1 **Impact of transposable elements on methylation and gene expression across**
2 **natural accessions of *Brachypodium distachyon.***
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Abstract
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Transposable elements (TEs) constitute a large fraction of plant genomes and are

mostly present in a transcriptionally silent state through repressive epigenetic

modifications such as DNA methylation. TE silencing is believed to influence the

regulation of adjacent genes, possibly as DNA methylation spreads away from the

TE. Whether this is a general principle or a context-dependent phenomenon is still

under debate, pressing for studying the relationship between TEs, DNA methylation

and nearby gene expression in additional plant species. Here we used the grass

Brachypodium distachyon as a model and produced DNA methylation and

transcriptome profiles for eleven natural accessions. In contrast to what is observed in

Arabidopsis thaliana, we found that TEs have a limited impact on methylation

spreading and that only few TE families are associated to a low expression of their

adjacent genes. Interestingly, we found that a subset of TE insertion polymorphisms is

associated with differential gene expression across accessions. Thus, although not

having a global impact on gene expression, distinct TE insertions may contribute to

specific gene expression patterns in *B. distachyon*.

Key words: Transposable elements, DNA methylation, gene expression,
Brachypodium distachyon

Significance statement: Transposable elements (TEs) are a major component of

plant genomes and a source of genetic and epigenetic innovations underlying

adaptation to changing environmental conditions. Yet molecular evidence linking TE

silencing and nearby gene expression are lacking for many plant species. We show

that in the model grass Brachypodium DNA methylation spreads over very short
distances around TEs, with an influence on gene expression for a small subset of TE
families.
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Introduction

Since their discovery by Barbara McClintock in the late 1940's (McClintock 1947), transposable elements (TEs) have been shown to populate a large fraction of eukaryotic genomes and to be an important source of genetic and phenotypic diversity. This is explained by the observation that TEs have the ability to modulate nearby gene expression and can remodel genomes when activated by stress (Grandbastien 1998; Grandbastien 2005; Thieme et al. 2017), thereby providing raw diversity necessary for adaptation to changing environments (Bonchev and Parisod 2013; Rey et al. 2016). Remarkable examples of single-trait modulation by a TE insertion providing a selective advantage have been reported in both plants and animals (Guio et al. 2014; Van't Hof et al. 2016; Horváth et al. 2017).

While TEs can provide selective advantages, their mutagenic properties may at the same time represent a threat for the integrity of the host genome (McClintock 1950; Shang et al. 2017; Thind et al. 2018). In response, genomes have evolved several layers of defence to contain TE activity. In plants, transcriptional repression of TEs is mediated by the RNA-directed DNA methylation (RdDM) pathway (for review Sigman and Slotkin 2016; Zhang et al. 2018). Initiated by the plant-specific RNA polymerase IV (*Pol IV*), TE transcription leads to the formation of 24 nt siRNA targeting DNA methylation at the TE source locus. Acting as a double-edged sword, DNA (and histone) methylation may spread to neighbouring regions and possibly contribute the alteration of adjacent gene expression (Hollister et al. 2010; Wang et al. 2013).

Recent studies reported on the impact of TEs on DNA methylation and expression of nearby genes in different plant species (Eichten et al. 2012; Makarevitch et al. 2015; Eichten et al. 2016; Choi and Purugganan 2017; Wang et al. 2018). Yet, most of our knowledge on the regulatory mechanisms largely rely on the eudicot model *Arabidopsis thaliana* (for review Sigman and Slotkin 2016; Zhang et al. 2018). In *A. thaliana*, the presence of TEs tends to be associated with a reduced expression of adjacent genes (Wang et al. 2013), but whether this also occurs in other species remains to be demonstrated (Choi and Purugganan 2017). In this context, we contributed an analysis of DNA methylation and gene expression in the model grass *Brachypodium distachyon*.

Established as an important model for functional genomics, the small genome
of *B. distachyon* (272 Mb; 30% of TEs) is fully sequenced and assembled into five
chromosomes (The International Brachypodium Consortium 2010). Comparative
genomics and cytogenetic analyses (Hasterok et al. 2019) showed that it underwent
multiple and independent nested chromosome fusions which resulted in a higher gene
density at the former distal regions of the inserted chromosomes. Furthermore, TEs
are much more pervasive than in *A. thaliana,* and although their dynamics is well
characterized in *B. distachyon* (Stritt et al. 2018; Stritt et al. 2019), little is know
about their functional impact. We therefore asked to what extent TEs influence DNA
methylation and gene expression in *B. distachyon,* and how these patterns differ from
what is observed in *A. thaliana.* In *A. thaliana,* the impact of TEs on adjacent gene
expression is extremely consistent across genetically distinct ecotypes originating
from the USA (Col-0), Portugal (C24) and Ireland (Bur0; Wang et al. 2013). We thus
chose Col-0 as a representative of the species. For *B. distachyon*, less information is
available at such a broad geographical scale. We therefore included in our analysis the
reference Bd21, which originates from Iraq, as well as ten additional accessions from
Spain, France, Iraq and Turkey to further investigate potential within-species
variation.

Results and Discussion

TEs largely shape genome-wide DNA methylation patterns in Brachypodium
We produced bisulfite- and RNA-sequencing data for eleven *B. distachyon*
accessions. SNPs (Gordon et al. 2017; Stritt et al. 2018) and methylation profiling
support their split into three distinct genetic clusters (Figure S1): Western (ABR2,
Luc1, Bd30-1 and Sig2; Spain and France), Eastern (the reference accession Bd21,
Bd21-3, Bd3-1, BdTR12C and Koz3; Iraq and Turkey) and accessions from a third
cluster (BdTR7a, Bd1-1; Turkey) showing a delay in flowering time (Gordon et al.
2017; Stritt et al. 2018). In agreement with the genetic distances calculated with SNPs
(Gordon et al. 2017; Stritt et al. 2018), the methylation-based PCA confirms that
accessions from the Eastern cluster are more closely related to accessions from the
Western cluster than to the two other Turkish accessions BdTR7a and Bd1-1. We also
used publically available bisulfite- and RNA-sequencing data for the reference
accession Col-0 of *A. thaliana* (Table S1).

We first estimated methylation levels (expressed as the percentage of
methylated cytosines), gene and TE density in 100 kb windows for the reference
genomes of *A. thaliana* (Col-0) and *B. distachyon* (Bd21). The circular visualisation
of these three genomic features reveals two distinct architectures: genes and TEs are
clearly compartmentalised in *A. thaliana* (Figure 1A) while largely interspersed in
B. distachyon (Figure 1B). Yet we found that DNA methylation is positively
correlated with TE density and negatively correlated with gene density in both species
(Figure S2). We then estimated the methylation level of genes and TEs, aggregating
the latter at the superfamily level. TE body methylation is significantly higher than
gene body methylation in the two species, although variability is observed among TE
superfamilies (Figure 1C and D, Table S2-S4 for P-values). Genome-wide DNA
methylation patterns are thus largely shaped by TEs in *B. distachyon,* like in other
flowering plants species (Zhang et al. 2006; Regulski et al. 2013; Takuno and Gaut
2013; Seymour et al. 2014). We also found that most TE superfamilies and genes
show a higher level of body methylation in *B. distachyon* than in *A. thaliana* (Figure
1C and D, Table S5 for P-values), confirming a low genome-wide level of body
methylation in *A. thaliana* compared to other species (Seymour et al. 2014, Eichten et
al. 2016).

We finally assessed how far methylation spreads around TEs. To do so, we
estimated methylation levels in 100 bp windows spanning 2.5 kb around each TE
insertion and averaged the values per TE superfamily. We also categorized TE
insertions depending on their location on the chromosome (arm vs. centromere) and
visualised the results by producing heatmaps. For the three contexts, we observe that
DNA methylation around TEs spreads over longer distances in gene-poor centromeric
regions than in distal regions of the chromosome arm in *A. thaliana* (Figure 2). In
B. distachyon, spreading mostly reaches a few 100 bp, except around centromeric
Gypsy elements where methylation tends to spread beyond 2 kb (Figure 2). Thus, in
contrast to our expectations, high levels of TE body methylation in *B. distachyon* are
generally not accompanied with a long spreading of methylation, neither in the
centromeres nor on the chromosome arms. This is surprising given that extended
methylation spreading around TE is associated to gene-poor pericentromeric regions
in rice (Choi and Purugganan, 2017), a species closely related to *B. distachyon*.

Because patterns are consistent across CpG, CHH and CHG contexts, we
concentrated the rest of the analysis on CpG methylation.

Impact of TEs on nearby gene expression

In *A. thaliana*, genes flanked by a TE within 2 kb show reduced expression compared
to genes devoid of TEs in their vicinity (Wang et al. 2013). It was proposed that this
may result from a combined effect of DNA methylation spreading and DNA structure
variation (Wang et al. 2013). For both the reference accessions Col-0 and Bd21 we
estimated the average level of expression for genes having a TE (regardless of the
type of TE) in their sequence or within windows ranging from near vicinity (0-200
bp) to up to 2 kb (Figure S3). While we reproduced the pattern described above with
publically available data in *A. thaliana*, our analysis shows that TEs do not have such
an effect on nearby gene expression in *B. distachyon*. To rule out potential technical
artefacts, we extended the analysis to the ten additional *B. distachyon* accessions we
sampled but did not observe any overall effect of TEs on nearby gene expression
either (Figure S3). This is also surprising as the distance between a given gene and its
closest TE is significantly smaller (Wilcoxon-test, P-value <0.0001; Figure S3) in
Bd21 (1,074 bp) than in Col-0 (5,457bp).

The effect of TEs on methylation and gene expression is known to be family-
dependent (Eichten et al. 2012; Choi and Purugganan 2017), which might explain
why no effect is observed when all TEs are pooled. We therefore repeated this
analysis separately for the ten most active TE families (Stritt et al. 2018) in all eleven
B. distachyon accessions to explore potential genetic background effects. We also
produced heatmaps as described above to assess a potential link between methylation
spreading around these ten TE families and nearby gene expression. Methylation
spreading was in a second step used to statistically cluster the ten families.
Eventually, as young TEs might be more efficiently targeted by silencing
mechanisms, we extracted the age of each copy from Stritt et al. (2019). For four of
the ten families, this analysis allowed to uncover clear effects on gene expression
following two distinct patterns (Figure 3A): a short-distance effect (< 400 bp; all P-
values <0.001) conveyed by two *Gypsy* families (RLG_Bdis0039 and RLG_Bdis004)
and one *Copia* (RLC_Bdis022) family; and a long-distance effect (1 kb; P-values
<0.001) for the *Gypsy* element RLG_Bdis180. However, methylation spreading is

unlikely to be involved as our hierarchical clustering shows that spreading varies from

long (RLG_Bdis004, RLG_Bdis180) to intermediate (RLG_Bdis0039) and short

(RLG_Bdis022) around these four families (Figure 3B). In the same manner, there is

no clear association neither with the age of the family (Figure 3B) nor with the

genetic background as all accessions show comparable gene expression patterns

(Figure 3A). It is nonetheless worth noting that RLG_Bdis004 and RLC_Bdis022 are

two of the most recently active families in the genome of *B. distachyon* (Stritt et al.

2019), suggesting a possible scenario where *de novo* silencing of these two elements

may influence nearby-gene regulation. Altogether, not more than 131 genes are

influenced by one of these four families, confirming that the impact of TEs on gene

expression is limited in *B. distachyon*.

We eventually investigated the impact of TE insertion polymorphisms (TIPs)

on gene expression. Overall, we identified 1,833 high-confidence TIPs, i.e. insertions

present in at least one of the ten natural accessions but absent from the reference

genome Bd21 (Table S6). Due to the relative small number of TIPs located nearby

genes, we lacked power to investigate their impact on gene expression at the family

level. To circumvent this difficulty, we measured the log-fold change in gene

expression for loci harbouring a TIP in their vicinity (<1 kb) compared to the same

loci without a TIP in a different accession. We found that the majority of the TIPs

have no effect on adjacent gene expression (Figure S4), consistent with previous

findings that TE polymorphisms have little impact on methylation spreading in

B. distachyon (Eichten et al. 2016). These results contrast again with what is found in

A. thaliana, where polymorphic TEs are associated with differential expression of

nearby-genes among natural accessions (Stuart et al. 2016). Despite the lack of global

effect, a subset of 32 TIPs show a significant effect on nearby gene expression at high

confidence (Table S7), providing candidates for further functional validation.

Genome organization and functional impact of TEs

The differences observed between the two species may result from the nature of their

TEs. Notably, the genome of *B. distachyon* display a much higher ratio of solo-

LTRs:intact copies for both conserved elements and TIPs (up to 14:1 for some

families; Stritt et al. 2019) compared to *A. thaliana*, where the number of intact copies

approximate the number of solo-LTRs (Devos et al. 2002). This may reflect a much

broader aspect of the TE dynamics in the two species and one could assume that

B. distachyon harbours overall a much larger proportion of non-functional TEs than

A. thaliana. As non-functional elements might be less efficiently targeted by

silencing, they might have in return a limited influence on their neighbouring genes.

This hypothesis, however, does not hold for rice. There, the ratio solo-LTR:intact

elements is 1.6:1 (Tian et al. 2009) and therefore does not differ much from the one

found in *A. thaliana*. Yet, TEs also have little impact on gene expression in rice (Choi

and Purugganan 2017).

As an alternative hypothesis, methylation spreading has been suggested to be

under purifying selection (Choi and Purugganan 2017) and such a mechanism may

largely constrain the impact of TEs on adjacent genes. Compared to *A. thaliana*, TEs

and genes are largely interspersed in both *B. distachyon* and rice (Garg et al. 2015)

and selection against the deleterious effect of TEs might be stronger in such systems.

We therefore suggest that the differences we observed between *A. thaliana* and

B. distachyon with regard to the functional impact of TEs are largely inherent to the

contrasting architecture of their genomes. In the light of the current results and recent

studies (Seymour et al. 2014, Choi and Purugganan 2017, Quesneville 2020), it

appears that genome organization varies greatly between *Brassicacea* and grasses.

With more than 12,000 species (Christenhusz and Byng 2016), grasses cover about

40% of the planet (Gibson 2009). Generalizing the patterns reported in *A. thaliana* to

all plants, as commonly seen in the literature, is therefore arguable. Our study is

calling for the analysis of a larger set of plant genomes to reflect the tremendous

diversity present in this kingdom.

Materials and Methods

Plant material

We used eleven accession of *B. distachyon* originating from Iraq (Bd21, Bd21-3, Bd3-1), Turkey (BdTR12c, BdTR7a, Koz3, Bd1-1) and Spain (ABR2, Sig2, Luc1, Bd30-1). Seeds were sown on soil-sand mixture in 50 ml pots. For bisulfite and for RNA sequencing, three biological replicates per accession were grown. The second and third leaves of each replicate were sampled after 24 days of 16/8 hours of day/night conditions.

Whole genome bisulfite sequencing (WGBS) and RNA-sequencing analysis

For *B. distachyon*, WGBS libraries were prepared as described in the supplementary material Method S1. For *A. thaliana,* we used publicly available data (Table S1 for references). Raw data were processed as described in Method S1 and mapped onto the reference genomes Bd21 for *B. distachyon* (Phytozome 12, https://phytozome.jgi.doe.gov) and Col-0 for *A. thaliana* (TAIR10, www.arabidopsis.org). Methylation levels were estimated following the method described in (Schultz et al. 2012; Method S1) and by averaging the percentage of methylated cytosines over the three replicates per genotype within each focal unit (e.g. 100 kb/100 bp genomic windows, TE and gene body). We drew Circos plots (Connors et al. 2009) to visualize the architecture of the two reference genomes. The PCA based on methylation data was performed using ggplot2 in R (R development core team 2013). We eventually used GLM models with logit transformation to characterize the relationship between gene or TE density and methylation levels. P-values were obtained with the R package multcomp (Hothorn et al. 2008).

For each of the eleven *B. distachyon* accessions, mRNA was extracted using the RNAeasy Plant Mini Kit from Qiagen. Libraries were prepared by the D-BSSE Basel and paired-end sequencing was performed on a Illumina HiSeq 2500. For *A. thaliana,* we again used publicly available data (Table S1). Reads were mapped to the reference genomes with Salmon quant v.0.12.0 (Patro et al. 2017). The abundance of gene expression was quantified averaging transcripts per million (TPM) per accession for each single genotype over the three replicates.

Methylation spreading

We estimated methylation spreading by calculating methylation levels in 100 bp

windows spanning 2.5 kb upstream and downstream of each TE insertion. TE

insertions were categorized with regard to their position in

centromeric/pericentromeric regions or on chromosome arms and aggregated at the

family- (for the ten most active TE families) or superfamily levels. Heatmaps

depicting methylation levels around TEs were drawn in R using ggplot2 (Wickham

2009). We also used the levels of methylation spreading around TEs to calculate

Euclidean distances between the ten most active TE families and to perform a

hierarchical clustering using hclust in R (R development core team 2013).

Impact of TEs on gene expression

We assessed the potential link between the presence of a TE in the vicinity of a gene

and expression by assigning genes to different categories depending on whether they

harbor a TE in their sequence or within windows ranging from near vicinity (0-200

bp) to up to 2 kb. Average gene TPM and standard errors were calculated per distance

class with all TEs pooled together as well as for the ten most active families

separately and plotted using the R package plotrix (Lemon 2006). For a subset of

candidate families, we also compared the expression level (log1p transformed) of

genes displaying a TE in their vicinity (0-400 bp for RLG_Bdis0039, RLG_Bdis004

and RLC_Bdis022; 0-1 kb for RLG_Bdis180) to the expression level of genes

displaying a TE further away (between 400 bp-2 kb and 1 kb-2 kb respectively) with

a Wilcoxon test.

Transposable element insertion polymorphism analysis

Detection of transposable element insertion polymorphisms (TIP) was performed with

detettore (github.com/cstritt/detettore) using sequencing data from (Gordon et al.

2017). Detettore was specifically developed on *B. distachyon*. It allows to output

different features, including the presence of target site duplication (TSD), which can

be used to filter out false positive. Filtering criteria were adjusted so that no TIP is

found when the reads of Bd21 are mapped against the reference genome. The

expression of genes harboring a TIP in their vicinity (<1 kb) in at least one of the

accessions was compared to the corresponding genes in the other accessions. For each

single gene, difference in expression between groups was tested using a t-test with a

confidence interval of 0.95. Change in gene expression was considered significant

when the P-value was <0.05 and the log2 change >1.

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Data availability

All the data produced for the current study are available under the ENA project

number PRJEB39651. For *A. thaliana,* references are provided in the supplementary

materials. Scripts are available at https://github.com/mwylerCH.

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Figures and Tables

Figure 1: Genome organization and methylation distribution of Col-0 and Bd21

Circos plot displaying methylation levels as well as gene and TE density in 100 kb

windows in A) *A. thaliana* and B) *B. distachyon*. Centromeric and pericentromeric

regions are highlighted in grey. Panel C and D display CpG methylation levels

(expressed as % of methylated cytosines) for the most common TE superfamilies and

for genes in *A. thaliana* and *B. distachyon* respectively.

Figure 2: Methylation spreading around transposable elements

Heatmaps representing methylation (CpG) spreading around TEs located in the

pericentromere/centromere regions or on the arm of the chromosomes for *A. thaliana*

(N=18,521 classified TEs) and *B. distachyon* (N=62,708 classified TEs). Scales were

adapted for the six panels to account for the lower genome-wide methylation level in

A. thaliana and the different methylation levels for the three contexts.

Figure 3: Impact of transposable elements on gene expression

A) Average gene expression as a function of the distance to the nearest TE belonging

to the four LTR-retrotransposons RLG_BdisC039, RLG_BdisC004, RLG_BdisC180

and RLC_BdisC022 in the natural accessions of *B. distachyon*. Each coloured line

represents a different accession. The dashed line represents the genome-wide level of

expression. Boxplots display the expression of genes harbouring a TE in their vicinity

for two distance classes only, all accessions pooled together. Stars indicate Wilcoxon

test levels of significance: [***]<0.001 B) Heatmap representing methylation (CpG)

spreading around the 10 most active LTR retrotransposon families in Bd21. Families

were clustered based on the level of methylation spreading (long, intermediate and

short) around each insertion. Names on the right of the heatmap describe the TE

lineage to which each family belongs. Boxplots display the age of each families

estimated by (Stritt et al. 2019).

Figure 1

Figure 2

CpG   CHH   CHG

A. thaliana Col-0

Centromere: Gypsy, Copia, LINE, Mariner, Cacta, Helitrons
Arm: Gypsy, Copia, LINE, Mariner, Cacta, Helitrons

B. distachyon Bd21

Centromere: Gypsy, Copia, LINE, Mariner, Cacta, Helitrons
Arm: Gypsy, Copia, Line, Mariner, Cacta, Helitrons

Distance from TE insertion (in kb)

A)

B)