP. The discrepancy between chromatin factor location

and effect. Nucl (United States). 2012;3. doi:10.4161/nucl.19513

60.   Cusanovich DA, Pavlovic B, Pritchard JK, Gilad Y. The Functional Consequences

of Variation in Transcription Factor Binding. PLoS Genet. 2014;10.

doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1004226

61.   Merritt C, Seydoux G. Transgenic solutions for the germline. WormBook. 2010; 1–

1238   21. doi:10.1895/wormbook.1.148.1

1239   62.   Merritt C, Rasoloson D, Ko D, Seydoux G. 3′ UTRs Are the Primary Regulators of

1240   Gene Expression in the C. elegans Germline. Curr Biol. 2008;18: 1476–1482.

1241   doi:10.1016/j.cub.2008.08.013

1242   63.   Brenner S. The genetics of Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics. 1974;77: 71–94.

1243   64.   Arribere JA, Bell RT, Fu BXH, Artiles KL, Hartman PS, Fire AZ. Efficient marker-

1244   free recovery of custom genetic modifications with CRISPR/Cas9 in

1245   caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics. 2014;198: 837–846.

1246   doi:10.1534/genetics.114.169730

1247   65.   Paix A, Folkmann A, Rasoloson D, Seydoux G. High efficiency, homology-

1248   directed genome editing in Caenorhabditis elegans using CRISPR-

1249   Cas9ribonucleoprotein complexes. Genetics. 2015;201: 47–54.

1250   doi:10.1534/genetics.115.179382

1251   66.   Ward JD. Rapid and precise engineering of the caenorhabditis elegans genome

1252   with lethal mutation co-conversion and inactivation of NHEJ repair. Genetics.

1253   2014;199: 363–377. doi:10.1534/genetics.114.172361

1254   67.   Dickinson DJ, Pani AM, Heppert JK, Higgins CD, Goldstein B. Streamlined

1255   genome engineering with a self-excising drug selection cassette. Genetics.

1256   2015;200: 1035–1049. doi:10.1534/genetics.115.178335

1257   68.   Schwartz ML, Jorgensen EM. SapTrap, a toolkit for high-throughput

1258   CRISPR/Cas9 gene modification in Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics. 2016;202:

1277–1288. doi:10.1534/genetics.115.184275

69.   Sharan SK, Thomason LC, Kuznetsov SG, Court DL. Recombineering: A

homologous recombination-based method of genetic engineering. Nat Protoc.

2009;4: 206–223. doi:10.1038/nprot.2008.227

70.   Frøkjær-Jensen C, Davis MW, Ailion M, Jorgensen EM. Improved Mos1-mediated

transgenesis in C. elegans. Nature Methods. 2012. pp. 117–118.

doi:10.1038/nmeth.1865

71.   Kasimatis KR, Moerdyk-Schauwecker MJ, Phillips PC. Auxin-mediated sterility

induction system for longevity and mating studies in Caenorhabditis elegans. G3

Genes, Genomes, Genet. 2018;8: 2655–2662. doi:10.1534/g3.118.200278

72.   Brenner JL, Schedl T. Germline stem cell differentiation entails regional control of

cell fate regulator GLD-1 in Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics. 2016;202: 1085–

1103. doi:10.1534/genetics.115.185678

73.   Mohammad A, Vanden Broek K, Wang C, Daryabeigi A, Jantsch V, Hansen D, et

al. Initiation of meiotic development is controlled by three post-transcriptional

pathways in caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics. 2018;209: 1197–1224.

doi:10.1534/genetics.118.300985

74.   Brodigan TM, Liu J i., Park M, Kipreos ET, Krause M. Cyclin E expression during

development in Caenorhabditis elegans. Dev Biol. 2003;254: 102–115.

doi:10.1016/S0012-1606(02)00032-5

75.   Preibisch S, Saalfeld S, Tomancak P. Globally optimal stitching of tiled 3D

microscopic image acquisitions. Bioinformatics. 2009;25: 1463–1465.

doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btp184

76.   Linkert M, Rueden CT, Allan C, Burel JM, Moore W, Patterson A, et al. Metadata

matters: Access to image data in the real world. Journal of Cell Biology.

Rockefeller University Press; 2010. pp. 777–782. doi:10.1083/jcb.201004104

77.   Schindelin J, Arganda-Carreras I, Frise E, Kaynig V, Longair M, Pietzsch T, et al.

Fiji: An open-source platform for biological-image analysis. Nature Methods.

2012. pp. 676–682. doi:10.1038/nmeth.2019

78.   Jones AR, Francis R, Schedl T. GLD-1, a cytoplasmic protein essential for oocyte

differentiation, shows stage- ans sex-specific expression during Caenorhabditis

elegans germline development. Dev Biol. 1996;180: 165–183.

doi:10.1006/dbio.1996.0293

79.   Bolte S, Cordelières FP. A guided tour into subcellular colocalization analysis in

light microscopy. Journal of Microscopy. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd (10.1111); 2006.

pp. 213–232. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2818.2006.01706.x

80.   Berkseth M, Ikegami K, Arur S, Lieb JD, Zarkower D. TRA-1 ChIP-seq reèeals

regulators of sexual differentiation and multileèel feedback in nematode sex

determination. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2013;110: 16033–16038.

doi:10.1073/pnas.1312087110

81.   Gerace E, Moazed D. Affinity Pull-Down of Proteins Using Anti-FLAG M2 Agarose

Beads. Methods in Enzymology. 2015. pp. 99–110.

doi:10.1016/bs.mie.2014.11.010

82.   Chen X, Lu L, Qian S, Scalf M, Smith LM, Zhong X. Canonical and noncanonical

actions of arabidopsis histone deacetylases in ribosomal RNA processing. Plant

Cell. 2018;30: 134–152. doi:10.1105/tpc.17.00626

83. Feng J, Liu T, Qin B, Zhang Y, Liu XS. Identifying ChIP-seq enrichment using

MACS. Nat Protoc. 2012;7: 1728–1740. doi:10.1038/nprot.2012.101

84. Dobin A, Davis CA, Schlesinger F, Drenkow J, Zaleski C, Jha S, et al. STAR:

Ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner. Bioinformatics. 2013;29: 15–21.

doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/bts635

85. Liao Y, Smyth GK, Shi W. FeatureCounts: An efficient general purpose program

for assigning sequence reads to genomic features. Bioinformatics. 2014;30: 923–

930. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btt656

86. Robinson MD, McCarthy DJ, Smyth GK. edgeR: A Bioconductor package for

differential expression analysis of digital gene expression data. Bioinformatics.

2009;26: 139–140. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btp616

87. Liu R, Holik AZ, Su S, Jansz N, Chen K, Leong HS, et al. Why weight? Modelling

sample and observational level variability improves power in RNA-seq analyses.

Nucleic Acids Res. 2015;43. doi:10.1093/nar/gkv412

88. Ritchie ME, Phipson B, Wu D, Hu Y, Law CW, Shi W, et al. Limma powers

differential expression analyses for RNA-sequencing and microarray studies.

Nucleic Acids Res. 2015;43: e47. doi:10.1093/nar/gkv007

89. Kumar S, Egan BM, Kocsisova Z, Schneider DL, Murphy JT, Diwan A, et al.

Lifespan Extension in C. elegans Caused by Bacterial Colonization of the

Intestine and Subsequent Activation of an Innate Immune Response. Dev Cell.

1326

1327

1328   **Figure legends**

1329

Figure 1. Overview of GLP-1 signaling in the distal germline of *C. elegans.* (A)

Schematic of the adult hermaphrodite distal germline. The distal end of the germline is

capped by a somatic distal tip cell (DTC). Progenitor zone cells are shown in green;

meiotic prophase cells are in red. Dashed line indicates the progenitor zone – meiotic

prophase boundary, the operationally defined point of meiotic entry [4]. GLP-1 signaling

maintains germline stem cell fate and GLP-1 mediated transcription occurs in the distal

most ~5 cell diameter (cd) of the germline [22,42]. LST-1 and SYGL-1 protein are

observed in the distal most 5 or 10 cd, respectively [23]. (B) Genetic pathway controlling

the stem cell fate vs meiotic development decision in the distal end of *C. elegans*

germline. GLP-1 signaling acts, at least in part, through transcriptional targets *lst-1* and

sygl-1 to repress the GLD-1, GLD-2 and SCF[PROM-1] meiotic entry pathways (reviewed in

[4]). GLP-1(ICD), GLP-1 intracellular domain.

1342

Figure 2. LAG-1 spatial accumulation and germline autonomous function to

promote the stem cell fate. (A) Diagrams of tagged endogenous *lag-1* alleles, *lag-*

1(oz530[lag-1::3xHA]) (top) and *lag-1(oz536oz537[lag-1::degron::3xHA])* (bottom).

Purple boxes, exons; lines, introns; pink boxes, untranslated region; yellow boxes,

3xHA; green box, degron. (B & C) Images of HA-stained (LAG-1, yellow) germlines from

dissected hermaphrodite gonads, co-stained with DAPI (cyan) for (B) 1-day adult and

(C) mid-L4 stage. (D & E) Images of (D) HA-stained (LAG-1, yellow) and (E) CYE-1

(green), HIM-3-stained (red) germlines from dissected hermaphrodites. L4 stage

animals with the following genotype *lag-1(oz536oz537[lag-1::degron::3xHA]);*

ieSi64[gld-1p::TIR1::mRuby::gld-1 3'UTR] were treated with or without auxin for 4 hours

(top two panels) or 24 hours (bottom two panels). Note that depending on the

orientation of the gonad when mounted for microscopy, two, one or zero distal sheath

cell nuclei are visible in the surface views of the germline shown in the photographs.

Asterisk, distal end; dashed lines, position of meiotic entry; solid white lines, position of

LAG-1 accumulation; red arrowhead, sheath cell nuclei; white arrows, spermatheca

nuclei. Scale bar is 10 µm.

1359

Figure 3. Post-transcriptional regulation of LAG-1 by GLP-1 signaling. (A) Images

of HA-stained (LAG-1, yellow) germlines from dissected L4 hermaphrodites of the

indicated genotype. See **S1 Table** for the complete genotypes. Asterisk, distal end;

dashed white lines, meiotic entry. Scale bar is 10 µm. (B - D) Plot of LAG-1 levels (B -

C) and comparison of LAG-1 peak accumulation (D) for indicated genotype. *lag-*

1(oz530[lag-1::3xHA]) is used for quantification. Numbers indicate mean values of LAG-

1 level for each genotype (in blue) and numbers in bracket shows the sample size.

Dots, mean (B-C) or data points (D); Error bars, mean ± SD. P-value ≤ 0.01 (*); ≤ 0.001

(**); ≤ 0.0001 (***); > 0.01 non-significant (NS.). (E) Model depicting genetic control of

peak accumulation for LAG-1 and percent contribution to peak LAG-1 accumulation.

Sixty one percent of LAG-1 peak level is attributed to GLP-1 signaling, in which GLP-1

transcriptional targets *lst-1* and *sygl-1* account for 31% of LAG-1 peak level.

1372

Figure 4. Genome-wide identification of germline-specific LAG-1 targets by

sequential ChIP-seq. (A) Schematic showing germline specifically expressed BirA (in

green) biotinylating LAG-1 containing the BioTag. The strain harbored two transgenes,

i) *ckSi11[pie-1p::BirA::gfp],* where biotin ligase BirA was driven by germline specific

promoter *pie-1,* and ii) *ozIs43[lag-1p::lag-1::3xFLAG::BioTag]*, see **S1 Table.** (B) The

workflow of sequential ChIP-seq. Direct ChIP was not feasible due to the interference

by high levels of endogeneous biotinylated proteins [54,55] Sequential ChIP-seq was

developed to overcome this issue and to facilitate DNA library preparation from ultra-low

amount of DNA. (C) Genome browser tracks for *sygl-1, lst-1* and *mir-61/250* after

sequential ChIP-seq. The raw reads were normalized to the control, and the signals are

presented as log2-fold change after normalization. Black arrows, canonical LAG-1/CSL

binding motif GTGGGAA [17,19,20]. (D) Venn diagram showing 137 genes were

overlapped from three biological replicates of germline LAG-1 ChIP-seq analyses. Rep,

replicate. (E) The over-represented motif discovered by HOMER suite with germline

specific ChIP-seq data (top) and the reported canonical LAG-1/CSL binding motif

(bottom) [17,19,20]. See **S4 Table.**

1389

Figure 5. Genome-wide identification of GLP-1-dependent genes by

transcriptomic analysis. (A) Schematic showing harvesting of dissected gonads, with

tumorous germlines, for either qRT-PCR analysis or transcriptomic analysis. The

genotype for **GLP-1 ON** animal (green) is *gld-2(q497) gld-1(q485); glp-1(ar202)* and

GLP-1 OFF (red) animal is *gld-2(q497) gld-1(q485); glp-1(q175).* (B) *In situ*

hybridization (ISH) used to detect *sygl-1* mRNA expression in GLP-1 ON and GLP-1

OFF young adult animals. Dotted lines showing boundary of the gonad. Black arrow

indicates distal end of the germline. (C) *sygl-1* and *lst-1* transcript levels analysis via

qRT-PCR. The expression level for each gene in the GLP-1 OFF background was set

as one. Three biological replicates were conducted and two tailed t-test was used for

statistical analysis. P-value ≤ 0.01 (*); ≤ 0.001 (**). (D) Venn diagram identifying GLP-1

transcriptional targets through integrative genome-wide approach. Five biological

replicates were used to conduct transcriptomic analysis and identified 94 GLP-1-

dependent genes (blue circle). Two GLP-1 transcriptional targets were defined as genes

whose mRNA expression was controlled by GLP-1 and also had LAG-1 bound to their

promoter regions (red circle, data from **Fig 4D**). See **S5 Table**.

1406

Figure 6. FBF-2 accumulation is post-transcriptionally controlled by GLP-1

transcriptional targets LST-1 and SYGL-1. (A) Images of V5-stained (FBF-2, green,

from *fbf-2(q932[3xV5::fbf-2])* germlines from dissected young adult hermaphrodites of

the indicated genotype. See **S1 Table** for the complete genotypes. Asterisk, distal end;

dashed white line, meiotic entry. Scale bar is 10 µm. (B - D) Plot of FBF-2 levels (B - C)

and comparison of peak FBF-2 accumulation (D) for indicated genotype. Numbers

indicate mean values of FBF-2 level for each genotype (in blue) and numbers in bracket

shows the sample size. Dots, mean (B-C) or data points (D); Error bars, mean ± SD. P-

value ≤ 0.01 (*); ≤ 0.001 (**); ≤ 0.0001 (***); > 0.01 non-significant (NS.). (E) Model

depicting genetic control of FBF-2 peak levels and percent contribution to peak FBF-2

accumulation. Total of 85% of FBF-2 peak level can be attributed to GLP-1 signaling

through GLP-1 transcriptional targets *lst-1* and *sygl-1*.

1419

Figure 7. Time-course transcriptomic analysis to identify LAG-1-dependent genes

in the germline. (A) Schematic showing time-course qRT-PCR and transcriptomic

analysis following germline-specific degradation of LAG-1. This strain harbors germline-

expressed TIR1, an ubqiutin E3 ligase that drives degron containing target protein

degradation through proteolysis in the presence of co-factor auxin [37]. The CRISPR

allele *lag-1(oz536oz537)* has degron fused to the C-terminus of LAG-1, which is

recognized by TIR1, resulting in germline-specific degradation of LAG-1. The complete

genotype for this strain is *gld-2(q497) gld-1(q485); glp-1(ar202); lag-1(oz536oz537[lag-*

1::degron::3xHA]); ieSi64[gld-1p::TIR1::mRuby::gld-1 3'UTR]. Isolated gonads, after

dissection, are used to quantify the abundance of RNAs, either through qRT-PCR or

transciptomic analysis. (B & C) Quantification of two GLP-1/LAG-1 targets *sygl-1* and

lst-1 mRNA abundance after auxin treatment at different time points. Three biological

replicates were conducted and two-tailed t-test was used for statistical analysis. P-value

≤ 0.01 (*); ≤ 0.001 (**); ≤ 0.0001 (***); > 0.01 non-significant (NS.). (D) Venn diagram

showing genes whose RNA expression is dependent on LAG-1 at the various time

points through transcriptomic analysis. Genes observed at an earlier time are also

dependent at later time point(s), but not shown for simplicity. The presented genes were

also controlled by GLP-1. Four biological replicates were conducted for each time point.

(E) Expression of 5 genes was reduced after 4 hrs auxin treatment, in addition to *lst-1*

and *sgyl-1* (identified at 2 hrs auxin treatment). Shown are the genes' relative fold

reduction in both GLP-1 OFF and LAG-1 OFF (via 4 hrs auxin treatment) from

transcriptomic analysis. (F) qRT-PCR analysis for genes expression level from (E) in

different mutant backgrounds. The genotypes are, **GLP-1 ON**: *gld-2(q497) gld-1(q485);*

glp-1(ar202). **GLP-1 OFF**: *gld-2(q497) gld-1(q485); glp-1(q175)*. **GLP-1 ON LST-1**

SYGL-1 OFF: *gld-2(q497) gld-1(q485) lst-1(ok814) sygl-1(tm5040); glp-1(ar202)*. Five

biological replicates were conducted for each genotype and two-tailed t-test was used

for statistical analysis. P-value ≤ 0.01 (*); ≤ 0.001 (**); ≤ 0.0001 (***); > 0.01 non-

significant (NS.). (G) Model depicting genetic control of RNA accumulation for genes

from (F). See **S6-7 Tables**.

1449

Supplemental figure 1. Characterization of epitope-tagged *lag-1* alleles. (A & B)

The dead eggs and L1 arrest frequency (A) and progenitor zone length (B) in WT, *lag-*

1(oz530[lag-1::3xHA]) and *lag-1(oz536oz537[lag-1::degron::3xHA])*. (B) Graph showing

progenitor zone length, in cell diameters, between the distal tip of the germline and the

row of cells at proximal end of the continuous zone of WAPL-1 staining for L4

hermaphrodites of indicated genotype. Data are plotted as horizontal dot plots with each

dot representing length in cell diameter to zone end for one gonad. Numbers in bracket

shows the sample size. Thick vertical lines represent mean and horizontal lines

represent mean ± SD. P-value ≤ 0.01 (*); ≤ 0.001 (**); ≤ 0.0001 (***); > 0.01 non-

significant (NS.). (C) Progenitor zone length and premature meiotic entry of progenitor

zone cells (Glp) phenotype after L4 stage animals were treated with or without auxin for

either 4 hrs or 24 hrs (in Fig 2D & E). The genotype for auxin treatment was *lag-*

1(oz536oz537[lag-1::degron::3xHA]); ieSi64[gld-1p::TIR1::mRuby::gld-1 3'UTR]. The

lag-1::3xHA and *lag-1::degron::3xHA* strains appears phenotypically wild type; we did

not observe phenotypes associated with *lag-1* loss of function [11,18], including loss of

glp-1 - embryonic lethality or a smaller progenitor zone due to stem cells undergoing

spatially premature meiotic entry, loss of *lin-12* - egg-laying/vulva defects, or loss of

both *lin-12* and *glp-1* - Lag larval arrest.

1468

Supplemental figure 2. *lag-1* mRNA expression analysis by smFISH. (A) Z project

of one nucleus thick (see **Materials and Methods**) distal germlines of L4

hermaphrodites, probed for LAG-1 transcripts using smFISH (white) and DAPI (blue).

Asterisk, distal end; Scale bar, 10 μm. (B & C) Density plot of *lag-1* mRNA foci for

indicated genotype. Numbers in bracket shows the sample size. Additionally, there was

no difference in *lag-1* mRNA level from GLP-1 ON versus GLP-1 OFF transcriptomics

analysis.

1476

Supplemental figure 3. LAG-1 levels analysis. (A - B) Plot of LAG-1 levels (A) and

comparison of LAG-1 base (B) for indicated genotype. *lag-1(oz530[lag-1::3xHA])* was

used for quantification; See **S1 Table** for the complete genotypes. Numbers indicate

mean values of LAG-1 level for each genotype and numbers in bracket shows the

sample size. Dots, mean (A) or data points (B); Error bars, mean ± SD. P-value ≤ 0.01

(*); ≤ 0.001 (**); ≤ 0.0001 (***); > 0.01 non-significant (NS.).

1483

Supplemental figure 4. Genome-wide identification for LAG-1 targets in whole

animal by ChIP-seq analysis. (A) Diagram of *lag-1* allele at endogenous locus, *lag-*

1(ar611[lag-1::gfp::3xFLAG]) (gift from Iva Greenwald), used for whole worm ChIP-seq

analysis. (B) Different antibodies were tested to determine if they are competent for

ChIP. Same amount of extracts were used for each ChIP experiment, followed by

western blot analysis with FLAG antibody. Bottom band detects the heavy chain of

antibodies. FLAG antibody from Sigma and GFP antibody from Rockland were selected

for the analysis below. (C) ChIP-qPCR analysis for *sygl-1* and *lst-1* promoter regions

bound by LAG-1. A non-peak region in the *xol-1* promoter was used as a negative

control (ctr) and set as 1. *** for $p<0.0001$. Error bars, mean ± SD. (D) Genome browser

tracks showing 10 kb genomic region for *sygl-1*, *lst-1 and mir-61/250,* 40 kb genomic

region for *lag-1*, and 20 kb genomic region for *glp-1 and lin-12* after ChIP-seq. Raw

reads were normalized to control, and signal intensity were presented as log2 fold

change. Black arrow heads, canonical LAG-1/CSL binding motif GTGGGAA [17,19,20].

(E) Venn diagram showing the overlapping genes identified through FLAG antibody and

GFP antibody ChIP-seq analysis. Both data lists were filtered for more than 2-fold

change of signal (ChIP/control) with a moderate False Discovery Rate (FDR<0.05). (F &

G) Protein coding vs. non-coding distribution (F) and chromosome position (G) of 75

genes from E. The overly represented motif discovered by HOMER suite with the ChIP-

seq data (top) and the canonical LAG-1/CSL binding sequence [17,19,20](bottom). See

S3 Table.

1505

Supplemental figure 5. Supplemental information for genome-wide identification of germline LAG-1 targets. (A) Diagram of *lag-1(ozIs43[lag-1p::lag-1::3xFLAG::BioTag::lag-1 3'UTR])* fosmid transgene. 3xFLAG and BioTag sequence were inserted into a fosmid that contains native regulatory sequence for *lag-1* gene. *lag-1(ozIs43)* was able to rescue *lag-1* deletion allele *tm3052*. (B) Genome browser tracks showing *sygl-1* and other four putative germline GLP-1/LAG-1 transcriptional targets from literature: 10 kb genomic region for *sygl-1* (this study, [21]), *fbf-2* [30] *and lip-1* [31]*, 20 kb genomic region for *utx-1* [32] and *glp-1* [17]. Raw reads were normalized to control, and the signal intensity were presented as log2 fold change. Black arrow heads, canonical LAG-1/CSL binding motif GTGGGAA [17,19,20]. Red arrow heads, LAG-1 binding site (LBS) from original references where LAG-1 was suggested to bind. (C & D) Protein coding/ non-coding distribution (C) and chromosome position (D) of 137 genes from **Fig 4D**. (E) Venn diagram showing the overlapping genes from germline and whole worm ChIP-seq analysis of LAG-1. See **S4 Table**.

Supplemental figure 6. Supplemental information for transcriptomic analysis to identify GLP-1-dependent genes. (A) *In situ* hybridization used to determine *lst-1* mRNA expression in young adult animals. The genotypes are, **GLP-1 ON**: *gld-2(q497) gld-1(q485); glp-1(ar202)* and **GLP-1 OFF**: *gld-2(q497) gld-1(q485); glp-1(q175)*. Dotted lines outline the boundary of the gonad. Black arrow indicates the distal tip of the gonad. (B & C) Heatmap (B) and principle component analysis (PCA) (C) were generated using the top 500 genes with the most significant p-value from differential gene expression analysis.

1529

Supplemental figure 7. FBF-2 accumulation analysis. (A - B) Plot of FBF-2 levels (A)

and comparison for FBF-2 base (B) for indicated genotype. *fbf-2(q932[3xV5::fbf-2])* is

used for quantification. See **S1 Table** for the complete genotypes. Numbers indicate

mean values of FBF-2 level for each genotype and numbers in bracket shows the

sample size. Dots, mean (A) or data points (B); Error bars, mean ± SD. P-value ≤ 0.01

(*); ≤ 0.001 (**); ≤ 0.0001 (***); > 0.01 non-significant (NS.).

1536

Supplemental figure 8. Time-course transcriptomic analysis upon LAG-1

degradation in germline. (A & B) Heatmap (A) and principle component analysis

(PCA) (B) for top 500 genes with most significant p-values, with the differential gene

expression analysis done between animals treated with or without auxin for 48 hours. (C

& D) The differentially-expressed genes upon auxin treatment for 48 hours were

compared to the differentially-expressed genes in GLP-1 ON vs. OFF to identify

the overlapping genes activated (C) or repressed (D) by both LAG-1 and GLP-1. (E & F)

The differentially-expressed genes upon auxin treatment for 48 hours were compared to

putative LAG-1 targets through LAG-1 germline ChIP-seq analysis to determine the

LAG-1 transcriptional targets (E) and if LAG-1 can repress gene expression (F). (G)

Multiple dimensional scaling analyses showing the similarities of the RNA-seq samples

conducted in this study. Five biological replicates each were conducted for GLP-1 ON

(in blues circle) and GLP-1 OFF (in pink circle). Four biological replicates were

conducted for time course RNA-seq analysis following LAG-1 degradation by auxin

treatment. The 48-hour auxin treated samples were grouped in yellow circle. For the

1552   shorter period of treatment, 2 hours and 4 hours, the transcriptomic profile are similar to

1553   the untreated samples and were grouped in the black circle. See **S6-7 Tables**.

1554

Supplemental figure 9. Time-course auxin treatment to degrade LAG-1. (A & B)

Representative images of anti-HA-stained (LAG-1, yellow, left panels) and WAPL-1-

stained (pink, right panels) after L4 stage animals were treated with or without auxin for

2 hours (A) or 4 hours (B) at 25°C. Asterisks, distal end of germline. Yellow arrowheads,

LAG-1 accumulation in the sheath cells, pink arrowheads, WAPL-1 accumulation in

sheath cells. (C & D) Graph showing distance, in cell diameters, between the distal end

of the germline and the row of cells at proximal end of the continuous zone of WAPL-1

staining for auxin-treated hermaphrodites. Data are plotted as horizontal dot plots with

each dot representing length in cell diameter to zone end for one gonad. Numbers in

bracket shows the sample size. Thick vertical lines represent mean and horizontal lines

represent mean ± SD. P-value ≤ 0.01 (*); ≤ 0.001 (**); ≤ 0.0001 (***); > 0.01 non-

significant (NS.).

1567

Supplemental figure 10. SYGL-1 and LST-1 accumulation analysis following 2-

hour and 4-hour auxin treatment to degrade LAG-1 protein. (A & B) Representative

images of SYGL-1 (A) and LST-1 (B) accumulation after animals were treated with or

without auxin for 4 hours. The genotype for auxin treatment are *sygl-*

1(q983[3xOLLAS::sygl-1]); lag-1(oz536oz537[lag-1::degron::3xHA]); ieSi64[gld-

1p::TIR1::mRuby::gld-1 3'UTR] (for quantification of SYGL-1 levels) and *lst-1(q1003[lst-*

1::3xOLLAS]); *lag-1(oz536oz537[lag-1::degron::3xHA]); ieSi64[gld-*

1p::TIR1::mRuby::gld-1 3'UTR] (for quantification of LST-1 levels). Note that the images,

taken at identical exposure time, were processed identically to make residual protein

visible in the auxin treated germlines, this resulted in slightly saturated signal in the

untreated germlines. (C & D) Plots of SYGL-1 (C) and LST-1 (D) levels in auxin-treated

germlines. Numbers in bracket shows the sample size. Dots, mean. Error bars, mean ±

SD. (E & F) Comparison of SYGL-1 (E) and LST-1 (F) peak levels (see C & D) in auxin-

treated germlines. Numbers indicate mean values for each genotype and numbers in

bracket shows the sample size. Dots, data points. Error bars, mean ± SD. P-value ≤

0.01 (*); ≤ 0.001 (**); ≤ 0.0001 (***); > 0.01 non-significant (NS.).

1584

S1 Table. Strains used in this study.

S2 Table. Oligonucleotides used in this study.

S3 Table. List of putative LAG-1 peak regions identified through whole worm ChIP-seq analysis.

S4 Table. List of putative LAG-1 peak region identified through germline ChIP-seq analysis.

S5 Table. List of genes activated or repressed by GLP-1.

S6 Table. List of genes activated or repressed by LAG-1, after 48 hours of auxin treatment.

S7 Table. List of genes activated or repressed by LAG-1, after 2 and 4 hours of auxin treatment.

Figure 1

A

B

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

A

ckSi11[pie-1p::BirA::gfp]

ozIs43[lag-1p::lag-1::3xflag::biotag]

BirA   biotin

LAG-1   BioTag

Sequence specific biotinylation of LAG-1

Biotinylated LAG-1
in germline

B Sequential ChIP-seq workflow:

1. ChIP with FLAG antibody

wash ↓ elute

2. Re-ChIP with streptavidin beads

wash ↓

3. DNA libraries prepared
from DNA on the beads

C

10 kb

Rep-1
Rep-2
Rep-3

sygl-1

Rep-1
Rep-2
Rep-3

lst-1

Rep-1
Rep-2
Rep-3

mir-61/250

D

Rep-3
71

35   31

Rep-1   **137**   Rep-2
311   395

E

ChIP-seq motif   p-value

GCGTGGGAAA   1$^{e\text{-}34}$

Canonical LAG-1/CSL
binding site

GTGGGAA

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Supplemental Figure 1 (S1 Fig)

A

Genotype	Dead eggs (%)	L1 arrest (%)	n
WT	0.5	0.0	803
lag-1::3xHA	0.5	0.0	2139
lag-1::degron: 3xHA	0.5	0.1	1953

B

C

Auxin (Hour)	- Auxin (4 h)	+ Auxin (4 h)	- Auxin (24 h)	+ Auxin (24 h)
WAPL-1 CD	21.9 ± 1.6	21.5 ± 1.4	19.4 ± 2.5	0
Glp (%)	0	0	0	100
n	35	26	35	30

Supplemental Figure 2 (S2 Fig)

A

B

C

Supplemental Figure 3 (S3 Fig)

A

B

Supplemental Figure 4 (S4 Fig)

Supplemental Figure 5 (S5 Fig)

A

Fosmid transgene structure

lag-1 (ozIs43)
[lag-1::3xFLAG::BioTag]

C

Protein-coding_77%

non-coding 23%

D

Chr II 12.4%

Chr III 17.5%

Chr I 14.6%

Chr IV 16.1%

Chr X 14.6%

Chr V 24.8%

E

Germline LAG-1 ChIP-seq peak annotated genes 101

Whole worm LAG-1 ChIP-seq peak annotated genes 39

Supplemental Figure 6 (S6 Fig)

Supplemental Figure 7 (S7 Fig)

A

B

Supplemental Figure 8 (S8 Fig)

Supplemental Figure 9 (S9 Fig)

Supplemental Figure 10 (S10 Fig)