The *glp-1* 3' untranslated region regulates germline proliferation and

promotes reproductive fecundity through multiple mechanisms

Peren Coskun and **Sean P. Ryder***

Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biotechnology, University of Massachusetts Chan

Medical School, Worcester, MA, USA

*Corresponding author:

Sean.Ryder@umassmed.edu; 364 Plantation Street LRB-906, Worcester, MA, 01605, USA; 508-

856-1372

Keywords: RNA-binding protein, post-transcriptional regulation, nematode, germline, reproduc-

tion, fertilization

ABSTRACT

Germline development and successful embryogenesis depend upon the post-transcriptional regulation of maternal mRNAs. In *Caenorhabditis elegans*, the Notch-like receptor *glp-1* is necessary for germline progenitor cell proliferation in adults and anterior cell fate determination in embryos. The spatiotemporal patterning of GLP-1 protein has long served as a paradigm of maternal mRNA regulation in metazoans. The *glp-1* 3'UTR has been shown to be sufficient to pattern the expression of reporter genes, and multiple regulatory regions and RNA-binding protein interaction sites have been mapped. The RNA-binding proteins POS-1 and GLD-1 directly regulate *glp-1* mRNA via sequence specific interactions with motifs found in the *glp-1* 3'UTR. The impact of mutating the endogenous *glp-1* 3'UTR has not been studied, and the mechanism by which POS-1 and GLD-1 mediate repression is not understood. Here, we investigate the post-transcriptional mechanisms that govern *glp-1* expression, revealing that GLD-1 and POS-1 regulate this pattern through different pathways requiring different co-factors. Remarkably, mutations in the endogenous locus that disrupt either POS-1 or GLD-1 binding to the *glp-1* 3'UTR have minimal impact on reproductive fecundity. By contrast, a larger deletion that eliminates the binding of both has a strong effect on brood size, hatch rate, and displays an increase in the length of the germline mitotic region that corresponds with enhanced mitotic activity. Together, our results show that multiple post-transcriptional mechanisms work in concert to ensure robust GLP-1 patterning and thus maximize reproductive outcomes.

INTRODUCTION

Female gametes are larger than their male counterparts and provide most of the cytoplasm to a newly fertilized zygote. The cytoplasm is loaded with mRNAs, proteins, and nutrients that are necessary for the zygote to progress through several rounds of cell division. In most species, early developmental decisions such as axis polarization, germline / soma segregation, and initial cell fate patterning decisions occur prior to zygotic gene activation (ZGA)—the point where zygotic transcription begins and the maternal mRNA supply is turned over [1]. As such, post-transcriptional regulatory mechanisms are thought to be crucial to regulating maternal mRNAs, ensuring that key cell fate specifying proteins are produced at the right place and time, thus enabling successful embryogenesis [2-6]. In the nematode model organism *Caenorhabditis elegans*, zygotic transcription begins at the four-cell stage in somatic lineages and after the >100 cell stage in the germline lineage [7-9]. Accordingly, several maternally supplied mRNAs have been shown to be important for early developmental decisions [10-14]. Mutations in these genes are often maternal effect lethal or maternal effect sterile [15].

In worms, the 3'UTR is the primary region that governs maternal RNA regulation in the germline [16]. Many *C. elegans* mRNAs go through a *trans* splicing reaction to add the 5' cap structure, substituting the endogenous 5' end of the transcript with one of two splice leader sequences [17]. As such, many transcripts are identical at the 5' end. Reporter transgenes that fused the 3'UTRs of several germline transcripts to a fluorescence reporter gene and a generic germline promoter shows that the 3'UTR match the pattern of the endogenous gene in nearly all cases [16]. The sole exceptions were sperm-specific genes, whose patterning is governed by their promoters [16]. In a seminal discovery, the 3'UTR of *glp-1* mRNA was shown to be sufficient for the spatiotemporal patterning of a series of injected mRNA reporters, demonstrating patterning sufficiency in the absence of transcription, and revealing the post-transcriptional basis for GLP-1 regulation [4].

The *glp-1* gene encodes a Notch protein that receives cell signaling cues to activate pro-

mitotic transcriptional programs in the distal end of the germline [18]. In germline progenitor cells,

GLP-1 receives a signal from the Delta-like ligand LAG-2, expressed on the somatic distal tip cell

[19]. This interaction drives a conformational change in GLP-1 that promotes site-specific cleav-

age inside germline progenitor cells, releasing a C-terminal domain that enters the nucleus to

promote transcription of mitotic genes, thus enabling germline progenitor cell renewal [20]. GLP-

1 also promotes anterior cell fate specification in the embryo by transmitting signals between

anterior and posterior blastomeres [18, 21]. GLP-1 is expressed in anterior lineage cells of early

embryos, where it receives a signal from a second Delta-like ligand APX-1 to promote pharyngeal

cell fate specification [5, 22, 23]. As such, the precise spatial patterning of GLP-1 is essential to

both germline proliferation and anterior development in embryos. Accordingly, a loss of function

glp-1 mutant depletes progenitor cells rapidly and becomes sterile [18]. Embryos produced from

glp-1 mutant mothers fail to form the pharynx and arrest during morphogenesis [18, 22].

Transcripts encoding *glp-1* are observed throughout the germline and in all cells of the

early embryo. By contrast, GLP-1 protein expression is restricted to the mitotic zone in the

germline and the anterior cells of early embryos [4, 24]. The expression pattern is reported to be

controlled by several RNA-binding proteins including MEX-3, OMA-1, PUF-3, PUF-5/6/7, GLD-1,

POS-1 and SPN-4 (**Fig. 1A, B**) [25-30]. In the germline, GLD-1 represses GLP-1 expression in

the meiotic zone [29], while OMA-1/2, PUF-3, MEX-3, and PUF-5/6/7 repress expression in oo-

cytes [26, 27, 31]. In the embryos, GLD-1 and POS-1 repress GLP-1 expression in early posterior

lineage cells [29]; and MEX-5/6 and SPN-4 promote GLP-1 expression in early anterior lineage

cells [30].

Precise mutational studies of the *glp-1* 3'UTR in the context of injected mRNAs or trans-

genic reporters identified specific regions and precise binding motifs that are necessary for *glp-1*

regulation (**Fig. 1C**) [4, 29, 32]. GLD-1 and POS-1, two key repressors of GLP-1 translation,

recognize partially overlapping motifs within a region of the *glp-1* 3'UTR that governs its spatial

control [29, 32]. GLD-1, a STAR/GSG/Maxi-KH domain RBP, binds to UACUC/AAY motifs (GLD-

1 binding motif: GBM) [33-36], whereas POS-1—a CCCH type zinc finger protein—recognizes

UAUUA/G(A/G/U)NNG motifs (POS-1 recognition element: PRE) [12, 37]. The motifs for both

RBPs are present in a previously mapped *glp-1* repression element (GRE) [29]. A second POS-1

binding motif is positioned in the adjacent *glp-1* derepression element (GDE), a region previously

shown to be necessary for reporter expression [29]. The physical interaction of each RBP to their

respective element has confirmed in vitro. The GLD-1 binding site partially overlaps with both

POS motifs, and *in vitro* binding studies showed the two RBPs compete for binding to this region

of the *glp-1* 3'UTR [32].

Mutagenesis studies identified specific separation of function mutations that disrupt each

binding site without perturbing binding to the other adjacent sites [32]. In transgenic reporter stud-

ies, the GLD-1 motif in the GRE and the POS-1 motif in the GDE were both required for repression

in the posterior of embryos [32]. By contrast, the 5' POS-1 motif appears to be non-functional in

the reporter [32]. Mutation of the GLD-1 motif led to elevated expression in the meiotic zone of

the adult germline, while mutation of the POS-1 motif led to reduced expression in the same

region [32]. Although the *glp-1* 3'UTR has been studied for over three decades [4], there have

been no mutational studies conducted at the endogenous locus, and the biological significance

of the *glp-1* 3'UTR to the worm reproduction has yet to be characterized.

In this study, we combine genetic and molecular approaches to assess the mechanism of

glp-1 mRNA regulation and its biological impact on reproduction, focusing on the well-character-

ized GLD-1 and POS-1 binding elements. Our data reveal that GLD-1 and POS-1 repress *glp-1*

through shortening of the polyA tail; however, our data also show that they appear to work via

different pathways requiring different co-factors. Moreover, our work shows that translational con-

trol of *glp-1* by the cap-binding factor *ife-3* is important for repression in the germline, but neither

the POS-1 nor GLD-1 binding sites contribute to this repression. Finally, our work shows that

mutation of the POS-1 or GLD-1 binding sites in the endogenous *glp-1* 3'UTR has limited impact

on reproductive fecundity in isolation, but deleting a region containing both sites has a strong

reproductive phenotype—impacting fecundity, embryonic viability, and gene expression patterns.

RESULTS

The glp-1 3'UTR isoform distribution and polyA tail length are not impacted by loss of pos-1, gld-

2, gld-3, mex-5, or mex-6 in embryos

The *glp-1* 3'UTR is necessary and sufficient to confer the GLP-1 expression pattern to a

reporter transgene [4, 16, 32]. We set out to understand how this 3'UTR governs this pattern of

expression. Transcripts can have different 3'UTRs as the consequence of alternative splicing (AS)

or alternative polyadenylation (APA) [38]. Two separate studies mapped all *C. elegans* 3'UTRs

using RNA collected from worms ranging in age from embryos to young adults [39, 40]. From

these data, the *glp-1* 3'UTR was shown to have six possible isoforms that appear to derive from

solely from APA. The UTR isoforms (A-F) range from 102 to 411 nucleotides in length (**Fig. 2A**).

Isoforms A and B lack the previously mapped GRE and GDE elements, including the GLD-1 and

POS-1 binding sites, but isoforms C to F do contain these motifs.

To evaluate the distribution of *glp-1* 3'UTR isoforms in embryo samples, we analyzed

reads corresponding to each isoform variant from published polyA-test sequencing (PAT-seq)

data [41]. This data set contains samples obtained from N2 embryos, samples collected from

embryos with *pos-1*, *gld-2*, *gld-3*, or *mex-5* RNAi treatment, as well as samples recovered from

mex-5(pk440) mutant embryos. To recover reads mapping to the *glp-1* gene from each data set,

raw sequencing data were downloaded from the NCBI sequence read archive corresponding to

Bioproject PRJNA248658. The raw data were analyzed with custom scripts (see methods) con-

taining a pattern matching algorithm to recover reads harboring each of the possible *glp-1* UTR

isoforms, as well as the corresponding polyA tail length. The data show that only isoform D is

present in embryo samples recovered from all genotypes and treatment conditions. The median

polyA tail length is 18 adenosines for all samples except *mex-5* RNAi, where the median tail length

is 20 adenosines (**Fig. 2B**). There is no statistically significant difference in the mean polyA tail

length in all six samples ($p_{adj} \sim 1.0$, **Supplemental Data Set 1**). The data do show that *glp-1* polyA

tails in embryos are considerably shorter than the median polyA length in *C. elegans* (57 nucleo-

tides) [42]. They are shorter than what is believed to be the minimal length necessary to support

efficient translation (20 nucleotides) [42]. RNAi knockdown or mutation of five different RNA-bind-

ing proteins, including *pos-1*, does not appear to impact the median length or the isoform distri-

bution in embryos.

The glp-1 3'UTR polyA tail length is shorter in embryos than in young adults

To determine how polyA tail length is impacted by POS-1 and GLD-1 binding site muta-

tions in the *glp-1* 3'UTR, we measured the polyA tail length distribution in our previously described

glp-1 3'UTR reporter transgenes [37] (**Fig. 2C-D**). The advantage of measuring the distribution in

the transgenic reporters is that RNAi of *pos-1*, *gld-2*, and *gld-3* is known to induce strong pheno-

types in the germline or embryo [12, 43, 44]. These phenotypes could have indirect effects on the

polyA tail length. The disadvantage is that endogenous *glp-1* transcripts are also present in these

strains, which necessitates an assay that distinguishes reporter mRNAs from endogenous *glp-1*

transcripts. Total RNA was recovered from adults and/or embryos from the WT *glp-1* 3'UTR re-

porter (WRM5: hereafter *glp-1* WT, **Table 1**), the GLD-1 binding motif mutant 3'UTR reporter

(WRM6: hereafter *glp-1* GBM), or a reporter where both POS-1 binding sites are mutated (WRM9:

hereafter *glp-1* 5'3'PRE) [37]. Recovered transcripts were tailed with guanosine and inosine using

established protocols [45] and then amplified using RT-PCR with a 5'-polyC-TT-3' tail primer and

a forward primer that anneals to the GFP reporter, preventing endogenous transcript amplification

(**Fig. 2C**). The amplicon was topo-cloned, transformed into *Escherichia coli*, and multiple individ-

ual colonies were sequenced for each sample using Sanger sequencing to estimate the isoform

ratio and length of the polyA tails (**Fig. 2D**).

Consistent with the genome-wide data, we only observe transcripts corresponding to iso-

form D. Our results show that the median polyA tail length is 29 in young adult *glp-1* WT animals,

27 in *glp-1* GBM, and 31 in *glp-1* 5'3'PRE. The data demonstrates that mutation of the GLD-1 and

POS-1 binding sites do not alter the polyA tail distribution in young adults (p_{adj} = 1.00, **Fig. 2D**). In

embryo samples collected with the reporter transgenes, the polyA tail length is considerably

shorter in *glp-1* WT embryos compared to young adults (*glp-1* WT_{YA} = 29, *glp-1* WT_{emb} = 12, p_{adj}

= 3.8e-4, **Fig. 2D**), suggesting that polyA tail lengths are shortened between the adult germline

and fertilized embryos. This observation is consistent with the genome wide study that showed

short polyA tails on endogenous *glp-1* transcripts (**Fig 2B**). PolyA tail shortening is not observed

in *glp-1* GBM or *glp-1* 5'3'PRE reporters (*glp-1* GBM_{YA} =27, *glp-1* GBM_{emb} = 29, p_{adj} = 1; *glp-1*

5'3'PRE $_{YA}$ = 31, *glp-1* 5'3'PRE $_{emb}$ = 42, **Fig. 2D**). Together, the results suggest that derepression

of the *glp-1* GBM and *glp-1* 5'3'PRE reporter transgenes in embryos is caused in part by failure

of a polyA tail shortening mechanism that acts on the wild-type 3'UTR.

GLD-2 and GLD-4 cytoPAPs contribute to glp-1 polyA tail distribution in different ways

We were intrigued by the difference in embryonic polyA-tail distribution in the *glp-1* GBM

and/or *glp-1* 5'3'PRE reporter transgenes and wondered if cytoplasmic polyA polymerase activity

contributes to derepression. GLD-2 and GLD-4 are both well-characterized cytoplasmic polyA

polymerases found in early embryos [44, 46, 47]. We knocked *gld-2* or *gld-4* down using RNAi in

all three reporter strains and quantified the GFP fluorescence intensity in each cell of dissected

four-cell embryos, comparing the pattern and intensity of the fluorescence (**Fig. 3A**). In untreated

glp-1 WT embryos, reporter expression is biased towards anterior cells, as previously reported

[32]. In untreated *glp-1* GBM and *glp-1* 5'3'PRE mutant embryos, expression is increased and

observed in all four cells (Fold Effect *glp-1* GBM / *glp-1* WT = 3.0; p_{adj} = <1e-12; *glp-1* 5'3'PRE /

glp-1 WT = 3.4, p_{adj} = <1e-12, **Fig. 3A,B**) [32]. RNAi of *gld-2* or *gld-4* had no significant impact on

the abundance or pattern of GFP fluorescence in *glp-1* WT UTR embryos (*glp-1* WT$_{gld-2}$ / *glp-1*

WT$_{ctl}$ = 1.0; p_{adj} = 1.0; *glp-1* WT$_{gld-4}$ / *glp-1* WT$_{ctl}$ = 1.4, p_{adj} = 1.0; **Fig. 3C**). However, *gld-2* RNAi

caused a decrease in the fluorescence intensity of both the *glp-1* GBM and *glp-1* 5'3'PRE report-

ers (*glp-1* GBM$_{gld-2}$ / *glp-1* GBM$_{ctl}$ = 0.73, p_{adj} = 0.00026; *glp-1* 5'3'PRE$_{gld-2}$ / *glp-1* 5'3'PRE$_{control}$ =

0.72, p_{adj} = 6.47e-7; **Fig. 3D,E**). This suggests that GLD-2 contributes to the derepression that is

observed when either the GLD-1 or POS-1 binding sites are mutated. Intriguingly, in *gld-4* RNAi

animals, different results were observed in the GBM versus 5'3'PRE reporters, with total fluores-

cence increasing in *glp-1* GBM but remaining unchanged in the 5'3'PRE reporter (*glp-1* GBM$_{gld-4}$

/ *glp-1* GBM$_{ctl}$ = 1.36, p_{adj} = 1.7e-7; *glp-1* 5'3'PRE$_{gld-4}$ / *glp-1* 5'3'PRE$_{ctl}$ = 1.05, p_{adj} = 1.0; **Fig. 3D,E**).

These results show that knock down of *gld-2* and *gld-4* have opposing effects on the *glp-1* GBM

reporter, and that knock down of *gld-2*, but not *gld-4*, impacts the expression from the *glp-1*

5'3'PRE reporter.

Regulation of glp-1 3'UTR reporter transgenes by ife-3

We are also interested in understanding *glp-1* 3'UTR reporter transgene regulation in the

germline. Several key regulatory factors, including translation initiation factors, cause sterility or

embryonic lethality when mutated. As such, we chose to investigate their impacts on the *glp-1*

3'UTR reporter variants in oocytes. We chose three germline expressed eIF4E-binding proteins

homologs (*ife-1*, *ife-2*, and *ife-3*) for RNAi knockdown. We measured the mean GFP intensity of

the four most proximal oocytes in all three reporter strains treated with RNAi targeting each of

these ten regulatory factors compared to controls. We observe no change in the mean

fluorescence intensity of worms treated with *ife-1* or *ife-2* in any of the three strains (**Fig. 3F,G**,

Supplemental Data Set 1). However, we observe a strong upregulation of all three reporters

upon *ife-3* knockdown (Fold Effect *glp-1* WT_{ife-3} / *glp-1* WT_{ctl} = 1.37, p_{adj} = 1.05e-9; Fold Effect *glp-*

1 GBM_{ife-3} / *glp-1* GBM_{ctl} = 1.48, p_{adj} = 2.89e-8; Fold Effect *glp-1* $5'3'PRE_{ife-3}$ / *glp-1* $5'3'PRE_{ctl}$ =

2.05, p_{adj} = <1e-7). Taken together, the data suggest that GLD-2 activates transgene expression

in embryos, but only under derepressed conditions (**Fig. 3H**). In contrast, GLD-4 represses

transgene expression in embryos, potentially via the POS-1 binding site. IFE-3 represses

transgene expression in oocytes, but this mechanism seems to be independent of the POS-1 or

GLD-1 binding sites.

Mutation of the GLD-1 and POS-1 binding sites in the endogenous glp-1 gene

To understand the physiological impacts of mutating the GLD-1 and POS-1 binding sites in the

endogenous *glp-1* locus, we used CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis to make precise mutations in an

OLLAS-tagged *glp-1* strain corresponding to the variants we previously made in our reporter

strains (**Fig. 4A**) [32, 48]. Our design also includes removal of a protospacer adjacent motif (PAM)

to prevent re-cleavage of the knock in mutation, and mutation of a HindIII restriction site to facili-

tate screening. In total, we produced three strains: *glp-1(spr21[q977*])*, a control strain with the

PAM site deletion and the HindIII site insertion that is otherwise wild-type (WRM83: hereafter *glp-*

1(WT*)); *glp-1(spr33[q977*])* which is identical to *glp-1(WT*)* except it also harbors the GBM mu-

tation (WRM109: hereafter *glp-1(GBM)*); and *(glp-1(spr22[q977*])* which harbors the 5'3'PRE mu-

tation (WRM84: hereafter *glp-1(5'3'PRE)*, **Table 1**). All three strains can be easily propagated as

homozygotes.

To determine whether the GBM and 5'3'PRE mutations affect reproductive fecundity, we

measured the total brood size and hatch rate for all three strains. Under standard growth

conditions at 20°C, the brood size and hatch rate are nearly identical for *glp-1 (WT*)*, *glp-1(GBM)*,

and *glp-1 (5'3'PRE)* alleles (**Fig. 4B,C**, **Supplementary Data Set 1**). Because 3'UTR mutations

in other maternal transcripts have shown enhanced phenotypes at elevated temperatures [49,

50], we repeated the measurements with worms grown at 25°C. Under these conditions, the total

brood size is similar in all three strains, but the hatch rate was mildly reduced in *glp-1(5'3'PRE)*

compared to the *glp-1(WT*)* allele (Fold effect: *glp-1(5'3'PRE)* / *glp-1(WT*)* = 0.96, padj = 0.001,

Fig. 4B,C). The hatch rate in *glp-1(GBM)* is unaffected. The results show that mutations that

cause strong derepression of a *glp-1* reporter in embryos do not cause strong reproductive phe-

notypes when engineered into the endogenous locus, suggesting that reproduction is robust to

dysregulation mediated by loss of either POS-1 or GLD-1 binding sites.

Mutation of a region including both GLD-1 and POS-1 sites reduces fertility

Next, we used CRISPR to make a deletion of the *glp-1* 3'UTR (*glp-1(spr16[*q977])*) that

removes both POS-1 binding sites, the GLD-1 binding site, and adjacent sites predicted to be

recognized by FBF-1/2 and/or MEX-3. In total, this deletion precisely removes 71 base pairs from

the 3'UTR (hereafter *glp-1(Δ71)*, **Fig. 4A**). In designing this deletion, we were able to identify a

guide RNA that recognizes the region to be deleted in our intended mutation, obviating the need

for the PAM deletion and HindIII site insertion used in making the precise binding site alleles

described above. Despite deleting a region of the 3'UTR that has been shown to be sufficient for

spatial patterning of a reporter [4], *glp-1(Δ71)* is viable and easily propagated as a homozygote.

To assess the impact of this mutant on worm reproduction, we conducted brood size assays at

both 20°C and 25°C. At 20°C, we observed a 1.7-fold reduction in the mean brood size of *glp-*

1(Δ71) compared to the parent strain (*glp-1(q977)),* hereafter *glp-1(WT)*, p_{adj} = <1e-10, **Fig. 4B**).

We also observed a 2.5-fold decrease in the hatch rate of *glp-1(Δ71)* embryos compared to the

background strain (p_{adj} = <1e-10, **Fig. 4C**). In parallel to our findings at 20°C, we observed reduced

brood size and hatch rate at 25°C for *glp-1(Δ71)* compared to the control (Fold effect reduction in

total brood = 1.2, p_{adj} = 0.00003; Fold effect reduction in hatch rate = 1.35, p_{adj} = <1e-10, **Fig.**

4B,C). The difference in magnitude could be caused by the reduction of the brood size in the

control *glp-1(WT)* strain at elevated temperature as opposed to temperature-dependent rescue in

the mutant. The results show that the *glp-1* 3'UTR region containing the GLD-1, POS-1, and ad-

jacent RBP-binding sites contributes to the total fecundity and successful embryogenesis, both

under standard growth conditions and at elevated temperature.

The Δ71 glp-1 3'UTR mutation produces terminal embryos that are distinct from a loss-of-function

allele

On average, when incubated at 20°C, more than 60% of *glp-1(Δ71)* embryos fail to hatch.

Loss-of-function *glp-1* mutants also produce embryos that fail to hatch, but with complete pene-

trance. We sought to compare the *glp-1(Δ71)* phenotype to the loss-of-function phenotype. We

used DIC microscopy to image embryos harvested from *glp-1(WT)*, *glp-1(Δ71)*, and *glp-1(or178)*,

which encodes a strong temperature sensitive loss-of-function allele (hereafter *glp-1(ts)*). Embryo

images were binned by developmental stage and annotated based upon their appearance as

normal or abnormal (**Fig. 5**). All early-stage embryos (one cell to 64-cell) produced by *glp-1(WT)*

and *glp-1(ts)* looked normal in appearance (n=41, n=27, **Fig. 5A-C**). By contrast, 33% of *glp-*

1(Δ71) early embryos appeared defective (n=9/27, p_{adj} = 1.4e-4, **Fig. 5B**). In later stage embryos

(65-cell to pretzel stage), 90% of embryos were normal in *glp-1(ollas)* (n=26/29), while just 61%

of *glp-1 (Δ71)* (n=64/105, p_{adj} = 0.007) and 52% of *glp-1(ts)* embryos (11/21, p_{adj} = 0.006) ap-

peared normal (**Fig. 5D-F**). Most of the terminal *glp-1(ts)* embryos resembled the published *glp-*

1 loss-of-function phenotype with arrest after morphogenesis begins (**Fig. 5F**) [18]. In contrast,

the *glp-1(Δ71)* embryos appeared to show a more variable phenotype, including regions of bun-

dled cells and zones of clearing presumably due to apoptosis (**Fig. 5B,E**). These defects appear

to manifest after the 16-cell stage but before morphogenesis. A quantitation of these results is

shown in **figure 5G**. Together, our results suggest that the cause for embryonic lethality in *glp-*

1(Δ71) embryos is distinct from loss of function *glp-1* alleles.

Increased germline mitosis in glp-1(Δ71) mutants

In the germline, GLP-1 protein expression is restricted to the distal end [24], and the re-

pression of *glp-1* translation by the RNA-binding protein GLD-1 is thought to promote meiosis

[29]. Consistent with this model, a gain-of-function *glp-1* allele forms a germline progenitor cell

tumor [51], phenocopying strong loss-of-function *gld-1* alleles [10]. To evaluate the impact of the

3'UTR deletion on GLP-1 expression pattern in the germline, we dissected gonads from *glp-*

1(WT) and *glp-1(Δ71)* young adult hermaphrodites, fixed them, and stained for the OLLAS tag

on *glp-1*. We also imaged with DAPI to assess the morphology of the nuclei and determine the

length of the mitotic zone (**Fig. 6A-F**). OLLAS immunofluorescence reveals that GLP-1 protein

is expressed in both wildtype and Δ71 mutants in the distal arm of the germline to approximately

the same level (**Fig. 6A**, **D**). To quantify the pattern of GLP-1 expression, we measured the dis-

tance from the distal tip of the gonad to the end of the OLLAS positive region in both *glp-1(WT)*

and *glp-1(Δ71)* embryos. In gonads dissected from control animals, the average length of the

OLLAS positive region is 113.2 ± 25 microns. In mutants, the length increases to 117.9 ± 20.7

microns, suggesting that GLP-1 expression is not expanded proximally in the Δ71 3'UTR dele-

tion (p = 0.47, **Fig. 6G**).

GLP-1 promotes mitotic gene expression in the distal end of the germline [18, 24]. To as-

sess whether mitosis is increased in the 3'UTR mutant, we counted the number of distal mitotic

figures present in the DAPI channel of the OLLAS immunofluorescence images described

above. We also measured the overall length of the mitotic zone, defined as the distance from

the distal end of the germline to the first crescent-shaped meiotic nucleus [52]. We observe an

increase in the average number of mitotic figures in Δ71 mutants compared to controls (Δ71 =

3.69 ± 2.37, n = 26; control = 1.73 ± 0.77, n = 26; p = 0.00021, **Fig. 6H**). This corresponds to an

increase in the average length of the mitotic zone in mutants (Δ71 = 131.2 ± 20, n = 26; control

= 80.5 ± 23.2, n = 26; p = 3.7e-11, **Fig. 6G**). As an independent measure of increased mitosis,

we stained for PH-3 positive nuclei in in the distal end (**Fig. 6I-L**). We observe twice as many

PH-3 positive nuclei in the *glp-1(Δ71)* mutant compared to control (Mean PH-3+ (Δ71) = 6.4 ± 2,

n = 34; PH-3+ (control) = 3.2 ± 2, n = 36, p = 6.6e-8, **Fig. 6M**). Together, the data show that the

pattern of GLP-1 expression is enlarged in the Δ71 mutant, and this increase correlates to an

increase in the number of germline progenitor cells undergoing mitosis.

Mutation of the glp-1 3'UTR leads to changes in stress response and metabolism gene expression

To understand how dysregulation of *glp-1* expression in *glp-1(Δ71)* mutants impacts gene

expression, we performed RNA-seq on age matched young adult hermaphrodites from synchro-

nized populations of *glp-1(ollas)* and *glp-1(Δ71)* mutants. We also collected samples from syn-

chronized young adult *glp-1(WT)*, *glp-1(GBM)*, and *glp-1(5'3'PRE)* animals. Data were analyzed

with the OneStopRNASeq pipeline [53], and gene expression differences between genotypes

were assessed using DESeq2 with a $\log_2$ fold change cutoff of ≤ ±0.585 and a p_{adj} cutoff of ≤ 0.05

(**Fig. 7A-C**) [54]. The full analyses are available in **Supplemental Data Set 2**. Comparing *glp-*

1(ollas) to *glp-1(Δ71)*, we observe 81 upregulated and 405 downregulated genes. Comparing *glp-*

1(WT) to *glp-1(GBM)* and *glp-1(5'3'PRE)* mutants, we see far fewer gene expression changes.

We observe seven upregulated and one downregulated in *glp-1(GBM)*, and nine upregulated with

six downregulated in *glp-1(5'3'PRE).* Five of the 81 upregulated genes in *glp-1(Δ71)* are also

upregulated in the *glp-1(GBM)* or *glp-1(5'3'PRE)* mutants (**Fig. 7D**). Just one of the 405 downreg-

ulated genes in *glp-1(Δ71)* is shared with another mutant of the *glp-1* 3'UTR (5'3'PRE, **Fig. 7E**).

The data show that the number of gene expression changes correlates with the magnitude of the

impact on reproductive fecundity, and that most gene expression changes observed in *glp-1(Δ71)*

are unique to that mutant. The abundance of *glp-1* mRNA is unchanged in all three mutants,

suggesting that *glp-1* mRNA abundance is not impacted by either binding site mutation or by the

larger deletion.

Focusing on the *glp-1(Δ71)* mutant, we used WormCat 2.0 to determine which gene sets

are perturbed in this mutant compared to control (**Fig. 7F, Supplemental Data Set 2**) [55]. The

results show that metabolism and stress response genes are overrepresented in the total regu-

lated gene set (both up and downregulated genes, p_{adj} = 2.7e-13 (metabolism); p_{adj} = 3.3e-7

(stress response)). Specifically impacted metabolic pathways include amino acid metabolism, li-

pid metabolism, creatine kinase, and glycolysis. We also observe changes in somatic genes in-

volved in neuronal and muscle function, although at a lower frequency (p_{adj} = 7.7e-8 (neuronal);

p_{adj} = 1.5e-6 (muscle)). Using tissue enrichment analysis on upregulated genes, we see an en-

richment for genes expressed in the germline (Q-value = 0.00014) and oocytes (Q-value = 0.012,

Supplemental Data Set 2), consistent with ectopic mitosis in the germline [56]. Repeating the

tissue enrichment analysis on downregulated genes, we see enrichment of genes expressed in

several muscle lineages (MS, D, and C lineage), as well as the head mesodermal cell (MS) and

the VC2 and VC3 neurons (P3, P5 lineages, **Supplemental Data Set 2**). The results suggest the

possibility of posterior patterning defects in *glp-1(Δ71)* embryos, possibly caused by dysregulation

of GLP-1 in the mutant. These changes may account for the observed reduced fecundity in this

mutant, but more work will be necessary to understand the precise mechanism.

DISCUSSION

The regulation of *glp-1* mRNA has served as a paradigmatic example of post-transcrip-

tional control of maternal transcripts for over three decades. A pioneering study demonstrated that

the *glp-1* 3'UTR is sufficient to pattern the expression of injected reporter mRNAs [4]. Subsequent

work using reporter transgenes confirmed this observation [16], and specific functional elements

within the 3'UTR were mapped using both approaches [4, 29, 32]. Here, we expanded upon these

foundational studies in two ways. First, we evaluated the mechanism of regulation for two func-

tional elements recognized by the RNA-binding proteins GLD-1 and POS-1 across the oocyte-to-

embryo transition. Second, we evaluated three alleles corresponding to previously identified func-

tional regions of the 3'UTR, defining their importance to reproductive fecundity.

363   Our work suggests that endogenous *glp-1* mRNA undergoes a shortening of the polyA tail

as transcripts move from the adult germline to embryos. Loss of the GLD-1 or POS-1 binding

motifs (GBM and 5'3'PRE) prevents this shortening, consistent with our prior work that demon-

strated an increase in reporter expression in the posterior of the embryo in reporter transgenes

[32]. The increase in fluorescence observed in both mutants depends upon the cytoplasmic polyA

polymerase GLD-2, suggesting that the mechanism of repression in embryos includes prevention

of A-tail lengthening in embryos by this enzyme. Consistent with that model, the average polyA

tail length of GBM and 5'3'PRE mutant reporters is longer than WT embryos. Intriguingly, knock

down of a second cytoplasmic polyA polymerase, GLD-4, causes the opposite effect. Our findings

suggest that GLD-4 plays a repressive role in embryos, working in opposition to GLD-2, but the

exact mechanism remains unknown. Knock down of GLD-4 had no impact on the 5'3'PRE, sug-

gesting the possibility that GLD-4-dependent repression acts through the POS-1 binding site, ei-

ther directly through POS-1 or via an indirect mechanism. Our work also shows that none of the

deadenylase enzymes are required for *glp-1* regulation, at least in oocytes, although this obser-

vation is limited by the potential for functional overlap between multiple deadenylase enzymes.

Lastly, we observe that the atypical eIF4E homology *ife-3* represses all three GLP-1 reporters in

oocytes, consistent with models indicating a translational control mechanism in the germline [57].

Together, the data shows that multiple mechanisms contribute to *glp-1* repression, and the pre-
dominant mechanism changes from oocytes to embryos.

Our work also shows that precise mutations in the GLD-1 and POS-1 binding sites do not
cause strong reproductive or molecular phenotypes when engineered into the endogenous *glp-1*
locus. There are several potential explanations for this apparent dichotomy. First, there could be
functional redundancy between the binding sites, although the reporter transgene data support a
model where binding of both proteins is needed for full repression. Second, additional mecha-
nisms that act on GLP-1 protein, but not on a GFP reporter, may buffer modest changes in GLP-
1 expression. Lastly, it is possible that additional binding sites in the coding sequence of *glp-1*
mRNA could compensate for loss of the binding sites in the 3'UTR. The finding that a larger de-
letion that removes all three motifs confers a much stronger reproductive phenotype supports the
first hypothesis.

How does dysregulation of *glp-1* lead to embryonic lethality? Our RNA sequencing data
provide a few clues. The tissue enrichment analysis reveals that genes from the C, D, and MS
lineage muscle tissues are preferentially downregulated in *glp-Δ71* mutant embryos. All three lin-
eages are posterior in origin, deriving from cells that normally do not express GLP-1 protein. It is
possible that loss of posterior lineage cell specification could account for the changes we observe
in these tissues. Similarly, amino acid metabolism and creatine kinase activity is associated with
muscle development and activity. The reduction we observe in genes expressed in these path-
ways could be explained by reduced development of muscle tissue in embryos. Consistent with
this hypothesis, most *glp-1(Δ71)* mutant embryos fail before gastrulation, consistent with cell fate
specification defects. We note that the terminal phenotype differs both in the timing of embryonic
arrest and in the appearance of the terminal embryos from a *glp-1* null embryos, which fail during
morphogenesis with anterior pharyngeal tissue defects [22].

Specific metabolism genes that are downregulated in our dataset include *pah-1*, *ceeh-2*

and Y51H4A.7. The *pah-1* gene is involved in anabolism [58]. The *ceeh-2* gene is an epoxide

hydrolase that functions in lipid signaling [59]. The human UROC1 homolog Y51H4A.7 is thought

to operate in histidine degradation [60]. We also note that stress response genes appear to be

downregulated in the mutant. Among the downregulated stress response genes are *cdr-2*, *clec-*

48, and F35E12.6, C49C8.5, and ZK6.11.1. The *cdr-2* gene is involved in the response to cad-

mium [61]; whereas F35E12.6, C49C8.5, ZK6.11.1, and *clec-48* genes have reported roles in the

innate immune response [62].

Conversely, the upregulated gene set is limited to germline and/or oocyte expressed

genes that mostly have unassigned functions. The most upregulated gene is C55C3.3, a mem-

brane-associated protein of unknown function that appears to be broadly conserved in nematodes

in a BLASTP analysis [63]. This gene encodes a prion like (Q/N) domain with 41 glutamines and

27 asparagines. The protein also harbors a serine-proline rich region, encoding 57 serines and

58 prolines. This transcript is also upregulated in the *glp-1(GBM)* mutant, but not in the *glp-*

1(5'3'PRE) mutant. Knock down of the C55C3.3 in a *rrf-3* sensitized genome-wide RNAi screen

causes embryonic lethality [64]. However, a loss of function allele does not appear to have this

phenotype. Additional upregulated genes include *haf-6*, *lin-15A*, *lin-15B* and *tbc-1*. *tbc-1* was re-

ported to have functions in innate immunity [65]; *haf-6* is a member of ATP-binding cassette trans-

porters and found to be necessary for RNA interference [66]. *lin-15A* and *lin-15B* have functions

in vulval development [67]. More work is needed to discern which of these changes, if any, con-

tribute to the phenotypes observed in *glp-1(Δ71)*.

We were initially surprised that loss of the GLD-1 or POS-1 binding motifs did not cause

stronger phenotypes. In fact, we expected to have difficulty recovering these mutants because

we anticipated strong upregulation of GLP-1, which is known to cause a gain-of-function sterility

phenotype where the germline forms a tumor of ectopic progenitor cells. This turned out not to be

the case. Mutation of all three binding sites and the adjacent regions caused an increase in the

amount of mitosis and a moderate expansion of the mitotic zone, but apparently the extent of

dysregulation observed was not enough to cause germline progenitor cell tumor formation. Per-

haps a larger deletion of the 3' UTR could cause a stronger phenotype. We attempted to make a

full 3'UTR deletion of the *glp-1* gene, but we were unable to recover this mutant, although tech-

nical hurdles associated with non-allelic homologous recombination with a downstream pseudo-

gene appears to be the root cause of this difficulty (not shown). Having said that, we note that

similar 3'UTR deletion alleles of key cell-fate specifying maternal genes *mex-3* and *pos-1* also do

not produce strong reproductive phenotypes [49, 50]. Together with the *glp-1* results reported

here, our work supports an emerging model where silent maternal transcripts inherited by em-

bryos act to buffer protein production but are not essential for fertility.

METHODS

C. elegans strains and CRISPR mutagenesis

444   All strains used in this work were cultured on NGM agar plates seeded with *E. coli* OP50

strain [68] under standard conditions unless otherwise noted. The strains used in this study are

listed in **Table 1.** CRISPR/Cas9 mutagenesis was carried out following the protocol of Ghanta et

al. [69]. A single crRNA and an ssODN or DNA oligonucleotide repair template unique to each

mutation was employed for the *glp-1::2xOLLAS* background mutations (*spr16, spr21, spr22, and*

spr33). The sequences of the crRNA, the DNA repair template, and the ssODNs are listed in

Supplemental Table 1. The offspring of injected animals were isolated, allowed to propagate,

then lysed and used as a template in PCR using primers F21: 5'-CGGTCAATGCGATGTGGTAT-

3' and R21-2: 5'-GAGCCTCGAGAATGGTGAGT-3'. For *spr16*, the presence of the deletion prod-

uct was visualized directly on a 2% agarose gel. For point mutations, the amplification product

was treated with the HindIII-HF restriction enzyme, where lack of cleavage indicated a successful

mutation (NEB, catalog number: R3104S, New Ipswich, MA). Cleavage products were resolved

on a 2% agarose gel. Sanger sequencing was used to validate the mutation after candidate ho-

mozygous lines were isolated. Validated mutants were outcrossed three times with the back-

ground strain to eliminate off target and spurious background mutations for each strain

respectively.

RNAi by feeding

Double-stranded DNA sequences used to target *gld-2* or *gld-4* in RNAi experiments were

amplified from synthetic DNA (GenScript, Piscataway, NJ). Amplicons were designed using the

sequences from Ahringer RNAi library [64, 70]. The *gld-2* amplicon is 1194 nucleotides (primers:

*gld-2*F: 5'-AGTACGGCCGTTGGTATCAG-3', *gld-2*R: 5'-ATGTTGCTGCTGATTGTTGC-3', **Sup-**

plemental Table 1), while the *gld-4* amplicon is 969 nucleotides (primers: *gld-4*F: 5'-TTTCG-

GAGCGAGAAGACACT-3', *gld-4*R: 5'-GTGGCTGAGTTGTTGTCGAA-3') [70, 71]. PCR products

were cloned into vector L4440, and RNAi experiments were carried out as described previously

[32, 72]. Briefly, adult worms were bleached to recover embryos, which were then placed on plates

with 100 µg/mL ampicillin and 1mM IPTG to induce RNAi upon hatching. Animals were cultivated

at 25°C until reaching the young adult stage. After dissection, embryos were placed on 2% aga-

rose pad and imaged under DIC optics and fluorescence optics (see below). The previously re-

ported phenotypes were used to confirm RNAi efficacy [44]. *pos-1* RNAi was used as a positive

control condition and resulted in embryonic lethality [32].

RNAi by soaking

Total RNA was isolated from one or two 60 mm plates of N2 worms using Trizol followed

by phenol-chloroform-isoamyl alcohol extraction. RT-PCR was performed using Superscript III

One-Step RT-PCR kit (ThermoFisher, catalog number: 12574026, Waltham, MA) using the pri-

mers listed in **Supplemental Table 1**. Primers for each of the genes of interest targeted exon-

exon junctions to reduce amplification of residual contaminating genomic DNA. Each primer in-

cludes a T7 promoter on the 5' end. The amplicons vary in length from 550 to 950 base pairs.

Double stranded RNA was made from the RT-PCR products using the MEGAScript T7 Transcrip-

tion Kit (ThermoFisher, catalog number: AM1333, Waltham, MA). Soaking solution was made

following the procedure of Ahringer with a final concentration of 1 µg/µl of double-stranded RNA

[70]. Synchronized L1 animals were incubated in this solution at 25°C for 24 hours. After transfer-

ring to NGM agar plates seeded with *E. coli* OP50, they were cultured at 25°C until the young

adult stage. Embryos were harvested by dissection for imaging under DIC and fluorescence optics

(see below). The previously described phenotypes for each RNAi condition were used to confirm

knockdown [73].

Brood size and hatch rate assays

Following synchronization, worms from each tested genotype were cultivated at room tem-

perature before being isolated onto NGM plates with *E. coli* OP50. Every day, each animal was

moved to a different plate, and the number of eggs laid and hatched progeny were counted. Three

biological replicates including 30-35 worms were performed for each strain and culture condition.

A one-way ANOVA was used to assess differences between the brood size and hatch rate (viable

progeny / total progeny) with Bonferroni correction for multiple hypothesis testing.

Reporter transgene fluorescence microscopy and quantification

A Zeiss Axioskop 2 plus microscope (Jena, Germany) with a 40X oil-immersion objective

and a Spot camera (Sterling Heights, MI) was used to collect embryo images under DIC and flu-

orescence optics. For embryo imaging, the mean pixel fluorescence intensity in the nucleus was

determined for each nucleus in all imaged four-cell embryos using FIJI v2.9.0 (https://im-

agej.net/software/fiji/). The reported value is the sum of the four nuclei in each four-cell embryo.

The mean and standard deviation of this sum was calculated for multiple embryos under each

treatment condition (**Fig. 2**). The data were plotted using Igor Pro9 (Wavemetrics, Portland,

OR); and the Tukey method was used to identify outliers. A one-way ANOVA was performed to

assess statistical significance, the p-value was adjusted using the Bonferroni correction for mul-

tiple hypothesis testing. For oocyte imaging, the background-corrected mean pixel fluorescence

intensity in the nucleus of the four most proximal oocytes was determined. The mean pixel in-

tensity of each was determined, and the reported value is the average of all four nuclei. The av-

erage and standard deviation from multiple worms was determined. The Tukey method was

used to identify outliers, and the data were compared using a one-way ANOVA to evaluate the

significance using the Bonferroni correction for multiple hypothesis testing.

Immunofluorescence imaging and quantitation

After slides were prepared with poly-L-lysine treatment, gonads were dissected in Happy

Buffer (25 mM HEPES pH7.0, 50 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 2 mM $MgCl_2$ and 2mM EDTA) containing

0.2 mM Levamisole. The worms were fixed with the fixation buffer (2X buffer: 25 mM HEPES

pH7.4, 49 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, 1mM EGTA and 5% paraformaldehyde and incu-

bated for 30 minutes. The slides were washed with 0.2M Tris pH 7.5 twice before being incu-

bated in Permeabilization Buffer [PBST (0.1%), Triton (0.1%)] for 15 minutes and then

submerged into PBST (0.1%). After incubating with primary antibody (rat anti-OLLAS (Novus

#NBP1-06713) 1:500; monoclonal mouse Phospho-Histone H3 (Ser10) (6G3) (Cell Signaling

9706S) 1:200) overnight at 4°C, PBST (0.1%) was used twice for 5 minutes to wash the slides,

which was followed by the secondary antibody (AlexaFluor 488 donkey anti-rat (Invitrogen

#A21208, headquarters: Carlsbad, CA) 1:500 dilution; Rhodamine Red™-X (RRX) AffiniPure

Goat Anti-Mouse IgG (H+L) (Jackson ImmunoResearch 115-295-003, West Grove, PA) 1:200

dilution) treatment for 2 hours at room temperature. PBST (0.1%) was used twice to rinse the

slides, then Vectashield Antifade Medium (Vector Labs, Newark, CA) containing DAPI was used

to mount the gonads on the slide, covered with a coverslip, sealed with clear nail polish and al-

lowed to dry for half an hour. Fluorescent microscopy was used to image the slides.

Images were collected on a Zeiss AxioObserver 7 inverted imaging system (model num-

ber:431007-9904-000, serial number:3858002009, Oberkochen, Germany) with 20X air and/or

40X oil objectives under DIC and fluorescence optics. Z-stacks of 30 images spanning the width

of the gonads were collected using the green channel for OLLAS, the red channel for PH-3, and

the blue channel for DAPI, and DIC for light microscopy. The images were quantified using Fiji

version 2.14.0. The lengths of the mitotic zone and the length of the OLLAS-positive region

were measured using the segmented line tool. The ollas immunofluorescence intensity was de-

termined using the circle tool with radius of 30 pixels and normalized to an equivalent circle out-

side of the gonad to correct for background. The statistical significance was determined using a

one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction for multiple hypothesis testing.

Analysis of polyA-test sequencing data (PAT-Seq)

Raw sequencing reads from published polyA-test sequencing data corresponding to NIH

Bioproject PRJNA248698 were downloaded from the NIH Sequence Read Archive [41]. Reads

that correspond to *glp-1* isoforms were recovered from the raw data using the fuzzy pattern search

algorithm ugrep v7.4.1 (https://github.com/Genivia/ugrep) built into a custom script

(**Supplementary Data Set 3**). The pattern used for the search consists of 1) a 20 nucleotide long

3'UTR isoform specific search term near the polyA processing site (search1 = 5'-

CTCGGTTCATTTTAAATATG-3'; search2 = 5'-CATTTTTCTTATTCTAGACT-3'; search3 =

TCCTTTTCTTTATAACTTGT-3'; search4 = 5'-CATTTAATGAATTGTAATTC-3'; search5 = 5'-

AGATTAAGAGTATAAGCTTT-3'; search6 = 5'-TTCGAATTATTGAAGCTCAA-3'), 2) a variable

length gap ranging from 0 to 10 nucleotides, 3) a stretch of continuous adenosines at least five

nucleotides long, and 4) eight nucleotides of the tag sequence used to clone the polyA tails during

library construction (GATCGGAA) [74]. The advantage of ugrep compared to similar grep-based

search algorithms is that it can search for near matches. We ran our script with 0-3 possible

mismatches compared to our search expression and found that 2 or 3 mismatches permitted the

recovery of reads that do not correspond to *glp-1*, while 0 or 1 errors produced only matches to

glp-1 and comparable results (**Fig. 2, Supplemental Data Set 3**). The length of the polyA tail was

counted using a second iteration of ugrep to recover the polyA tail with the 3' tag, and awk

v.20200816 was used to count the length of the polyA tail. The full script with list of commands

and the output is available in **Supplemental Data Set 3**. The number of isoform-specific reads

was divided by the total number of *glp-1* reads to determine the fraction of polyA tails associated

with a particular UTR isoform. The mean, median, and standard deviation of each distribution was

calculated. A non-parametric Komolgorov-Smirnov (KS) test was used to evaluate apparent dif-

ferences between distributions, and p-values were adjusted for multiple hypothesis testing using

the Bonferroni correction.

Reporter transgene PolyA tail length measurements

Young adult animals were washed with M9 several times, centrifuged, and resuspended

in Trizol (Invitrogen, catalog number: 15596018, Carlsbad, CA), frozen and stored at -80°C. To

isolate embryos, young adult animals were bleached with hypochlorite solution, washed with M9,

centrifuged, resuspended in Trizol, frozen and stored at -80°C. RNA was isolated by using phenol-

chloroform extraction method. PolyA tail length measurements were conducted as published with

a few changes [45]. Superscript III One-Step RT-PCR kit (ThermoFisher, catalog number:

12574026, Waltham, MA) was utilized after the guanosine and inosine extension step [45]. The

PCR fragments were run on agarose gel. Primers used in this assay: C10T2 (sequence: 5'-

CCCCCCCCCCTT-3') to make cDNA, M13RC0T2 (sequence: 5'-CAGGAAACAGC-

TATGACCCCCCCCCCTT-3') [45] to amplify the tail, forward primer (sequence: 5'-

GCGATGGCCCTGTCCTTTTA-3') to amplify both transcripts, reverse primer for the gene (se-

quence: 5'-GGGACCAGTGTCTGGGTGATGT-3') to amplify only gene specific transcripts. TOPO

Cloning was performed using StrataClone PCR Cloning Kit manual (Agilent, catalog number:

240205), which was followed by Sanger sequencing by Elim Biopharm (Hayward, CA) or Eton

Bioscience (San Diego, CA). The polyA tail length for each isolate was counted directly from the

sequencing results and plotted as a function of genotype. The mean, median, and standard devi-

ation of each genotype and age group was calculated, and differences in the distributions were

assessed by a non-parametric KS test with Bonferroni correction for multiple hypothesis testing.

Terminal embryo phenotyping

Embryos from *glp-1(WT)*, *glp-1(Δ71)*, and *glp-1(ts)* strains were recovered by washing

them off NGM agar plates with M9 followed by bleaching in hypochlorite solution (20% bleach,

0.25M NaOH final concentration). After washing with extensively with M9, one drop of embryos

in M9 solution was placed on a 2% agarose pad on a microscope slide, covered with a cover slip,

and imaged under DIC optics using a Zeiss Axiobserver 7 imaging system described above with

a 63X oil immersion objective. The embryos were assessed as a function of developmental stage

and defined as "normal" or "abnormal" based upon their appearance. The cross-tabulation Chi-

square method was used to assess statistical significance, and p-values were adjusted for multi-

ple hypothesis testing using the Bonferroni correction for multiple hypothesis testing.

RNA-seq library preparation

glp-1::2xOLLAS, *glp-1(spr16), glp-1(spr21), glp-1(spr22)* and *glp-1(spr33)* strains were

synchronized by bleaching followed by hatching in M9 and arrest at the L1 stage. L1 animals were

cultivated in an incubator at 20°C on NGM agar seeded with *E. coli* OP50 until they reached the

young adult stage. Embryos were allowed to hatch overnight, leading to arrest at L1 stage. L1

animals were plated on NGM agar with *E. coli* OP50 and cultured in an incubator at 20°C until

they reached the young adult stage. The worms were collected for RNA isolation by washing them

off with M9 several times, and any extra M9 was removed. After addition of 1 mL Trizol, they were

frozen at -80 °C. Phenol-chloroform extraction was used to isolate the RNA and depletion of ribo-

somal RNA was carried out following the procedure of Duan et al. [75]. Sample concentrations

were determined using a Qubit fluorometer (ThermoFisher, Waltham, MA) and the RNA quality

was assessed using a Bioanalyzer (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA). The NEBNext Ultra II RNA Library

Prep kit (NEB catalog number: E7775S, New Ipswich, MA) was used to prepare the RNA-seq

libraries. The libraries were indexed using NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina (Dual Index Pri-

mer Sets 1, 2, 3, and 4) (catalog numbers: E7600S, E7780S, E7710S, and E7730S). An Illumina

NextSeq 500 was used to sequence the final pooled libraries. Three biological replicates were

gathered for *glp-1(spr21)*, *glp-1(spr22)* and *glp-1(spr33)*, and two biological replicates for *glp-*

1::2xOLLAS, *glp-1(spr16)*.

The OneStopRNAseq v1.0.0 pipeline was utilized for RNA-seq analysis, and the reads

were aligned using the reference genome WBcel235 [53]. The differential gene expression was

examined using the DESeq2_1.28.1 tool [54]. Cutoffs for differential expression were an absolute

log2 fold change of greater than 0.585 and an FDR was less than 0.05. WormCat was used to

evaluate gene function categories in differentially expressed genes [76].

Data availability

All numerical data and statistical analyses presented in this report are available in **Supple-**

mentary Data Set 1. The output of the OneStopRNASeq pipeline, the Wormcat analysis, and the

tissue enrichment analysis described in **Figure 7** are included as **Supplementary Data Set 2.**

The custom scripts used to measure polyA tail length in **Figure 2**, and all output from the scripts,

are included as **Supplementary Data Set 3**. Raw RNA sequencing data were uploaded to the

NIH Sequence Read Archive and will be made available under Bioproject PRJNA1440940. All

imaging data is available through Zenodo (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.19183906).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors thank Nick Rhind, Oliver Rando, Craig Mello, and Victor Ambros for sharing reagents

and/or their advice on data analysis and interpretation. We thank Sharon Noronha and Haik Var-

deresian for helpful comments on the manuscript. This work was supported by NIH Grant

R01GM145062 to S.P.R.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

PC collected all the data presented in the manuscript and made strains WRM73, WRM83,

WRM84, and WRM109. PC analyzed the data with the following exceptions—SR assisted

with some quantitation and statistical analyses described in Figures 2–4, and 6. All ex-

periments were conceived by PC and SR, and both authors prepared the manuscript.

REFERENCES

1.　Kojima ML, Hoppe C, Giraldez AJ. The maternal-to-zygotic transition: reprogramming of

the cytoplasm and nucleus. Nat Rev Genet. 2025;26(4):245-67. Epub 2024/11/26. doi:

10.1038/s41576-024-00792-0. PubMed PMID: 39587307; PubMed Central PMCID:

PMC11928286.

2.　Farley BM, Ryder SP. Regulation of maternal mRNAs in early development. Crit Rev

Biochem Mol Biol. 2008;43(2):135-62. Epub 2008/03/28. doi:

10.1080/10409230801921338. PubMed PMID: 18365862.

3.　Bowerman B, Eaton BA, Priess JR. skn-1, a maternally expressed gene required to

specify the fate of ventral blastomeres in the early C. elegans embryo. Cell.

1992;68(6):1061-75. Epub 1992/03/20. PubMed PMID: 1547503.

4.　Evans TC, Crittenden SL, Kodoyianni V, Kimble J. Translational control of maternal glp-1

mRNA establishes an asymmetry in the C. elegans embryo. Cell. 1994;77(2):183-94.

Epub 1994/04/22. PubMed PMID: 8168128.

5.　Mango SE, Thorpe CJ, Martin PR, Chamberlain SH, Bowerman B. Two maternal genes,

apx-1 and pie-1, are required to distinguish the fates of equivalent blastomeres in the

early Caenorhabditis elegans embryo. Development. 1994;120(8):2305-15. Epub

1994/08/01. PubMed PMID: 7925031.

6.　Hunter CP, Kenyon C. Spatial and temporal controls target pal-1 blastomere-

specification activity to a single blastomere lineage in C. elegans embryos. Cell.

1996;87(2):217-26.

7.　Tintori SC, Osborne Nishimura E, Golden P, Lieb JD, Goldstein B. A Transcriptional

Lineage of the Early C. elegans Embryo. Dev Cell. 2016;38(4):430-44. Epub 2016/08/25.

doi: 10.1016/j.devcel.2016.07.025. PubMed PMID: 27554860; PubMed Central PMCID:

PMC4999266.

8.   Robertson S, Lin R. The Maternal-to-Zygotic Transition in C. elegans. Curr Top Dev Biol.

2015;113:1-42. Epub 2015/09/12. doi: 10.1016/bs.ctdb.2015.06.001. PubMed PMID:

26358869.

9.   Batchelder C, Dunn MA, Choy B, Suh Y, Cassie C, Shim EY, et al. Transcriptional

repression by the Caenorhabditis elegans germ-line protein PIE-1. Genes Dev.

1999;13(2):202-12. Epub 1999/01/30. doi: 10.1101/gad.13.2.202. PubMed PMID:

9925644; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC316391.

10.   Francis R, Barton MK, Kimble J, Schedl T. gld-1, a tumor suppressor gene required for

oocyte development in Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics. 1995;139(2):579-606. Epub

1995/02/01. PubMed PMID: 7713419; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC1206368.

11.   Draper BW, Mello CC, Bowerman B, Hardin J, Priess JR. MEX-3 is a KH domain protein

that regulates blastomere identity in early C-elegans embryos. Cell. 1996;87(2):205-16.

PubMed PMID: ISI:A1996VN40300009.

12.   Tabara H, Hill RJ, Mello CC, Priess JR, Kohara Y. pos-1 encodes a cytoplasmic zinc-

finger protein essential for germline specification in C. elegans. Development.

1999;126(1):1-11. Epub 1998/12/03. PubMed PMID: 9834181.

13.   Olivas W, Parker R. The Puf3 protein is a transcript-specific regulator of mRNA

degradation in yeast. Embo J. 2000;19(23):6602-11.

14.   Gomes JE, Encalada SE, Swan KA, Shelton CA, Carter JC, Bowerman B. The maternal

gene spn-4 encodes a predicted RRM protein required for mitotic spindle orientation and

cell fate patterning in early C. elegans embryos. Development. 2001;128(21):4301-14.

Epub 2001/10/31. PubMed PMID: 11684665.

15.   Albarqi MMY, Ryder SP. The role of RNA-binding proteins in orchestrating germline

development in Caenorhabditis elegans. Front Cell Dev Biol. 2022;10:1094295. Epub

2023/01/24. doi: 10.3389/fcell.2022.1094295. PubMed PMID: 36684428; PubMed

Central PMCID: PMC9846511.

16.   Merritt C, Rasoloson D, Ko D, Seydoux G. 3' UTRs are the primary regulators of gene

698   expression in the C. elegans germline. Curr Biol. 2008;18(19):1476-82. Epub

699   2008/09/27. doi: 10.1016/j.cub.2008.08.013. PubMed PMID: 18818082; PubMed Central

700   PMCID: PMC2585380.

701   17.   Allen MA, Hillier LW, Waterston RH, Blumenthal T. A global analysis of C. elegans trans-

702   splicing. Genome Res. 2011;21(2):255-64. Epub 2010/12/24. doi:

703   10.1101/gr.113811.110. PubMed PMID: 21177958; PubMed Central PMCID:

704   PMC3032929.

705   18.   Austin J, Kimble J. glp-1 is required in the germ line for regulation of the decision

706   between mitosis and meiosis in C. elegans. Cell. 1987;51(4):589-99. Epub 1987/11/20.

707   PubMed PMID: 3677168.

708   19.   Henderson ST, Gao D, Lambie EJ, Kimble J. lag-2 may encode a signaling ligand for the

709   GLP-1 and LIN-12 receptors of C. elegans. Development. 1994;120(10):2913-24. Epub

710   1994/10/01. doi: 10.1242/dev.120.10.2913. PubMed PMID: 7607081.

711   20.   Doyle TG, Wen C, Greenwald I. SEL-8, a nuclear protein required for LIN-12 and GLP-1

712   signaling in Caenorhabditis elegans. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2000;97(14):7877-81.

713   Epub 2000/07/08. doi: 10.1073/pnas.97.14.7877. PubMed PMID: 10884418; PubMed

714   Central PMCID: PMC16638.

715   21.   Mickey KM, Mello CC, Montgomery MK, Fire A, Priess JR. An inductive interaction in 4-

716   cell stage C. elegans embryos involves APX-1 expression in the signalling cell.

717   Development. 1996;122(6):1791-8.

718   22.   Priess JR, Schnabel H, Schnabel R. The glp-1 locus and cellular interactions in early C.

719   elegans embryos. Cell. 1987;51(4):601-11. Epub 1987/11/20. PubMed PMID: 3677169.

720   23.   Mello CC, Draper BW, Priess JR. The maternal genes apx-1 and glp-1 and

721   establishment of dorsal-ventral polarity in the early C. elegans embryo. Cell.

722   1994;77(1):95-106. Epub 1994/04/08. PubMed PMID: 8156602.

723   24.   Crittenden SL, Rudel D, Binder J, Evans TC, Kimble J. Genes required for GLP-1

724   asymmetry in the early Caenorhabditis elegans embryo. Dev Biol. 1997;181(1):36-46.

725   25.   Pagano JM, Farley BM, Essien KI, Ryder SP. RNA recognition by the embryonic cell fate

726   determinant and germline totipotency factor MEX-3. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.

727   2009;106(48):20252-7. doi: 10.1073/pnas.0907916106. PubMed PMID: 19915141;

728   PubMed Central PMCID: PMC2787150.

729   26.   Kaymak E, Ryder SP. RNA recognition by the Caenorhabditis elegans oocyte maturation

730   determinant OMA-1. J Biol Chem. 2013;288(42):30463-72. doi:

731   10.1074/jbc.M113.496547. PubMed PMID: 24014033; PubMed Central PMCID:

732   PMC3798510.

733   27.   Tamburino AM, Kaymak E, Shrestha S, Holdorf AD, Ryder SP, Walhout AJM. PRIMA: a

734   gene-centered, RNA-to-protein method for mapping RNA-protein interactions.

735   Translation (Austin). 2017;5(1):e1295130. doi: 10.1080/21690731.2017.1295130.

736   PubMed PMID: 28702278; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC5501385.

737   28.   Lublin AL, Evans TC. The RNA-binding proteins PUF-5, PUF-6, and PUF-7 reveal

738   multiple systems for maternal mRNA regulation during C. elegans oogenesis. Dev Biol.

739   2007;303(2):635-49. Epub 2007/01/20. doi: 10.1016/j.ydbio.2006.12.004. PubMed

740   PMID: 17234175.

741   29.   Marin VA, Evans TC. Translational repression of a C. elegans Notch mRNA by the

742   STAR/KH domain protein GLD-1. Development. 2003;130(12):2623-32. Epub

743   2003/05/09. PubMed PMID: 12736207.

744   30.   Ogura K, Kishimoto N, Mitani S, Gengyo-Ando K, Kohara Y. Translational control of

745   maternal glp-1 mRNA by POS-1 and its interacting protein SPN-4 in Caenorhabditis

746   elegans. Development. 2003;130(11):2495-503. Epub 2003/04/19. doi:

747   10.1242/dev.00469. PubMed PMID: 12702662.

31.   Pagano JM, Farley BM, McCoig LM, Ryder SP. Molecular basis of RNA recognition by

the embryonic polarity determinant MEX-5. J Biol Chem. 2007;282(12):8883-94. doi:

10.1074/jbc.M700079200. PubMed PMID: 17264081.

32.   Farley BM, Ryder SP. POS-1 and GLD-1 repress glp-1 translation through a conserved

binding-site cluster. Mol Biol Cell. 2012;23(23):4473-83. Epub 2012/10/05. doi:

10.1091/mbc.E12-03-0216. PubMed PMID: 23034181; PubMed Central PMCID:

PMC3510010.

33.   Ryder SP, Frater LA, Abramovitz DL, Goodwin EB, Williamson JR. RNA target specificity

of the STAR/GSG domain post-transcriptional regulatory protein GLD-1. Nat Struct Mol

Biol. 2004;11(1):20-8. doi: 10.1038/nsmb706. PubMed PMID: 14718919.

34.   Jungkamp AC, Stoeckius M, Mecenas D, Grun D, Mastrobuoni G, Kempa S, et al. In

vivo and transcriptome-wide identification of RNA binding protein target sites. Mol Cell.

2011;44(5):828-40. Epub 2011/12/14. doi: 10.1016/j.molcel.2011.11.009. PubMed PMID:

22152485; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC3253457.

35.   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(3):533-45. doi: 10.1038/emboj.2010.334. PubMed PMID: 21169991; PubMed

Central PMCID: PMC3034010.

36.   Scheckel C, Gaidatzis D, Wright JE, Ciosk R. Genome-Wide Analysis of GLD-1-

Mediated mRNA Regulation Suggests a Role in mRNA Storage. PLoS Genet.

2012;8(5):e1002742. Epub 2012/06/14. doi: 10.1371/journal.pgen.1002742. PubMed

PMID: 22693456; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC3364957.

37.   Farley BM, Pagano JM, Ryder SP. RNA target specificity of the embryonic cell fate

determinant POS-1. RNA. 2008;14(12):2685-97. doi: 10.1261/rna.1256708. PubMed

PMID: 18952820; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC2590972.

38.   Elkon R, Ugalde AP, Agami R. Alternative cleavage and polyadenylation: extent,

774   regulation and function. Nat Rev Genet. 2013;14(7):496-506. doi: 10.1038/nrg3482.

775   PubMed PMID: 23774734.

776   39.   Mangone M, Manoharan AP, Thierry-Mieg D, Thierry-Mieg J, Han T, Mackowiak SD, et

777   al. The landscape of C. elegans 3'UTRs. Science. 2010;329(5990):432-5. Epub

778   2010/06/05. doi: 10.1126/science.1191244. PubMed PMID: 20522740; PubMed Central

779   PMCID: PMC3142571.

780   40.   Jan CH, Friedman RC, Ruby JG, Bartel DP. Formation, regulation and evolution of

781   Caenorhabditis elegans 3'UTRs. Nature. 2011;469(7328):97-101. Epub 2010/11/19. doi:

782   10.1038/nature09616. PubMed PMID: 21085120; PubMed Central PMCID:

783   PMC3057491.

784   41.   Elewa A, Shirayama M, Kaymak E, Harrison PF, Powell DR, Du Z, et al. POS-1

785   Promotes Endo-mesoderm Development by Inhibiting the Cytoplasmic Polyadenylation

786   of neg-1 mRNA. Dev Cell. 2015;34(1):108-18. doi: 10.1016/j.devcel.2015.05.024.

787   PubMed PMID: 26096734; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC4507413.

788   42.   Lima SA, Chipman LB, Nicholson AL, Chen YH, Yee BA, Yeo GW, et al. Short poly(A)

789   tails are a conserved feature of highly expressed genes. Nat Struct Mol Biol.

790   2017;24(12):1057-63. Epub 2017/11/07. doi: 10.1038/nsmb.3499. PubMed PMID:

791   29106412; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC5877826.

792   43.   Eckmann CR, Kraemer B, Wickens M, Kimble J. GLD-3, a Bicaudal-C homolog that

793   inhibits FBF to control germline sex determination in C-elegans. Developmental Cell.

794   2002;3(5):697-710. PubMed PMID: ISI:000179230900012.

795   44.   Wang L, Eckmann CR, Kadyk LC, Wickens M, Kimble J. A regulatory cytoplasmic

796   poly(A) polymerase in Caenorhabditis elegans. Nature. 2002;419(6904):312-6.

797   45.   Patil DP, Bakthavachalu B, Schoenberg DR. Poly(A) polymerase-based poly(A) length

798   assay. Methods Mol Biol. 2014;1125:13-23. Epub 2014/03/05. doi: 10.1007/978-1-

799   62703-971-0_2. PubMed PMID: 24590776; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC3951053.

800   46.   Schmid M, Kuchler B, Eckmann CR. Two conserved regulatory cytoplasmic poly(A)

801   polymerases, GLD-4 and GLD-2, regulate meiotic progression in C. elegans. Genes

802   Dev. 2009;23(7):824-36. doi: 10.1101/gad.494009. PubMed PMID: 19339688; PubMed

803   Central PMCID: PMC2666339.

804   47.   Nousch M, Yeroslaviz A, Habermann B, Eckmann CR. The cytoplasmic poly(A)

805   polymerases GLD-2 and GLD-4 promote general gene expression via distinct

806   mechanisms. Nucleic Acids Res. 2015;42(18):11622-33. doi: 10.1093/nar/gku838.

807   PubMed PMID: 25217583.

808   48.   Sorensen EB, Seidel HS, Crittenden SL, Ballard JH, Kimble J. A toolkit of tagged glp-1

809   alleles reveals strong glp-1 expression in the germline, embryo, and spermatheca.

810   MicroPubl Biol. 2020;2020. Epub 2020/07/07. doi: 10.17912/micropub.biology.000271.

811   PubMed PMID: 32626848; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC7326335.

812   49.   Brown HE, Varderesian HV, Keane SA, Ryder SP. The mex-3 3' untranslated region is

813   essential for reproduction during temperature stress. bioRxiv. 2025. Epub 2025/02/20.

814   doi: 10.1101/2024.04.01.587367v2. PubMed PMID: 38798418; PubMed Central PMCID:

815   PMC11123400.

816   50.   Varderesian HV, Utaegbulam JN, Brown HE, Ramirez B, Velcani M, Ryder SP. The pos-1

817   3' untranslated region governs germline specification and proliferation to ensure

818   reproductive robustness. bioRxiv. 2025. Epub 2025/12/17. doi:

819   10.1101/2025.11.26.690476. PubMed PMID: 41404608; PubMed Central PMCID:

820   PMC12703999.

821   51.   Berry LW, Westlund B, Schedl T. Germ-line tumor formation caused by activation of glp-

822   1, a Caenorhabditis elegans member of the Notch family of receptors. Development.

1997;124(4):925-36. Epub 1997/02/01. doi: 10.1242/dev.124.4.925. PubMed PMID:

9043073.

52.   Lui DY, Colaiácovo MP. Meiotic development in Caenorhabditis elegans. Adv Exp Med

Biol. 2013;757:133-70. Epub 2012/08/09. doi: 10.1007/978-1-4614-4015-4_6. PubMed

PMID: 22872477; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC3764601.

53.   Li R, Hu K, Liu H, Green MR, Zhu LJ. OneStopRNAseq: A Web Application for

Comprehensive and Efficient Analyses of RNA-Seq Data. Genes (Basel). 2020;11(10).

Epub 2020/10/08. doi: 10.3390/genes11101165. PubMed PMID: 33023248; PubMed

Central PMCID: PMC7650687.

54.   Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for

RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biol. 2014;15(12):550. Epub 2014/12/18. doi:

10.1186/s13059-014-0550-8. PubMed PMID: 25516281; PubMed Central PMCID:

PMC4302049.

55.   Higgins DP, Weisman CM, Lui DS, D'Agostino FA, Walker AK. Defining characteristics

and conservation of poorly annotated genes in Caenorhabditis elegans using WormCat

2.0. Genetics. 2022;221(4). Epub 2022/05/20. doi: 10.1093/genetics/iyac085. PubMed

PMID: 35587742; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC9339291.

56.   Angeles-Albores D, RY NL, Chan J, Sternberg PW. Tissue enrichment analysis for C.

elegans genomics. BMC Bioinformatics. 2016;17(1):366. Epub 2016/09/14. doi:

10.1186/s12859-016-1229-9. PubMed PMID: 27618863; PubMed Central PMCID:

PMC5020436.

57.   Huggins HP, Subash JS, Stoffel H, Henderson MA, Hoffman JL, Buckner DS, et al.

Distinct roles of two eIF4E isoforms in the germline of Caenorhabditis elegans. J Cell

Sci. 2020;133(6). Epub 2020/02/23. doi: 10.1242/jcs.237990. PubMed PMID: 32079657;

PubMed Central PMCID: PMC7132772.

58.   Calvo AC, Pey AL, Ying M, Loer CM, Martinez A. Anabolic function of phenylalanine

hydroxylase in Caenorhabditis elegans. FASEB journal : official publication of the

Federation of American Societies for Experimental Biology. 2008;22(8):3046-58. Epub

2008/05/08. doi: 10.1096/fj.08-108522. PubMed PMID: 18460651.

59.   Harris TR, Aronov PA, Jones PD, Tanaka H, Arand M, Hammock BD. Identification of two

epoxide hydrolases in Caenorhabditis elegans that metabolize mammalian lipid signaling

molecules. Archives of biochemistry and biophysics. 2008;472(2):139-49. Epub

2008/02/13. doi: 10.1016/j.abb.2008.01.016. PubMed PMID: 18267101; PubMed Central

PMCID: PMC2435305.

60.   Shaye DD, Greenwald I. OrthoList: a compendium of C. elegans genes with human

orthologs. PLoS One. 2011;6(5):e20085. Epub 2011/06/08. doi:

10.1371/journal.pone.0020085. PubMed PMID: 21647448; PubMed Central PMCID:

PMC3102077.

61.   Dong B, Valencia CA, Liu R. Ca(2+)/calmodulin directly interacts with the pleckstrin

homology domain of AKT1. J Biol Chem. 2007;282(34):25131-40. Epub 2007/06/21. doi:

10.1074/jbc.M702123200. PubMed PMID: 17580302.

62.   Okahata M, Sawada N, Nakao K, Ohta A, Kuhara A. Screening for cold tolerance genes

in C. elegans, whose expressions are affected by anticancer drugs camptothecin and

leptomycin B. Scientific reports. 2024;14(1):5401. Epub 2024/03/06. doi:

10.1038/s41598-024-55794-z. PubMed PMID: 38443452; PubMed Central PMCID:

PMC10914781.

63.   Karplus K, Barrett C, Hughey R. Hidden Markov models for detecting remote protein

homologies. Bioinformatics. 1998;14(10):846-56. Epub 1999/02/03. PubMed PMID:

9927713.

64. Kamath RS, Fraser AG, Dong Y, Poulin G, Durbin R, Gotta M, et al. Systematic

functional analysis of the Caenorhabditis elegans genome using RNAi. Nature.

2003;421(6920):231-7.

65. Alper S, Laws R, Lackford B, Boyd WA, Dunlap P, Freedman JH, et al. Identification of

innate immunity genes and pathways using a comparative genomics approach. Proc

Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2008;105(19):7016-21. Epub 2008/05/09. doi:

10.1073/pnas.0802405105. PubMed PMID: 18463287; PubMed Central PMCID:

PMC2383967.

66. Sundaram P, Echalier B, Han W, Hull D, Timmons L. ATP-binding cassette transporters

are required for efficient RNA interference in Caenorhabditis elegans. Mol Biol Cell.

2006;17(8):3678-88. Epub 2006/05/26. doi: 10.1091/mbc.e06-03-0192. PubMed PMID:

16723499; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC1525249.

67. Huang LS, Tzou P, Sternberg PW. The lin-15 locus encodes two negative regulators of

Caenorhabditis elegans vulval development. Mol Biol Cell. 1994;5(4):395-411. Epub

1994/04/01. doi: 10.1091/mbc.5.4.395. PubMed PMID: 8054684; PubMed Central

PMCID: PMC301050.

68. Brenner S. The genetics of Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics. 1974;77(1):71-94. Epub

1974/05/01. PubMed PMID: 4366476; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC1213120.

69. Ghanta KS, Mello CC. Melting dsDNA Donor Molecules Greatly Improves Precision

Genome Editing in Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics. 2020;216(3):643-50. Epub

2020/09/24. doi: 10.1534/genetics.120.303564. PubMed PMID: 32963112; PubMed

Central PMCID: PMC7648581.

70. Fraser AG, Kamath RS, Zipperlen P, Martinez-Campos M, Sohrmann M, Ahringer J.

Functional genomic analysis of C. elegans chromosome I by systematic RNA

interference. Nature. 2000;408(6810):325-30.

71.   Kamath RS, Ahringer J. Genome-wide RNAi screening in Caenorhabditis elegans.

898   Methods. 2003;30(4):313-21.

899   72.   Conte D, Jr., Mello CC. RNA interference in Caenorhabditis elegans. Current protocols in

900   molecular biology / edited by Frederick M Ausubel [et al]. 2003;Chapter 26:Unit 26 3.

901   Epub 2008/02/12. doi: 10.1002/0471142727.mb2603s62. PubMed PMID: 18265327.

902   73.   Keiper BD, Lamphear BJ, Deshpande AM, Jankowska-Anyszka M, Aamodt EJ,

903   Blumenthal T, et al. Functional characterization of five eIF4E isoforms in Caenorhabditis

904   elegans. J Biol Chem. 2000;275(14):10590-6. Epub 2000/04/01. doi:

905   10.1074/jbc.275.14.10590. PubMed PMID: 10744754.

906   74.   Harrison PF, Powell DR, Clancy JL, Preiss T, Boag PR, Traven A, et al. PAT-seq: a

907   method to study the integration of 3'-UTR dynamics with gene expression in the

908   eukaryotic transcriptome. Rna. 2015;21(8):1502-10. Epub 2015/06/21. doi:

909   10.1261/rna.048355.114. PubMed PMID: 26092945; PubMed Central PMCID:

910   PMC4509939.

911   75.   Duan Y, Sun Y, Ambros V. RNA-seq with RNase H-based ribosomal RNA depletion

912   specifically designed for C. elegans. MicroPubl Biol. 2020;2020. Epub 2020/10/03. doi:

913   10.17912/micropub.biology.000312. PubMed PMID: 33005886; PubMed Central PMCID:

914   PMC7520128.

915   76.   Holdorf AD, Higgins DP, Hart AC, Boag PR, Pazour GJ, Walhout AJM, et al. WormCat:

916   An Online Tool for Annotation and Visualization of Caenorhabditis elegans Genome-

917   Scale Data. Genetics. 2020;214(2):279-94. Epub 2019/12/08. doi:

918   10.1534/genetics.119.302919. PubMed PMID: 31810987; PubMed Central PMCID:

919   PMC7017019.

 FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig. 1. Expression pattern and 3'UTR diagram of *glp-1*. **A.** Anatomy of an adult hermaphrodite

germline. The pattern of *glp-1* mRNA is shown in light orange. This image is modified from our

previous figure published in [15] under the CC BY license. **B.** The pattern of GLP-1 protein is

shown in the germline and early embryos in green. **C.** Diagram of the *glp-1* 3'UTR, with a map of

both confirmed binding sites for POS-1 (pink) and GLD-1 (blue), as well as predicted sites match-

ing motifs recognized by FBF (gray) or MEX-3 (purple).

Fig. 2. UTR isoform and polyA tail analysis of *glp-1* and *glp-1* 3'UTR reporter transcripts. **A.** The

glp-1 3'UTR isoforms that can be formed by alternative polyadenylation are shown. We only ob-

serve isoform D (green) in our analysis of endogenous and reporter transcripts. The location of

binding sites for POS-1 (pink) and GLD-1 (blue) is shown with dashed lines. **B.** Box plot of the

polyA tail length distributions of endogenous *glp-1* polyA transcripts in embryos as a function of

various RBP knock downs or mutants. The data are from genome wide PAT-test data published

by Elewa et al. and available in Bioproject PRJNA248698 [41]. Each gray circle represents the

polyA tail length from a *glp-1* read in the sequencing library (see methods). Asterisks represent

near Tukey outliers, and "X" denotes far Tukey outliers (near outliers are 1.5X larger or smaller

than the inner quartile range, far outliers are 3x). Whiskers represent the full range of the data.

The number of reads analyzed is shown below. The horizontal line represents the median tail

length. **C.** Diagram of the *glp-1* 3'UTR reporter transgenes used in this study (top) [32]. The mu-

tations present in each strain are shown in red. The assay design for polyA tail length distribution

measurements of the reporter transgenes is shown (bottom). Red arrows indicate gene and tail

specific primer sets. The letter "I" indicates inosine. **D.** Box plot of the polyA tail distributions of the

glp-1 3'UTR reporter transgenes from PAT assays outlined in (C). Each gray circle indicates the

length of a polyA tail from an individual Sanger sequencing read. The number of colonies

sequenced is shown below. The median, near and far outliers, and the full range of the data are

shown as in (B). The color scheme for each reporter transgene variant follows the colors used in

panel C. Dashed lines and black asterisks indicate statistically significant differences between the

indicated distributions in a one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni multiple hypothesis correction ($p_{adj} <$

0.05).

Fig. 3 Impact of post-transcriptional regulatory mechanisms on *glp-1* 3'UTR reporter transgene

expression. **A.** Diagram of a 4-cell embryo with the pattern of GLP-1 protein (green) and mRNA

(light blue) shown (left). DIC (top) and GFP (bottom) images of 4-cell embryos recovered from

each of the *glp-1* 3'UTR reporter transgenes [32]. **B.** Violin plots of the fluorescence intensity of

each 4-cell embryo from each strain under control RNAi treatment. Each gray circle represents a

unique embryo. The horizontal black line represents the mean. Asterisks indicate statistically sig-

nificant increases in a one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction for multiple hypothesis testing

($p_{adj} < 0.05$). The color scheme for each variant follows figure 2C. The total number of 4-cell em-

bryos imaged is shown below. **C.** Same as in B, except control (ctl), *gld-2*, and *gld-4* RNAi are

used with the WT UTR reporter. **D.** Same as in C, except with the GBM mutant UTR reporter, and

double asterisks indicate statistically significant decreases in a one-way ANOVA with multiple hy-

pothesis correction. **E.** Same as in D except with the PRE mutant reporter. **F.** Images of young

adult hermaphrodite germlines in the *glp-1* WT 3'UTR reporter transgenic line with both DIC optics

(top) and GFP optics (bottom). In the DIC images, the germline is outlined in green. In the GFP

images, the four most proximal oocytes are bracketed in yellow. Left is treated with control RNAi,

right is treated with *ife-3* RNAi. **G.** Violin plot of the mean pixel intensity in the four most proximal

oocytes in images of germlines from the WT UTR reporter strain (green), the GBM mutant UTR

reporter strain (blue), and the PRE mutant UTR reporter strain (pink). The identity of the RNAi

target for each experiment is shown. Each dot represents an individual germline. The black bar

represents the median. The number of germlines imaged is shown below. The asterisks represent

statical significance in a one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction. **H**. Model for *glp-1* activation

by GLD-2, repression by GLD-4, and repression by IFE-3. Only repression by GLD-4 is strain-

specific.

Fig. 4 CRISPR *glp-1* 3'UTR alleles made in the endogenous *glp-1(q977[glp-1::2X OLLAS]*) ge-

netic background [48]. The position of the GLD-1 (blue) and POS-1 (pink) binding sites are shown.

The blue and pink "X" marks represent the same mutations as diagrammed in figure 2C in the

context of the endogenous locus. The black "X" marks indicate deletion of the PAM and mutation

of a HindIII site to simplify screening (aagctt–aagcGt). The purple box denoted Δ71 indicates the

position of a 71 base pair deletion. The color of the GLP-1::2xOLLAS boxes corresponds to the

quantitation shown in part B and C. **B.** Violin plots representing the distribution of the total number

of embryos produced by a single hermaphrodite (each gray circle represents the total brood from

one animal). The genotype, growth temperature (20ºC and 25ºC), and the number of animals

assessed is shown per violin. Black bars represent the mean. The colors correspond to genotype

as per (A). Asterisks indicate statistical significance in a one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni correc-

tion for multiple hypothesis testing. **C.** Box plots of the hatch rate of the embryos produced from

each animal in panel (B). The individual gray circles are the hatch rate per animal, the asterisks

and "X" marks represent near and far Tukey outliers as in figure 2B. The total number of animals

assessed is listed below. The bold asterisks and gray dashed lines represent statistical signifi-

cance in a one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction. The notches and horizontal lines indicate

the mean.

Fig. 5 Terminal phenotype of *glp-1(Δ71) embryos*. **A.** DIC images of early and late embryos from the *glp-1(WT)*, *glp-1(Δ71)*, and *glp-1(ts)* strains. The arrows and circles identify zones of clearing presumably due to apoptosis that appear to be unique to the *glp-1(Δ71)* strain. Embryonic defects appear to manifest in younger embryos than in *glp-1(ts)* embryos. **B.** Stacked bar graph representing the percentage of normal vs. abnormal embryos observed in all three strains. The orange color reflects the fraction abnormal. Asterisks indicate statistical significance in a Chi Square test comparing each mutant to WT, with Bonferroni correction for multiple hypothesis testing.

Fig. 6 Increased mitosis in the distal germline of *glp-1(Δ71)* embryos. **A.** Anti-OLLAS immuno-fluorescence, **B.** DAPI staining, and **D.** DIC images of fixed gonads from *glp-1(WT)* worms. The white dashed line in (A) indicates an example of the distance of OLLAS staining for this gonad. The white dashed line in (B) indicates the distance from the distal end to the first meiotic nucleus. **D-F.** are images collected as in (A-C) except they are of fixed gonads from *glp-1(Δ71)* worms. The white arrows in panel E indicate mitotic figures. **G.** Violin plots representing the distribution of lengths of OLLAS staining (left) or the distribution of distance from the distal tip to the first meiotic nucleus (right) for both strains. The violin plots are colored to match the strains shown in figure 4A. Asterisks indicate statistical significance in a two-tailed t-test. The number of gonads analyzed is given below. **H.** Violin plots of the distribution of mitotic figures in the DAPI images in both strains. Coloring and statistical analysis are as in (G). **I.** Anti-PH-3 immunofluorescence and **J.** DIC images of fixed gonads dissected from *glp-1(WT)* animals. The white dashed bracket indicates PH-3 positive cells in the distal end of the germline. **K-L.** Anti-PH-3 and DIC images as in (I) and (J) except gonads were dissected from *glp-1(Δ71)* animals. **M.** Violin plot of the distribution of the number of PH-3 positive cells in both strains. Coloring and statistics are as in panel (G).

Fig. 7 RNA-seq analysis of staged young adults including all strains from figure 4A. **A.** Volcano

plot of *glp-1(WT)* vs. *glp-1(Δ71)*. Gray circles indicate genes where the expression does not

change or is not significant in a DESeq2 analysis comparing mutant to wild type expression, with

a $\log_2$ fold change cut off greater than 0.585, less than -0.585, and a p_{adj} threshold of less than

0.05. Increased genes are labeled in blue, and decreased genes are labeled in red. The total

number of differentially expressed genes is given. **B.** Volcano plot as in (A), except *glp-1(GBM)*

gene expression is compared to *glp-1(WT*)*. **C.** Same as in (B), except *glp-1(PRE)* gene expres-

sion is compared to *glp-1(WT*)*. **D.** The overlap in the identity of differentially upregulated genes

is compared between all three mutants in the Venn diagram. The circles are colored by genotype

as in figure 4A. **E.** A Venn diagram as in (D), except downregulated genes are compared. **F.**

Wormcat 2.0 analysis of the total regulated gene set in *glp-1(Δ71)* vs. *glp-1(WT)*. Category 1 (non-

italics) and 2 (italics) changes are grouped by pathway. The size of the circle indicates the counts

of genes in each category, and the color represents the P-value from the Wormcat 2.0 analysis.

TABLE 1: Strains used in this study

Strain ID	Genotype	Approach	Reference
N2	WT	N/A	[68]
WRM5	*sprSi5[Pmex-5::MODC PEST:GFP:H2B::glp-1 3'UTR cb-unc-119(+)]* II, *unc-119(ed3)* III	mosSCI	[32]
WRM6	*sprSi6[Pmex-5::MODC PEST:GFP:H2B::glp-1 3'UTR(ΔGBM) cb-unc-119(+)]* II, *unc-119(ed3)* III	mosSCI	[32]
WRM9	*sprSi9[Pmex-5::MODC PEST:GFP:H2B::glp-1 3'UTR(Δ5'3' PRE) cb-unc-119(+)]* II, *unc-119(ed3)* III	mosSCI	[32]
JK5973	*glp-1(q997[glp-1::2xOLLAS])* III	CRISPR	[48]
WRM73	*glp-1(spr16[q997*(glp-1::2XOL-LAS::Δ71_3'UTR])* III	CRISPR	This paper
WRM83	*glp-1(spr21[q997*(glp-1::2XOL-LAS::WT_3'UTR (HindIII site)]* III	CRISPR	This paper
WRM84	*glp-1(spr22[q997*(glp-1::2XOLLAS:: 5'3'PRE _3'UTR (HindIII site)]* III	CRISPR	This paper
WRM109	*glp-1(spr33[q997*(glp-1::2XOL-LAS::GBM_3'UTR (HindIII site)]* III	CRISPR	This paper
EU552	*glp-1(or178)* III	EMS	Un-published

1033

 SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

 1. Supplemental Table 1: Primers and oligonucleotides
 2. Supplemental Data Set 1: Numerical data and statistical tests (.xlsx)
 3. Supplemental Data Set 2: RNA sequencing analysis output files (.tar.gz)
 4. Supplemental Data Set 3: Scripts and output for PAT-seq analyses (.tar.gz)

 Supplemental Table 1 *Primers and oligonucleotides used in this study*

Name	Sequence (5' to 3')	Purpose
ife-1F	5'-TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGGTCAGATTCTGAAATAGCATTT-GAGAAGC-3'	RNAi
ife-1R	5'-TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGGACGGCGGATTTCTCGGC-3'	RNAi
ife-2F	5'-TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGGTCCGAAGAACCAGTCGCAG-3'	RNAi
ife-2R	5'-TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGTAAGTGGCTGGTGTGGCAGG-3'	RNAi
ife-3F	5'-TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGGAGGATTGTCTGAA-GATGGTTTCACTTTTCG-3'	RNAi
ife-3R	5'-TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGGAGATCTTTAGAA-TATGCTTAAGGAGTTGGGG-3'	RNAi
F21	5'-CGGTCAATGCGATGTGGTAT-3'	PCR
R21	5'-GAGCCTCGAGAATGGTGAGT-3'	PCR
C10T2	5'-CCCCCCCCCCTT-3'	CDNA
M13RC0T2 for tail	5'-CAGGAAACAGCTATGACCCCCCCCCCCTT-3'	PCR
FP	5'-GCGATGGCCCTGTCCTTTTA-3'	PCR
RP for gene	5'-GGGACCAGTGTCTGGGTGATGT-3'	PCR

gld-2F	5'-AGTACGGCCGTTGGTATCAG-3'	RNAi
gld-2R	5'-ATGTTGCTGCTGATTGTTGC-3'	RNAi
gld-4F	5'-TTTCGGAGCGAGAAGACACT-3'	RNAi
gld-4R	5'-GTGGCTGAGTTGTTGTCGAA-3'	RNAi
crRNA	5'-CTTATACTCTTAATCTGATT-3'	CRISPR
Repair DNA Oligo Δ71	5'- CAGACACTGGTCCCCACAGAGTTTTTTGTATACTACAGAT-TAAGAGTATAAGCTTTGTTTTTTCTCCTTT-3'	CRISPR
ssODN WT*	5'-TATTGTAAGCTATAAGTTGTAGAATAATTATTGATAATCAGAT-TAAGAGTATAAGCGTT-GTTTTTTCTCCTTTTCTTTATAACTTGTTACAA-3'	CRISPR
ssODN GBM	5'-GTATACTATTTCGGGTCATTTTTCTTATTCTAGACCAA-TATTGTAAGCTATAAGTTGTAGAA-TAATTATTGATAATCAGATTAAGAGTATAAGCGTTGTTTTTTCTCCTTTTCTTTATAACTTGTTACAA-3'	CRISPR
ssODN 5'3'PRE	5'-AGAGTTTTTTGTATACTATTTCGGGTCATTTTTCTCCCTCTA-GACTAACCCTGTAAGC-TATAAGTTGTAGAATAATTATTGATAATCAGATTAAGAGTATAAGCGTTGTTTTTTCTCCTTTTCTTTATAACTTGTTACAA-3'	CRISPR

1041

1042

A. Mitosis Transition Zone Pachytene *glp-1* mRNA Diplotene
DTC Diakinesis Bivalent Late Oocytes Early Oocytes Sperm Embryos

B. GLP-1 Protein

C. ~100 nt
FBF-1 FBF-1 FBF-1
MEX-3 GLD-1 MEX-3
POS-1 POS-1 POS-1
glp-1

Figure 1
Coskun and Ryder, 2026

Figure 2
Coskun and Ryder, 2026

Figure 3
Coskun and Ryder, 2026

Figure 4
Coskun and Ryder, 2026

Figure 5
Coskun and Ryder, 2026

Figure 6
Coskun and Ryder, 2026

Figure 7
Coskun and Ryder, 2026