RNA Pol I activity is required for meiotic chromatin organization and the H3K4me3 gradient

essential for oogenesis, independent of ribosome synthesis

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GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

ABSTRACT

Oogenesis requires extensive and dynamic chromatin remodeling that primes gene promoters for later transcriptional activation during embryonic development. Here, we uncover a pivotal, non-canonical role for RNA Polymerase I (Pol I) in driving these chromatin state transitions during *Caenorhabditis elegans* oogenesis. Using the auxin-inducible degron system to selectively deplete either Pol I catalytic subunits or ribosome assembly factors, we disentangle the consequences of impaired nucleolar integrity from reductions in ribosome biogenesis. Strikingly, although disrupting ribosome assembly caused minimal effects on oocyte production, loss of Pol I activity led to widespread changes in chromatin accessibility, a dampening of the distal-proximal H3K4me3 gradient required for oogenesis, reduced synapsis, and elevated ATM/ATR phosphorylation, resulting in fewer but significantly larger oocytes. Despite their promoters becoming more accessible, oogenesis genes did not show large changes in steady-state mRNA, consistent with transcriptional repression prior to fertilization. Instead, Pol I depletion prematurely remodeled oogenic chromatin, through a misdirection of H3K4me3 deposition towards promoters normally primed for zygotic genome activation. These findings reveal an epigenetic gating function for nucleolar integrity in oocyte maturation: Pol I preserves three-dimensional chromatin organization and maintains proper spatiotemporal regulation of histone modifications, independent of ribosome production. Given the evolutionary conservation of nucleolar dynamics and histone modifications during gametogenesis, our work suggests that nucleolar stress, whether from environmental factors, aging, or genetic disorders, could broadly compromise fertility by disrupting oogenic chromatin priming.

INTRODUCTION

Chromosome condensation and chromatin modifications during meiosis are essential to ensure accurate genetic transmission in sexually reproducing species. In the hermaphroditic germ line of *Caenorhabditis elegans*, female gamete production proceeds through four distinct zones: mitotic proliferation, transition, meiosis I, and oocyte maturation. Upon completion of oocyte maturation, the most proximal oocyte is fertilized by the adjacent spermatheca, initiating zygotic development.

Oogenesis involves a complex progression of germ cell maturation, yet net transcriptional activity is strikingly low in late-stage oocytes. Instead, many oogenesis genes remain largely quiescent before fertilization, with regulation relying primarily on extensive chromatin remodeling. This epigenetic priming prepares the promoters of key developmental genes to be robustly activated after fertilization or during early embryogenesis [1-3].

In *C. elegans*, as in other species, germ cells undergo profound chromatin reorganization during meiotic progression to form specialized meiotic chromatin structures, establish parental imprinting marks, and position active marks near the promoters of genes that will be engaged during zygotic genome activation (ZGA) [4]. Specifically, H3K4me3 marks shift from gene bodies to promoters as undifferentiated mitotic germ cells progress through meiosis I [4]. This promoter-specific priming of ZGA genes with H3K4me3 is evolutionarily conserved across species, including *Xenopus* [5], zebrafish [6,7], mice [8,9], and humans [10] and is critical for normal germ line development. For instance, *C. elegans* germ lines lacking H3K4 methyltransferase activity exhibit reduced oocyte production, aberrant nuclear morphology, and aneuploid gametes [11,12], while deficient H3K4 demethylase activity leads to abnormal chromatin condensation, diminished oocyte production, and failed entry into meiosis [13].

In parallel with the spatiotemporal regulation of H3K4 methylation, maturing germ cells also temporally regulate nucleolar activity during oogenesis. The nucleolus, responsible for rRNA synthesis and ribosome assembly [14], remains intact throughout meiosis but temporarily disassembles at the onset of oocyte maturation before reappearing during ZGA [15]. Similar nucleolar dynamics have been documented across hermaphrodite and dioecious eukaryotes, including *C. elegans*, yeast, pig, and mouse [15-20]. The presence of the nucleolus throughout oogenesis is unsurprising [21], given that maternal ribosome production is sufficient to drive embryogenesis in *Caenorhabditis elegans* [22]; however, the nucleolus may have additional roles beyond ribosome production during oogenesis. For example, in *Arabidopsis*, rDNA loci are embedded within the nucleolus to prevent alterations of rDNA copy numbers and genomic instability during meiotic homologous recombination [23]. In mouse oocytes, maternal nucleolar components are essential for

maintaining satellite repeat sequences immediately after fertilization [24]. Lastly, the nucleolar

microenvironment in *C. elegans* can sequester transcriptional silencing factors, such as PIE-1, away from

the genome to promote transcription during late oogenesis [25].

Despite these hints of broader functions for the nucleolus, dissecting its direct contributions to oogenesis

has been challenging because rRNA synthesis, ribosome assembly, and the maintenance of a spatially

distinct nuclear subcompartment are all interconnected. For example, RNA Polymerase I (Pol I)

transcription of rDNA loci is accompanied by co-transcriptional processing of pre-rRNA, followed by co-

assembly with ribosomal proteins into ribosome subunits [26]. The nucleolar microenvironment is similarly

co-dependent on these other functions, as its liquid-liquid phase-separated properties make its spherical

morphology reliant on active rDNA transcription and subsequent processing and assembly [27,28]. Thus,

similar to how separation-of-function mutations in proteins are used to differentiate between distinct protein

functions [29–31], there is a demand for genetic tools that can isolate interconnected functions of the same

subcellular structure. Here, we utilized separation-of-function *C. elegans* strains to identify potential

nucleolar functions that are independent from ribosome production during oogenesis.

Using the auxin-inducible degron (AID) system, we targeted either two catalytic subunits specific to RNA

Pol I (orthologous to human *POL1RA* and *POL1RB*) or two ribosome assembly factors essential for 60S

and 40S assembly (orthologous to human *GRWD1* and *TSR2,* respectively). This approach isolates the

impact of nucleolar disruption on female germ cell maturation from perturbed downstream ribosome

assembly. Our results uncover a non-ribosomal function of RNA Pol I in regulating oocyte production,

meiotic chromosome morphology and chromatin landscape, and the maintenance of an essential H3K4

methylation gradient. Germ cells fail to regulate chromatin remodeling during the transition from mitotic

proliferation to meiotic prophase I following reduced RNA Pol I activity, but not after a decrease in

ribosome assembly. ATAC-seq analyses further reveal that chromatin accessibility increases near oogenesis

promoters, oogenesis-promoting EFL-1-binding sites, and promoters subject to canonical H3K4me3

remodeling during oogenesis. Nucleolar disruption induced upon RNA Pol I depletion also dampened the

distal-proximal H3K4me3 gradient through premature H3K4me3 deposition and resulted in increased

ATM/ATR phosphorylation in the pachytene region of the germ line. Collectively, our data suggests that

nucleolar integrity, maintained by RNA Pol I activity, is involved in the coordination of chromatin

remodeling during oogenesis, ensuring the production of healthy, properly sized oocytes.

RESULTS

Persistence and dynamics of nucleolar structure during *Caenorhabditis elegans* germ line development and oogenesis

We first examined nucleolar morphology in a wild-type background to establish a baseline representation of its structure during germ line development, from the mitotic through meiotic zones, and into oocyte maturation. To accomplish this, we fluorescently tagged two genes: *nucl-1*, the *Caenorhabditis elegans* ortholog of human *NCL*, which facilitates rRNA transcription and processing [32–34], and *dao-5*, the ortholog of human *NOLC1*, required for nucleologenesis and rDNA transcription [15,35.] We also used a fluorescent SYP-3 reporter, a key component of the synaptonemal complex [36,37], to distinguish between different germ line zones. Cells distal to synaptonemal complex formation were classified as mitotic, cells displaying a synaptonemal complex were assigned to the transition or pachytene zone, and cells with visible plasma membrane under transmitted photomultiplier tubes (T-PMT) were defined as being in the oocyte maturation zone.

In a mature germ line, NUCL-1 retains a spherical nucleolar localization pattern in the mitotic, meiotic, and most of the oocyte maturation zone (**Figure S1A**). As the oocytes matured, the nucleolus formed intermediate droplet-like structures in the "-2" oocyte (the second-most proximal oocyte), followed by complete dissolution in the "-1" oocyte (the most proximal one) (**Figure S1B**). These results suggest that nucleolar integrity is largely maintained from the distal mitotic region through meiosis but is disrupted just before fertilization. This observation agrees with previous reports in *C. elegans* germ lines [15,38,39] and is also conserved in mammalian oocytes [16,18–20].

Supplementary Figure 1

Figure S1, Related to Figure 1. Nucleolar dynamics throughout the germ line (A, B, F); effects of Pol I and ribosome assembly chaperone depletion on the transcription of internally transcribed spacers (ITS) and downstream polysome abundance (C-E).

(**A**) Average confocal projection of an adult germ line (left) with an endogenous NUCL-1::mKate2 nucleolar marker and an EmGFP::SYP-3 meiosis marker. Nucleoli are present throughout the mitotic, pachytene, and diakinesis zones (right), as indicated by the localization of EmGFP::SYP-3. Scale bar = 50 μm (full germ line) and 5 μm (zoom). (**B**) Average confocal projection of an adult germ line (left) with an endogenous GFP::DAO-5 nucleolar marker. Zoomed in nuclei (right) reveal that the nucleolus forms droplets in the "-2" oocyte and is absent in the most proximal and mature "-1" oocyte. Scale bar = 50 μm (germ line) and 5 μm (nuclei). (**C**) Average $\log_{10}$ counts per million (CPM) reads from gonadal RNA-seq (total RNA) mapped to a simplified single-copy 45S rDNA locus. Averages are composed of three biological replicates per condition, each consisting of 20 gonads. RPOA-2-depleted germ lines show reduced coverage across internally transcribed spacer (ITS) regions compared to GRWD-1-depleted germ lines. (**D**) RT-qPCR analysis of whole-animal ITS1 and ITS2 expression following auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-2/GRWD-1. Relative transcript levels of ITS1 and ITS2 were normalized to mature 26S rRNA. Data represent three biological replicates for RPOA-2 depletion and two biological replicates for GRWD-1 depletion, with three technical replicates per biological replicate. Bars and error bars represent mean ± SD. (**E**) Polysome abundance after auxin-induced depletion of RPOA-2, GRWD-1, and TSR-2, normalized to the abundance of free RNA. Points represent biological replicates (3 per condition); bars and error bars represent the mean and SEM, respectively. (**F**) NUCL-1::mKate2 is morphologically unaffected by 1 mM IAA in a wild-type background. Scale bar = 50 μm.

Disruption of RNA Pol I activity compromises nucleolar structure throughout the germ line

Having established that a spherical nucleolus persists through most of germ line development in mature hermaphrodites, we next asked how reducing rDNA transcription would affect its structure. Nucleolar integrity depends on robust RNA polymerase I (Pol I) activity, as the formation of nucleolar subcompartments and phase separation properties are largely driven by elevated concentrations of rRNA, along with its bound nucleolar factors [27,28,40]. Although prior work in the *C. elegans* germ line utilized Actinomycin D to inhibit rDNA transcription, no visible disturbance of nucleolar structure was detected, likely because transcription was not suppressed below a critical threshold associated with nucleolar segregation [41,42]. Thus, to clearly disrupt nucleolar structure, we used the auxin-inducible degron (AID) system to substantially deplete two endogenously tagged subunits of RNA Pol I: RPOA-1, the largest

subunit of RNA Pol I (orthologous to human *POLR1A*), and RPOA-2, a catalytic subunit specific to RNA
Pol I (orthologous to human *POLR1B*) [38,43].

Animals expressing degron::GFP::RPOA-2 and RPOA-1::degron::GFP were treated with 1 mM IAA
(auxin) at the L4 stage for 18 hours, after which gonads from young adults were dissected and examined
by fluorescent microscopy. A significant decrease in mean GFP intensity confirmed a substantial depletion
of both RPOA-1 and RPOA-2 in germ cells (**Figure 1A-B** and **1E**). To confirm that this depletion impaired
rDNA transcription, we performed RNA-seq on gonadal samples using total RNA and quantified the
abundance of reads mapping to two loci uniquely found in nascent pre-rRNA. We observed a significant
decrease in reads mapping to the internally transcribed spacers (ITS1 and ITS2), indicating a considerable
decrease in RNA Pol I activity upon depletion of RPOA-2 (**Figure 1F** and **S1C**, one-tailed Welch two-
sample *t*-test, 4.6-fold average decrease for ITS1: $p = 0.021$, 1.6-fold average reduction for ITS2: $p =$
0.0092). RT-qPCR also supports that the depletion of RPOA-2 significantly reduces pre-rRNA synthesis
(**Figure S1D**, left-tailed paired Student's *t*-test, ITS1: $p = 0.0048$, ITS2: $p = 0.0015$).

We next investigated whether these transcriptional reductions could sufficiently disrupt spherical nucleolar
structure, identifiable by the formation of nucleolar caps [42]. In RPOA-2-depleted gonads, the nucleolar
marker NUCL-1::mKate2, showed droplet and cap-like structures throughout the germ line, in contrast to
the more uniform spherical nucleoli in control animals (**Figure 1G**). This phenotype suggests that the
threshold of rDNA transcription required for nucleolar integrity was not met upon RPOA-2 depletion,
leading to a clear disruption of nucleolar morphology. We validated that auxin treatment alone did not
induce any unintended morphological changes to gonadal NUCL-1::mKate2 in the absence of the AID
system (**Figure S1F**).

Although RPOA-2 depletion disrupts nucleolar structure by reducing rRNA synthesis, it also suspends
ribosome production, which might impact the translational capacity of developing germ cells [43]. Despite
the generally low transcriptional activity of germ cells, proper ribosome production is essential for
translational regulation of gene expression and maternal ribosome loading to ensure embryonic viability
[22,44–46]. Importantly, our prior work indicates that both the depletion of RPOA-2 or ribosome assembly
factors result in a comparable decrease in overall ribosome production, as evidenced by developmental
arrest on auxin [43]. Thus, to separate the effects of nucleolar disruption from potential consequences of
ribosome biogenesis disruption, we conducted identical experiments using endogenous fluorescently-
labeled AID strains for GRWD-1, a chaperone that guides RPL-3 assembly into the 60S ribosomal subunit
[43,47], and TSR-2, a chaperone that incorporates RPS-26 into the 40S subunit [48].

Following auxin treatment of L4 animals, we observed a significant decrease in GRWD-1::degron::GFP
and TSR-2::degron::GFP intensity in germ lines, confirming the depletion of both ribosome assembly
factors (**Figure 1C-E**). However, RNA-seq analyses revealed no significant reduction in ITS1 and ITS2
pre-rRNA reads, suggesting that the depletion of ribosome assembly factors does not impair rRNA
synthesis mediated by RNA Pol I activity (**Figure 1F** and **S1C**, one-tailed Welch's two-sample t-tests;
GRWD-1: 1.4-fold average increase in ITS1: $p = 0.99$, 1.4-fold average decrease in ITS2: $p = 0.16$; TSR-
2: 1.1-fold average increase in ITS1: $p = 0.37$, no average fold-change in ITS2: $p = 0.54$). Instead, consistent
with prior observations involving RPL-3 reduction, the ITS1 intermediate accumulated under GRWD-1
depletion (**Figure S1B**) [21]. Such accumulation is similar to that reported in other systems, where defects in
60S assembly result in the accumulation of 40S-associated pre-rRNA intermediates containing ITS1
sequences [49]. RT-qPCR also validated that pre-rRNA synthesis does not decrease upon GRWD-1 depletion
(**Figure S1D**, left-tailed paired Student's t-test, ITS1: 0.67, ITS2: $p = 0.99$). Furthermore, the nucleolar
morphology in GRWD-1-depleted germ lines appeared vacuolated yet retained a persistent spherical form,
similar to the morphology observed when RPL-3 is reduced (**Figure 1H**) [21]. Polysome profiling further
indicates that global translation levels are similarly reduced upon depletion of RPOA-2, GRWD-1, or TSR-
2 (**Figure S1E**).

Together, these findings support the conclusion that although RPOA-2 and GRWD-1 depletion both reduce
ribosome biogenesis, only impaired rRNA transcription, mediated by a disruption of RNA Pol I activity,
disrupts spherical nucleolar structure throughout the germ line. This result highlights a specific requirement
for RNA Pol I activity in maintaining nucleolar morphology during oogenesis, independent of downstream
ribosome assembly.

Figure 1

Figure 1. Auxin-inducible depletion of RNA Pol I subunits and ribosome assembly factors reveal that nucleolar structure is dependent on pre-rRNA synthesis but not downstream ribosome maturation. See also Figure S1.

(**A-D**) Germline expression of fluorescently tagged RPOA-2 (**A**), RPOA-1 (**B**), GRWD-1 (**C**), and TSR-2 (**D**) proteins after control or auxin treatment. Dissected germ lines are outlined in white. Each strain's control/auxin images were taken with identical exposure settings. Scale bar = 50 μm. (**E**) Distribution of germ nuclei GFP intensity after auxin-inducible depletion of GFP-tagged RPOA-1/RPOA-2/GRWD-1/TSR-2. Statistical comparisons performed using left-tailed Welch's two-sample t-tests. (**F**) Comparisons of counts per million (CPM) reads across a simplified single copy of the ITS1 and ITS2 loci based on gonadal RNA-seq (total RNA) after auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-2/GRWD-1/TSR-2. Points represent biological replicates (3 per condition, each consisting of 20 gonads); bars and error bars represent the mean and SEM, respectively. (**G-H**) Germline nucleolar morphology (endogenous NUCL-1::mKate2) after auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-2 (**G**) or GRWD-1 (**H**). Germ lines are outlined in white; zoomed-in nucleoli are shown in the right column. Scale bars = 50 μm (whole gonad) and 5 μm (zoomed nucleoli).

RNA Pol I activity plays a ribosome-biogenesis-independent role in maintaining oocyte production and morphology

To investigate whether germ cells remain viable when RNA Pol I activity and ribosome assembly are reduced, we stained animals with acridine orange to label cell corpses following auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-2, GRWD-1, or TSR-2. We did not observe any differences in cell corpse abundance in any of our treatments (**Figure S2A-B**), suggesting that apoptosis was not induced during this time frame. Given that germ cells remained viable, we next examined whether germ line maturation was affected upon reductions in Pol I activity or ribosome biogenesis by measuring proximal arm length, the number of proximal oocytes, and the dimensions of the three most proximal oocytes (**Figure 2A-B**). We also normalized proximal arm length to overall body area (**Figure 2C**), given that the global AID system can reduce body size due to high basal degradation in the absence of auxin, particularly in the GRWD-1 and TSR-2 AID strains [43] (**Figure 2A, S2C**).

Reductions in Pol I activity (mediated by RPOA-1 or RPOA-2 depletion), but not reductions in ribosome assembly (mediated by GRWD-1 or TSR-2 depletion), uniquely reduced the length of the proximal arm (**Figure 2A-B**), diminished the number of proximal oocytes (**Figure 2A** and **2D**), and caused the three most proximal oocytes to occupy a significantly larger fraction of the proximal arm (**Figure 2A** and **2E**). These results suggest that oocyte production and morphology are disrupted specifically by reducing RNA Pol I activity, rather than by impairing ribosome assembly.

Supplementary Figure 2

Figure S2, Related to Figure 2. Effects on germ cell death and animal body area under reduced RNA Pol I activity or ribosome assembly.

(**A**) Acridine-orange-stained germ lines after auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-2/GRWD-1/TSR-2. Cell corpses are indicated by white triangles; gonad arms are outlined in white. Scale bar = 50 μm. (**B**) Distribution of cell corpses per gonad arm based on acridine orange staining, normalized to the mean of each strain's control group. Each point represents the number of corpses in a gonad arm across three biological replicates. Statistical comparisons performed using a two-tailed Welch's two-sample *t*-test. (**C**) Distribution of body areas after auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-1/RPOA-2/GRWD-1/TSR-2. Each point represents measurements from an individual worm, normalized to the mean of each strain's control group. Crossbars represent SEM. Statistical comparisons performed using a left-tailed Welch's two-sample t-test with Bonferroni corrections.

Figure 2

Figure 2. Oocyte morphology and organization are impaired by reduced RNA Pol I activity, independent from RNA Pol I's role in ribosome production. See also Figure S2.

(**A**) Representative DIC images of adult germ lines after auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-1/RPOA-2/GRWD-1/TSR-2. Dotted lines highlight the proximal arm; triangles point to proximal oocytes. Scale bar = 50 μm. (**B**) Graphical representation of proximal arm length and oocyte positions quantified in (**C-E**). (**C-E**) Proximal arm lengths (**C**), proximal oocyte counts (**D**), and oocyte sizes (**E**) after auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-1/RPOA-2/GRWD-1/TSR-2. Each point represents a measurement from an individual animal, normalized to the mean of each strain's control group. Crossbars represent SEM. All comparisons were performed using two-tailed Welch's two-sample *t*-tests followed by Bonferroni corrections.

Impaired synapsis reveals a Pol I-dependent sensitivity to nucleolar stress during the mitotic-to-meiotic transition

The observation that reduced RNA Pol I activity, but not impaired ribosome assembly, leads to defects in oocyte maturation prompted us to investigate how each condition affects meiotic progression. Using a fluorescently tagged SYP-3, a component of the synaptonemal complex [36,37], we determined whether germ cells adopted characteristic DNA morphology in the mitotic, transition, and meiotic zones. We assessed the appearance of crescent shaped nuclei in the transition zone, where DNA and the nucleolus cluster to opposite nuclear poles, and whether chromosomes in the meiotic zone were repositioned to the nuclear periphery.

Following auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-2, germ cells entering the mitotic-to-meiotic transition zone showed reduced polarization and SYP-3 assembly, likely reflecting a lack of synaptonemal complex formation; however, the downstream re-localization of synapsed chromosomes to the nuclear periphery in proximal germ cells remained unaffected (**Figure 3A, S3)**.

These differences raised the possibility that nucleolar integrity is critical for proper chromosome morphology during meiotic entry. Specifically, in transition zone nuclei, the nucleolus and chromosomes segregate to opposite poles, likely to facilitate homolog pairing by bringing homologous chromosomes into proximity [50–52]. To determine whether perturbing nucleolar structure or activity, rather than bulk ribosome synthesis, affects this characteristic crescent shaped chromosome polarization, we depleted key ribosome synthesis and nucleolar factors by RNA interference (RNAi). We first validated RNAi efficacy by injecting double-stranded RNA targeting *rpoa-2, grwd-1, fib-1* (human *FBL* ortholog), and *nucl-1*, and monitored protein depletion using fluorescent tagged reporters. All four proteins were effectively depleted to near-

background levels within 48 hours (**Figure S4A-D**). We then used these validated RNAi conditions on an

EmGFP::SYP-3 and NUCL-1::mKate2 reporter strain to examine synaptonemal complex assembly and

chromatin architecture throughout meiotic prophase (**Figure 3B**, **S4E**). Depletion of *rpoa-2* and *fib-1*

resulted in similar germline deficiencies, including less transition zone polarization **(Figure 3B, S4E)**, a

reduction of transition zone SYP-3 aggregation (indicative of impaired synapsis) **(Figure 3B, S4E),** and a

reduction of proximal oocytes **(Figure S4F, 2A).** In contrast, *nucl-1* knockdown resulted in no detectable

defects in either chromosome polarization or synapsis. Similarly, although knockdown of *grwd-1* decreased

overall SYP-3 intensity, SYP-3 aggregation and transition zone polarization remained largely comparable

to non-target RNAi injected gonads (**Figure 3B**, **S4E**). In addition, we did not observe any differences in

the redistribution of SYP-3 to the nuclear periphery in late pachytene/post transition zone nuclei in any of

the knockdowns (**Figure S4E**), likely suggesting that newly transitioning nuclei are receptive to nucleolar

stress.

Together, these results support that nuclei entering the mitotic-to-meiotic transition zone are sensitive to

nucleolar functions dependent on RNA Pol I activity (RPOA-2 and FIB-1) rather than downstream

ribosome processing steps (NUCL-1 and GRWD-1), supported by Pol-I dependent defects in transition

zone polarization and synaptonemal complex assembly.

Figure 3

A

24h post treatment

Transition zone germ nuclei (*degron::GFP::rpoa-2; eft-3p::TIR1; EmGFP::syp-3; nucl-1::mKate2*)

(-) auxin

(+) auxin

a b c

degron::GFP::RPOA-2, EmGFP::SYP-3

Merged: degron::GFP::RPOA-2, EmGFP::SYP-3, NUCL-1::mKate2

Transition zone germ nuclei (*EmGFP::syp-3; nucl-1::mKate2*)

no treatment

d e f

EmGFP::SYP-3

Merged: EmGFP::SYP-3, NUCL-1::mKate2

a b c d e f

B

48h post RNAi injection

Transition zone germ nuclei (*EmGFP::syp-3; nucl-1::mKate2*)

non-target

nucl-1

grwd-1

rpoa-2

fib-1

a b c d e

EmGFP::SYP-3

Merged: EmGFP::SYP-3, NUCL-1::mKate2

non-target *nucl-1* *grwd-1* *rpoa-2* *fib-1*

Figure 3. Synaptonemal complex formation during the mitotic-to-meiotic germ cell transition is

dependent on Pol I activity, but not other ribosome processing steps. See also Figure S3 and S4.

(A) Confocal images of transition zone nuclei expressing degron::GFP::RPOA-2, EmGFP::SYP-3, and

NUCL-1::mKate2 following control or auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-2 (top two rows). Additionally,

we show non-treated nuclei from a wild-type genetic background (middle row) and zoomed-in nuclei from

RPOA-2-depleted and wild-type conditions (bottom row, labeled a-e). Scale bar = 5 μm (transition zone)

and 0.5 μm (zoomed-in nuclei). **(B)** Confocal images of transition zone nuclei expressing EmGFP::SYP-3

and NUCL-1::mKate2 48 hours post RNAi knockdown of a non-target locus (*wrmScarlet*), *nucl-1*, *grwd-*

1, *rpoa-2*, and *fib-1* (top), as well as zoomed-in nuclei from each condition (bottom). Scale bar = 5 μm

(transition zone) and 0.5 μm (zoomed-in nuclei). All images were taken with identical laser intensity; due

to decreased SYP-3 expression under knockdown of *grwd-1, rpoa-2,* and *fib-1*, we have increased the

brightness of these conditions to be more comparable to wild type.

Supplementary Figure 3

Figure S3, Related to Figure 3. Synaptonemal complex formation under reduced Pol I activity

during the mitotic-to-meiotic transition in an adult germ line.

Confocal images of adult distal germline arms (dotted lines) expressing degron::GFP::RPOA-2,

EmGFP::SYP-3, and NUCL-1::mKate2 following control or auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-2 (top

rows). Additionally, we show a non-treated control in a wild-type genetic background (bottom row). White

rectangles show zoomed-in transition zone regions in **Figure 3A**. Scale bar = 50 μm.

Supplementary Figure 4

Figure S4, Related to Figure 3. Examining germline synapsis and proximal oocytes after

knockdown of nucleolar proteins.

(A-D) Merged fluorescent and DIC images of germ lines (outlined in white) after RNAi injection targeting

rpoa-2 **(A)**, *grwd-1* **(B)**, *fib-1* **(C)**, and *nucl-1* **(D)**, as well as non-target (*wrmScarlet*) injection controls.

Each of the endogenous fluorescent-tagged proteins of the RNAi target genes show reduced germline

expression after 48 hours. Scale bar = 50 μm. **(E)** Confocal images of adult distal germline arms expressing

EmGFP::SYP-3 and NUCL-1::mKate2 48 hours post RNAi knockdown of a non-target locus (*wrmScarlet*),

nucl-1, *grwd-1*, *rpoa-2*, and *fib-1*. White rectangles show zoomed-in transition zone regions in **Figure 3B**.

Scale bar = 50 μm. All images were taken with identical laser intensity; due to decreased SYP-3 expression

under knockdown of *grwd-1, rpoa-2,* and *fib-1*, we have increased the brightness of these conditions to be

more comparable to wild type. **(F)** DIC images of adult proximal germline arms (dotted line) and proximal

oocytes (triangles) 48 hours post RNAi knockdown of a non-target locus (*wrmScarlet*) and *fib-1*. Scale bar

= 50 μm.

Autosomal oogenesis gene promoters are more accessible after RNA Pol I depletion

Given that RNA Pol I levels were associated with germline chromosome abnormalities, we next

investigated whether specific genomic regions were preferentially affected by a reduction of RNA Pol I

activity compared to reduced ribosome assembly. We performed ATAC-seq on dissected gonads from

control and RPOA-2- and GRWD-1-depleted young adults. In RPOA-2-depleted germ lines, 1,616 genomic

regions were significantly more accessible (SMA), whereas only 99 regions were significantly less

accessible (DESeq2, Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted $p < 0.05$). In GRWD-1-depleted germ lines, 53 regions

were more accessible and only one region showed reduced accessibility (DESeq2, Benjamini-Hochberg

adjusted $p < 0.05$). Additionally, 41 regions were SMA in both RPOA-2- and GRWD-1-depleted gonads

(**Figure 4A**).

To functionally interpret these changes, we annotated each ATAC-seq peak to its nearest genomic feature

and found that more than 80% of SMA peaks in either RPOA-2- or GRWD-1-depleted germ lines were

located within 1 kb of the promoter of the nearest gene, compared to only 50% in background peaks (**Figure**

4B). Moreover, SMA regions in RPOA-2-depleted germ lines were concentrated on autosomes (**Figure**

4C), with ~2-7% of peaks per autosome showing increased accessibility, compared to only ~0.2% on the

X chromosome (**Figure 4C**). In GRWD-1-depleted germ lines, SMA regions on the X chromosome were

also less prominent, though to a lesser extent (**Figure S5A**). Overall, these results indicate that nucleolar

disruption caused by reduced RNA Pol I activity leads to a more pronounced increase in chromatin

accessibility at autosomal promoters, emphasizing the role of nucleolar integrity in genome organization.

Figure 4

Figure 4. Disrupting RNA Pol I activity prematurely primes autosomal promoters in an accessible

state associated with oogenesis. See also Figure S5.

(**A**) Venn diagram comparing the number of significantly more accessible (SMA) regions following RPOA-

2 depletion versus GRWD-1 depletion, based on an adjusted $p < 0.05$. (**B**) Genomic feature annotations of

ATAC-seq peaks. SMA regions after RPOA-2 or GRWD-1 depletion are predominantly located within 1

kb of the nearest promoter. (**C**) Log_2 fold-change estimates of chromatin accessibility based on gonadal

ATAC-seq data from at least three biological replicates per condition, each composed of 20 gonads. Each

segment along the x-axis represents a genomic region. The number of differentially accessible regions are

noted in the plot legend based on an adjusted $p < 0.05$. Percentages represent the proportion of differentially

accessible peaks relative to the total number of called peaks per chromosome. (**D**) Enrichment of gene

ontology (GO) biological processes in genes exhibiting increased accessibility after depletion of RPOA-2

or GRWD-1 (Hypergeometric test, FDR < 0.001). The term "gene" refers to those associated with the

nearest genomic feature annotation of each peak. (**E**) Overlap between peaks that are SMA after RPOA-2

depletion and peaks near genes involved in oogenesis [53] (Hypergeometric test). (**F**) Chromosomal

distribution of genes involved in oogenesis [53] and SMA peaks after RPOA-2 depletion. (**G**) Alignment of

the *C. elegans* EFL-1-binding site, human E2F-binding site, and the two motifs enriched in SMA peaks

after RPOA-2 depletion. (**H**) Genomic feature annotations of peaks containing an EFL-1-binding site. (**I**)

GO enrichment analysis for biological processes among genes with promoter peaks that contain an EFL-1-

binding site (Hypergeometric test, FDR < 0.05).

RNA Pol I-driven nucleolar disruption prematurely primes oogenesis promoters in an accessible state

Considering that RNA Pol I levels were linked to increased chromatin accessibility along the promoters of autosomal genes, we asked whether the genes affected by these accessibility changes contribute to the defective oocyte maturation that emerges specifically under reduced RNA Pol I activity. To examine this, we performed a differential gene ontology (GO) analysis of biological processes enriched in genes with increased accessibility following RPOA-2 or GRWD-1 depletion. Regions with increased accessibility following a reduction of RNA Pol I activity were enriched for sexual reproduction and cell cycle processes, including meiotic cell cycle, chromosome organization, and oogenesis (**Figure 4D** and **Table S2**, Hypergeometric test, FDR < 0.001). Additionally, RPOA-2 depletion uniquely increased the accessibility of genes that function both in germ/oocyte development and translation (e.g., *daz-1, fbf-2, fog-1, gld-1, glp-4, larp-1, mex-3, oma-1, oma-2*) (**Figure 4D** and **Table S2**, Hypergeometric test, FDR < 0.001). In contrast, depleting GRWD-1, which impairs ribosome assembly without disrupting spherical nucleolar structure, did not show enrichment of sexual reproduction processes in more accessible chromatin regions. Instead, genes related to translation, mostly consisting of ribosomal protein genes, mitochondrial-ribosome-related genes, and translation initiation/termination factors (e.g., *rps-0, rps-9, rps-17, rps-27, rpl-9, rpl-18, rpl-25.2, rpl-28, inf-1, larp-5, rack-1, W01D2.1*) showed increased accessibility under both RPOA-2 and GRWD-1 depletion, consistent with adaptive response to reduced ribosome production. These results suggest that although decreased ribosome production increases accessibility at translation related loci in both conditions, reducing RNA Pol I activity uniquely increases the accessibility of oogenesis genes, potentially contributing to the defective oogenesis phenotype (**Figure 2**).

We further investigated the extent to which oogenesis genes were affected by RNA Pol I depletion using a set of 2,177 genes with germline-enriched expression in feminized *fem-1(lf)* mutants [53]. Of the 3,707 peaks annotated to these oogenesis genes, we detected a significant enrichment within regions that became significantly more accessible after RPOA-2 depletion (**Figure 4E**, Hypergeometric test, $p = 2.2 \times 10^{-156}$). Consistent with this observation, the autosomal bias of oogenesis genes parallels the autosomal bias in accessibility observed for RPOA-2-depleted gonads (**Figure 4F**).

To assess potential regulators of these accessibility changes, we searched for enriched transcription factor (TF) binding motifs that gained accessibility after RPOA-2 depletion. Compared to ungapped sequence motifs present in background peaks, we identified eight motifs significantly enriched in the accessible peaks of RPOA-2-depleted germ cells (**Table S3**, STREME, $p < 0.05$, $E < 0.05$). We aligned the eight motifs enriched in RPOA-2-depleted germ lines against the 842 TF motifs present in the TFBSshape database and

identified 143 unique TF binding motif matches in peaks with increased accessibility after RPOA-2

depletion (Tomtom, $p < 0.05$, $E < 8.42$) [54]. After manual curation to combine redundant query motifs and

their repeated matches, we found relatively few matches with visibly cohesive alignments to their query

motifs. Notably, we identified four total hits to human E2F-binding sites from the enriched

RTGCGCCTTTAAA and CGCRCGKTKTTTRN motifs (**Figure 4G**, **Table S3**), which are orthologs to

the oogenesis-promoting *C. elegans* transcription factor EFL-1 [55]. Additionally, the CGCRCGKTKTTTRN

motif aligned to the yeast Rsc3- and Rsc30-binding sites, which regulate ribosomal protein gene expression

[56].

Although there was no enrichment of motifs for accessible regions following GRWD-1 depletion, we

corroborated that the EFL-1-like binding motif was specifically more accessible following RPOA-2

depletion, but not after GRWD-1 depletion. We identified 242 ATAC-seq peaks containing a significant

match to the EFL-1 motif, predominantly in promoters less than 1 kb from the nearest gene (**Figure 4H**,

FIMO, $p < 0.0001$). Genes with promoter peaks containing an EFL-1 motif are involved in processes such

as sexual reproduction, germ cell development, and eggshell formation (**Figure 4I**, Hypergeometric test,

FDR < 0.05). Lastly, genes with a promoter peak containing the EFL-1 motif were not remodeled after

reducing ribosome assembly but did show increased accessibility after reducing RNA Pol I activity (**Figure**

S5F).

We next examined whether these accessibility changes affected steady-state transcript levels by analyzing

RNA-seq data from dissected gonads after RPOA-2 or GRWD-1-depletion. We identified 188 genes with

increased mRNA levels and 177 genes with reduced mRNA levels upon RPOA-2 depletion (**Figure S5B**,

Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted $p < 0.05$). Similarly, GRWD-1 depletion led to increased mRNA levels in

287 genes and decreased levels in 235 genes (**Figure S5B**, Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted $p < 0.05$). We did

not observe significant functional GO enrichment in the over-expressed genes unique to RPOA-2 depletion

(**Table S5**, Hypergeometric test, FDR < 0.001). Both conditions shared 57 over-expressed genes and 87

under-expressed genes with a shared enrichment of under-expressed genes related to translation (**Figure**

S3C-D, Hypergeometric test, FDR < 0.001), mirroring patterns observed in chromatin accessibility.

Moreover, we found no overall correlation between chromatin accessibility and mRNA levels for all genes

or for those that were differentially accessible and differentially expressed (**Figure S5E**, $p > 0.05$).

Given the enrichment of a putative repressive Rsc30-like motif in accessible regions following RPOA-2

depletion, we hypothesized that translation-related genes would be under-expressed. Indeed, many

ribosomal protein genes are significantly reduced after RPOA-2 depletion, consistent with negative

regulation (**Figure S5G**, one-tailed one-sample t-test, alternative hypothesis: average $\log_2$ fold-change < 0,

$p = 0.00020$). Such coordinated repression can be explained by previously described feedback mechanisms

that couple ribosomal protein gene expression directly to rRNA transcription. Specifically, the

transcriptional activator Ifh1 interacts with the rRNA processing factor Utp22 to synchronize ribosomal

protein gene transcription with rRNA synthesis [57]. Under conditions of impaired rRNA synthesis, as occurs

with RPOA-2 depletion, Utp22 is no longer sequestered by rRNA and thus becomes available to bind

ribosomal protein gene promoters, leading to transcriptional repression. In contrast, depletion of GRWD-1

disrupts assembly of the 60S ribosomal subunit without directly impairing rRNA transcription (**Figure 1F,**

S1C, S1D). As a result, the Utp22-mediated feedback inhibition of ribosomal protein genes is likely not

triggered, and instead these genes become overexpressed as a compensatory response to defective ribosome

assembly (**Figure S5D**).

In contrast, genes related to sexual reproduction did not exhibit increased transcript levels, despite increased

chromatin accessibility and the enrichment of a potential oogenesis-promoting transcription factor motif

(**Figure S5G**, one-tailed one-sample t-test, alternative hypothesis: average $\log_2$ fold-change > 0, $p = 0.16$).

In agreement, genes with a promoter peak containing an EFL-1 motif did not significantly increase mRNA

expression after RPOA-2 depletion (**Figure S5F**, one-tailed one-sample t-test, alternative hypothesis: $\log_2$

fold-change > 0, $p = 0.14$). Thus, although oogenesis promoters become more accessible, mRNA levels

remain unchanged, reflecting an oogenesis-specific chromatin state that is primed for but does not undergo

productive transcription.

Together, these results suggest that decreasing RNA Pol I activity triggers nucleosome remodeling to reduce

the expression of ribosomal proteins, potentially conserving resources in response to limited rRNA

availability for ribosome biogenesis. However, this reduction in RNA Pol I activity also leads to

nucleosome remodeling that increases the accessibility of oogenesis-related genes and oogenesis-promoting

EFL-1 binding sites, potentially contributing to a defective oocyte maturation phenotype (**Figure 2**).

Supplementary Figure 5

Figure S5, Related to Figure 4. Effects of RPOA-2 and GRWD-1 depletion on germline chromatin accessibility and gene expression.

(**A**) Log$_2$ fold-change estimates of chromatin accessibility based on gonadal ATAC-seq data from at least three biological replicates per condition, each composed of 20 gonads. Each segment along the x-axis represents a genomic region. The number of differentially accessible regions are noted in the plot legend based on an adjusted $p < 0.05$. Percentages represent the proportion of differentially accessible peaks relative to the total number of called peaks per chromosome. (**B**) Log$_2$ fold-change estimates of gene expression from RNA-seq conducted on dissected gonads after RPOA-2 or GRWD-1 depletion. Biological replicates, consisting of 20 gonads: RPOA-2 control = 3, RPOA-2 depletion = 4, GRWD-1 control = 2, GRWD-1 depletion = 3. (**C**) Venn diagram to contextualize the difference in the scale of gene expression changes after RPOA-2 depletion compared to GRWD-1 depletion. (**D**) Enrichment of gene ontology biological processes in genes that were differentially expressed after RPOA-2 or GRWD-1 depletion (Hypergeometric test, FDR < 0.001). (**E**) Log$_2$ fold-change estimates of promoter accessibility versus mRNA to investigate whether chromatin accessibility correlated with gene expression. We did not identify a significant correlation between promoter accessibility and mRNA levels across all genes (gray), or across genes that were both differentially accessible and differentially expressed after RPOA-2 or GRWD-1 depletion (black). (**F**) Comparison of ATAC-seq and RNA-seq log$_2$ fold-change estimates for genes with promoter peaks containing an EFL-1 motif after RPOA-2 or GRWD-1 depletion. On average, genes with a promoter EFL-1 motif did not show a significant increase in mRNA fold-changes after RPOA-2 depletion (one-tailed one-sample t-test, alternative hypothesis: log$_2$ fold-change > 0, $p = 0.14$). (**G**) Comparison of ATAC-seq and RNA-seq log$_2$ fold-change estimates in biological processes enriched in genes with increased chromatin accessibility after RPOA-2 depletion. Only the terms "sexual reproduction" and "translation" are represented, as they encompass the majority of related subprocesses. "Both" represents genes that are involved in both biological processes. On average, translation-related genes, including ribosomal proteins, have lower mRNA fold-changes after RPOA-2 depletion (one-tailed one-sample t-test, alternative hypothesis: average log$_2$ fold-change < 0, $p = 0.00020$), whereas genes related to sexual reproduction do not have significantly increased mRNA levels (one-tailed one-sample t-test, alternative hypothesis: log$_2$ fold-change > 0, $p = 0.16$).

Increases in chromatin accessibility upon Pol I depletion are accompanied by oogenesis-specific histone remodeling

Throughout oogenesis, germ cells undergo extensive chromatin remodeling to prepare for meiotic chromosome condensation and subsequent zygotic genome activation (ZGA). One hallmark of this transition is the redistribution of H3K4me3 from gene bodies to promoters in mature oocytes [4]. Given that RPOA-2 depletion increases the accessibility of oogenesis-related regions, we asked whether these loci show typical signatures of H3K4me3 remodeling in maturing wild-type oocytes.

Genes undergoing H3K4me3 remodeling during oogenesis can be grouped into three clusters: Cluster 1 (strong H3K4me3 marks in both promoters and gene bodies), Cluster 2 (strong promoter-specific H3K4me3), and Cluster 3 (weaker promoter-specific H3K4me3) [4]. When we compared chromatin accessibility near genes in these clusters, we found that accessibility near oogenesis-specific H3K4me3 remodeled genes significantly increased after RPOA-2 depletion relative to a random set of regions (**Figure 5A**, Bonferroni-corrected one-tailed Welch's two-sample t-tests, $p < 0.05$). Consistent with the germ-to-oocyte H3K4me3 remodeling pattern, Cluster 1 genes showed increased chromatin accessibility along both promoters and gene bodies (**Figure 5B**, top). Cluster 2 genes exhibited increased accessibility mainly in promoters, while Cluster 3 genes displayed weaker promoter specific increases following RPOA-2 depletion (**Figure 5B**, middle and bottom).

Although reducing RNA Pol I activity shows signatures of H3K4me3 remodeling, changes in chromatin accessibility can also reflect the remodeling of other histone marks. We compared the abundance of three such histone marks—remodeled active H3K4me3, non-remodeled active H3K36me3, and non-remodeled repressive H3K27me3—within regions that became more accessible after RPOA-2 depletion, using available ChIP-seq data from wild-type germ cells and oocytes [58–60]. In wild-type germ cells, H3K27me3 marks were less abundant in SMA regions compared to random regions (**Figure 5C**, top left), while active marks (H3K36me3 and H3K4me3) were enriched in SMA regions (**Figure 5C**, top middle and right). In wild-type oocytes, we expected highly accessible regions after RPOA-2 depletion to show specific enrichment for H3K4me3, reflecting germ-to-oocyte histone remodeling. In agreement, H3K4me3 marks were enriched in SMA regions relative to random regions (**Figure 5C**, bottom right), while H3K27me3 and H3K36me3 signals were weak in both accessible and random regions (**Figure 5C**, bottom left and middle).

Since more than 80% of SMA peaks are near promoters (**Figure 4B**), and H3K4me3 marks shift to promoters in oocytes, we hypothesized that H3K4me3 signal would peak at the center of SMA regions in wild-type oocytes. In contrast, we expected H3K4me3 in wild-type germ cells to decrease around SMA

regions, since H3K4me3 is typically present along gene bodies in germ cells. This pattern was confirmed,

with H3K4me3 signal peaking in SMA regions relative to a random set of promoters in wild-type oocytes

(**Figure 5D**, right) and decreasing around SMA regions in wild-type germ cells. H3K27me3 and

H3K36me3 signals did not notably peak near SMA regions in either germ cells or oocytes (**Figure 5D**, left

and middle). Our findings support that reducing RNA Pol I activity throughout the germ line specifically

increases the accessibility of promoters that are remodeled during the germ-to-oocyte transition through

H3K4me3 deposition, suggesting that the spatiotemporal regulation of H3K4 methylation is misregulated

under RNA Pol I-mediated nucleolar disruption.

In wild-type animals, H3K4 methylation progressively increases towards the proximal region of the gonad,

and this spatial regulation of H3K4 methylation is essential for proper germ line maturation [12,61]. Given that

RPOA-2 depletion increases the accessibility of oogenesis-associated H3K4me3 regions and specifically

disrupts oogenesis, we anticipated that the spatial regulation of H3K4 methylation would be altered in

response to RPOA-2 depletion, likely through premature H3K4me3 deposition in accordance with

increased chromatin accessibility. To investigate this, we performed gonadal H3K4me3 immunostaining

and cell-segmentation image analysis to assess how reduced RNA Pol I activity affects changes in the

deposition of H3K4me3 from the distal to proximal end of the gonad (**Figure 5E**, $n = 50$ control gonads

with 3,933 cells, $n = 77$ depletion gonads with 8,134 cells). Individual germ cell positions were projected

onto a linear gonad axis to evaluate how H3K4me3 immunostaining intensity correlated with cell position

along the distal-proximal gonad axis (termed cell gonad position from here on) (**Figure 5F**, see Methods).

As expected, an aggregate analysis of cells from all control gonads revealed a significant gradual increase

in H3K4 methylation along the distal-proximal axis, evidenced both by H3K4me3/DAPI normalized

intensity (**Figure 5G, top**, Spearman coefficient = 0.41) and by per-gonad scaled H3K4me3 intensity

(**Figure 5G, bottom**, Spearman coefficient = 0.36). Similarly, we also analyzed this positive H3K4me3

gradient within individual gonads and observed that the majority (84%) of control gonads had significant

correlations between cell gonad position and normalized H3K4me3/DAPI intensity (**Figure 5H**, mean

Spearman coefficient: 0.46±0.03, Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value < 0.05), and also per-gonad scaled

H3K4me3 intensity (**Figure 5H**, mean Spearman coefficient: 0.36±0.03, 78% with Benjamini-Hochberg

adjusted p-value < 0.05). These results support that typical oogenesis is consistently associated with a

moderate but important positive H3K4me3 gradient.

Under reduced RNA Pol I activity, the aggregated correlation between cell gonad position and H3K4me3

was reduced by approximately half, both relative to normalized H3K4me3/DAPI and per-gonad scaled

H3K4me3 intensity (**Figure 5G**, Spearman coefficient = 0.26 and 0.14 for H3K4me3/DAPI and per-gonad

scaled H3K4me3, respectively). Additionally, only 64% of RPOA-2-depleted gonads had significant, but

weaker, correlations between cell gonad position and normalized H3K4me3/DAPI intensity (**Figure 5H**,

mean Spearman coefficient: 0.23±0.04, Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value < 0.05) and also per-gonad

scaled H3K4me3 intensity (**Figure 5H**, mean Spearman coefficient: 0.12±0.03, 52% with Benjamini-

Hochberg adjusted p-value < 0.05).

Lastly, compared to control gonads, RPOA-2-depleted gonads had a significant reduction in average

correlation between cell gonad position and H3K4me3 (**Figure 5H**, one-tailed Welch's two-sample t-test,

H3K4me3/DAPI: Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value = 3.0×10^{-5}, per-gonad scaled H3K4me3:

Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value = 4.6×10^{-7}). Interestingly, this misregulation of H3K4me3

deposition could be explained by increased H3K4me3 in the distal region (**Figure 5G, top**).

Given RPOA-2 depletion specifically disrupts the spatiotemporal regulation of H3K4 methylation,

premature and aberrant deposition of H3K4me3 likely interferes with synapsis and meiotic chromosome

organization. Indeed, previous studies have established that disrupted H3K4 methylation dynamics strongly

correlate with recombination abnormalities, and defects in synaptonemal assembly and stability [62,63].

Consistent with these findings, we also observed synapsis defects indicated by altered SYP-3 localization,

following RPOA-2 depletion (**Figure 3A-B, S4**).

To further dissect the mechanistic basis underlying these defects, we asked whether nucleolar disruption

and associated chromatin alterations activate the meiotic DNA damage checkpoint kinases ATM-1 and

ATL-1. Immunostaining for phosphorylated serine/threonine residues, a hallmark of ATM/ATR checkpoint

activation, revealed visibly increased checkpoint signaling specifically upon RPOA-2 depletion, but not

after GRWD-1 depletion, suggesting checkpoint activation is specific to RNA Pol I mediated nucleolar

stress (**Figure S6A**).

ATM/ATR activation is known to trigger CEP-1 (p53) mediated apoptosis in the presence of extensive

DNA damage or unresolved meiotic recombination intermediates. Thus, we asked whether increased

ATM/ATR phosphorylation following RPOA-2 depletion led to activation of CEP-1/p53. RNAi

experiments targeting *rpoa-2* or *grwd-1* in a CEP-1::GFP reporter strain showed no visible increase in CEP-

1 expression compared to control RNAi (**Figure S6B**). These data indicate that the meiotic chromosome

defects and associated checkpoint activation induced by RNA Pol I depletion occur independently of

apoptosis, consistent with acridine orange staining results, which revealed no significant increase in

apoptotic cells (**Figure S2A, B**). Instead, these results suggest that ATM/ATR checkpoint activation occurs

in conjunction with synapsis defects.

Given the proposed role of SET-2 (the *C. elegans* homolog of SET1 responsible for catalyzing H3K4

methylation) in preserving genome integrity and regulating chromatin compaction in the germ line [63,64], we

hypothesized that SET-2 might mediate the aberrant H3K4 methylation observed following RPOA-2

depletion. We further reasoned that loss of SET-2 function might rescue or alter the oogenesis defects and

abnormal methylation patterns seen after RPOA-2 depletion. To test this hypothesis, we crossed the *set-*

2(ok592) mutant into the RPOA-2 AID strain. However, RPOA-2 depletion in the *set-2(ok592)* mutant

background still resulted in a reduced number of enlarged oocytes (**Figure S6C**), indicating that SET-2

does not significantly influence the RNA Pol I dependent oogenesis defects. Furthermore, H3K4me3

immunostaining revealed persistently increased H3K4 trimethylation upon RPOA-2 depletion in the

absence of SET-2 function (*set-2(ok592)*), suggesting that SET-2 is not the methyltransferase responsible

for the aberrant methylation triggered by loss of RPOA-2 (**Figure S6D**).

Together, our data support a model (**Figure 6**) in which RNA Pol I–dependent nucleolar integrity is

essential to maintain the proper spatiotemporal regulation of H3K4 methylation during oogenesis.

Specifically, reducing RNA Pol I activity results in premature and ectopic deposition of H3K4me3 at the

promoters of oogenesis-related genes, leading to abnormal chromatin accessibility patterns. These aberrant

chromatin states likely interfere with synaptonemal complex formation and homologous recombination,

triggering sustained ATM/ATR checkpoint activation independent of CEP-1/p53 mediated apoptosis.

Rather than apoptosis, this checkpoint activation likely leads to meiotic cell-cycle perturbation, suggesting

an epigenetic feedback loop that safeguards germline genome integrity upon nucleolar disruption and

associated chromatin misregulation (**Figure 6**).

Figure 5

A **H3K4me3-remodeled Gene Clusters**
Cluster 1: strong promoter + some gene body
Cluster 2: strong promoter only
Cluster 3: weak promoter

Figure 5. Chromatin regions that become more accessible after reducing RNA Pol I activity display patterns of H3K4me3 remodeling characteristic of the germ-to-oocyte transition. See also Figure S6.

(**A**) Log$_2$ fold-change estimates of chromatin accessibility after RPOA-2 depletion in peaks annotated to genes that undergo H3K4me3 remodeling during oogenesis, compared to a random subset of peaks. The number of peaks in each set is specified by n, and means are denoted by an x. Statistical comparisons were performed using right-tailed Welch's two-sample t-tests with Bonferroni corrections. (**B**) Metagene analysis of mean log$_2$ ATAC signal (RPOA-2 depletion/control) within 1 kb of genes that undergo H3K4me3 remodeling during oogenesis. In gonads with reduced RNA Pol I activity, the shape of chromatin accessibility signal within each cluster mirrors the shape of H3K4me3 remodeling associated with each gene cluster. (**C**) Distribution of average H3K27me3, H3K36me3, and H3K4me3 ChIP signals from wild-type germ cells or oocytes within ATAC-seq peaks that are significantly more accessible (SMA) after RPOA-2 depletion, compared to signals within an identically-sized random subset of regions. Means are denoted by an x. (**D**) Metagene plot displaying the average H3K27me3, H3K36me3, and H3K4me3 ChIP coverage from wild-type germ cells or oocytes within 1 kb of genomic regions that are SMA after RPOA-2 depletion, compared to coverage within an identically-sized random subset of promoter ATAC-seq peaks that are not SMA. (**E**) Representative 3-D confocal projections of adult gonad arms with H3K4me3 immunostaining and DAPI after control treatment or RPOA-2 depletion. Dotted lines represent gonad boundaries determined from T-PMT. Scale bar = 50 μm. (**F**) Using the example gonads from (E), we show germ cell position along a linear gonad axis following implementation of a gonad linearization algorithm (see Methods). Each point represents a germ cell detection; however, note that not all gonadal cells are detected by the algorithm. The distal tip is represented by zero on the gonad axis, whereas the most proximal tip of the gonad is variable based on biological size, gonad disruption during immunostaining, or gonad placement on Z-plane. H3K4me3 intensity measurements are normalized to DAPI to account for differences in permeability across gonads. (**G**) Linear relationship between germ cell position along the gonadal axis (from distal to proximal end) and H3K4me3 signal intensity (relative to DAPI intensity or scaled per-gonad), aggregated across all gonads. Spearman correlation coefficients are represented on the plot. Linear models and overall correlations are based on data from 3,933 control cell detections and 8,134 depletion cell detections from 50 and 77 gonads, respectively. (**H**) Distribution of Spearman coefficients estimating per-gonad positive correlations between cell position on the gonad axis and H3K4me3 intensity (relative to DAPI intensity or scaled per-gonad). Mean and standard error are represented by red points and crossbars. The number of gonads analyzed per condition are represented by n. A one-tailed Welch's two-sample t-test suggests that on average, control gonads have a higher magnitude correlation than gonads with reduced RNA Pol I activity (Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-values).

Supplementary Figure S6

Figure S6, Related to Figure 5. Pol I reduction uniquely triggers ATM/ATR signaling in a CEP-1

independent manner (A-B); H3K4 trimethylation increases under reduced Pol I activity in a SET-2

independent manner (C-D).

(**A**) Average confocal projections of dissected gonad arms (outlined in white) immunostained for Phospho-

(Ser/Thr) ATM/ATR Substrate after auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-2/GRWD-1. All conditions were

imaged with identical laser settings. Scale bar = 50 μm. (**B**) Fluorescent and DIC images of CEP-1::GFP

expression in the germ line (outlined in white) after RNAi injection targeting *rpoa-2* and *grwd-1*, as well

as non-target injection and no injection controls. All conditions imaged with identical settings. Scale bar =

50 μm. (**C**) Merged fluorescent (degron::GFP::RPOA-2) and DIC images of adult germ lines after auxin-

inducible depletion of RPOA-2 in a wild-type or *set-2(ok952)* genetic background. Dotted lines highlight

the proximal arm; triangles point to proximal oocytes. Scale bar = 50 μm. (**D**) Representative average

confocal projections of adult gonad arms that have been immunostained for H3K4me3 after auxin-inducible

depletion of RPOA-2 in a *set-2(ok952)* genetic background. Dotted lines represent gonad boundaries

determined from T-PMT. Scale bar = 50 μm.

Figure 6

Figure 6. Schematic model illustrating the non-ribosomal function of RNA Pol I during *C. elegans* oogenesis.

Under normal conditions (left), RNA Pol I activity maintains nucleolar integrity, which supports the establishment of a proper H3K4me3 gradient from the distal to proximal germ line. This gradient facilitates meiotic synapsis and the progression of oogenesis, resulting in normal oocyte formation. When RNA Pol I activity is reduced (right), nucleolar disruption leads to premature and ectopic H3K4me3 deposition and aberrant oogenesis chromatin remodeling. This dysregulation interferes with the mitotic-to-meiotic transition, resulting in decreased synapsis that leads to abnormal oogenesis, characterized by fewer and enlarged oocytes. The model proposes an epigenetic feedback mechanism that links nucleolar function to germline genome integrity. Created in BioRender. https://BioRender.com/oq1fz8k.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we investigated non-ribosomal functions of the nucleolus during oogenesis using separation-of-function strains in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. By leveraging the auxin-inducible degron (AID) system, we selectively depleted catalytic subunits of RNA Polymerase I (RPOA-1 and RPOA-2) and two ribosome assembly factors (GRWD-1 and TSR-2) in the germ line. This approach enabled us to distinguish between the effects of nucleolar disruption and reduced ribosome biogenesis, revealing that germ cell nucleoli actively regulate meiotic progression through epigenetic mechanisms independent of ribosome production. Our findings uncover a previously unrecognized role for RNA Pol I activity and nucleolar integrity in oogenesis beyond ribosome production.

Differential impacts of nucleolar versus ribosomal stress on oogenesis and meiotic synapsis

A key insight from our work is the distinct impact of nucleolar versus ribosomal stress on germ cell differentiation. Near-complete reduction of ribosome assembly had minimal consequences for oocyte production (**Figure 2**), suggesting that the oogenesis program, including meiotic synapsis and histone remodeling, is not heavily dependent on ribosome biogenesis (**Figure 3-4**). In contrast, disruption of nucleolar structure through near-complete reduction of RNA Pol I activity leads to significant oogenesis and synapsis defects (**Figure 2-3**). These results suggest that nucleolar integrity, rather than downstream capacity for protein synthesis, is essential for proper germ cell progression through oogenesis.

Our previous work highlights the importance of ribosome loading in maturing oocytes to support embryogenesis in *C. elegans* [22]. However, our current results show that ribosome biogenesis is not critical for oogenesis itself, at least within the timeframe of our investigation. Furthermore, we previously demonstrated that somatic chromatin reorganization and developmental progression beyond the L2 stage are similarly affected by either nucleolar or ribosomal stress, indicating a uniform response in somatic tissues [43,65]. Here, however, germ cells entering meiosis exhibit a unique sensitivity to nucleolar disruption, suggesting that meiotic cells, with their distinct chromatin remodeling requirements, are particularly vulnerable to changes in nucleolar homeostasis.

One explanation may be that meiotic germ cells, which are relatively quiescent in their transcription and translation activities, do not strongly depend on ongoing ribosome production. However, their reliance on large–scale chromosome restructuring places them at risk when nucleolar integrity is compromised; several lines of evidence in other organisms and tissues suggest that nucleolar integrity is linked to genome organization and stress sensing [66–71]. In female gametogenesis in particular, intact nucleolar structure has

been shown to have several implications for successful oogenesis unrelated to ribosome production. These

functions include safeguarding genomic stability by shielding repetitive rDNA loci from recombination,

preserving satellite repeat sequences, and sequestering transcriptional silencing factors, all of which are

crucial for successful oogenesis [23–25]. Thus, given the potential consequences of aberrant nucleolar structure

in maturing germ cells, it is likely that nucleolar stress-sensing mechanisms play a role in regulating meiotic

progression.

In support of this view, reductions in ribosome assembly, which maintains a spherical nucleolar structure,

does not noticeably impair the mitotic-to-meiotic transition as assessed by SYP-3 localization in the

transition zone and pachytene stages (**Figure 3**). In contrast, depletion of RNA Pol I activity, accompanied

by nucleolar disruption, impairs synapsis and significantly reduced oocyte production (**Figure 2-3**).

Intriguingly, depletion of fibrillarin, a structural nucleolar protein, similarly inhibited meiotic synapsis and

reduced oogenesis, suggesting the critical importance of nucleolar activity during meiosis **(Figure 3, S4)**.

Collectively, these findings strongly suggest that a nucleolar stress response mechanism directly impairs

meiotic progression, independently of downstream protein synthesis deficits.

Chromatin remodeling drives meiotic defects in response to nucleolar disruption

Oogenesis requires elaborate chromatin remodeling, including gradual chromosome condensation during

meiosis, and the spatial and temporal regulation of H3K4me3. Although many oogenic genes remain

transcriptionally quiescent in late-stage oocytes, epigenetic priming at the chromatin level is essential for

these genes to rapidly activate during zygotic genome activation. Thus, our study reveals a key non-

ribosomal function of the RNA Pol I activity, and nucleolar integrity, in coordinating these critical

epigenetic transitions.

Although nucleolar disruption clearly impacts chromatin organization, we did not observe a correlation

between promoter accessibility and mature mRNA levels (**Figure S5**). This is consistent with another study

in *C. elegans* that found no correlation between ATAC-seq signal and active transcription in isolated germ

cells [4], suggesting that chromatin accessibility alone does not fully account for gene expression regulation

in the germ line. Germline mRNA expression may instead be regulated by other mechanisms, including

22G-RNA and piRNA silencing (21U-RNAs) [72–74], inhibition of RNA Polymerase II carboxyl-terminal

domain phosphorylation by PIE-1 [75], and post-transcriptional 3'UTR regulation controlled by RNA-binding

proteins, such as PUF family proteins or GLD-1 [76–79]. Indeed, prophase-arrested oocytes remain

transcriptionally silent which coincides with PIE-1 re-localizing from the nucleolus to the nucleoplasm after

nucleolar dissolution [25]. Thus, premature nucleolar disruption may cause the untimely release of PIE-1,
reinforcing transcriptional silencing despite increased chromatin accessibility. This mechanism likely
explains why regions of differentially open chromatin do not become transcriptionally active upon RNA
Pol I depletion.

Despite the lack of immediate transcriptional consequences, our data suggest that disruptions in chromatin
conformation alone, driven by nucleolar cap formation, are sufficient to impair meiotic progression and
reduce oocyte production. Given the extensive chromatin reorganization required in meiotic cells compared
to other non-differentiating cell states, it is plausible that germ cells may be particularly vulnerable to such
significant disturbances in nuclear architecture, even if these do not immediately affect transcriptional
output.

How nucleolar structure might drive meiotic chromatin dynamics

Two potential mechanisms may explain why nucleolar disruption impair meiotic progression, particularly
through aberrant chromatin remodeling.

First, the disassembly of nucleolus via near complete depletion of RNA Pol I could release ribosomal
proteins or other factors (e.g. MDM2) that, in other organisms, stabilize P53 or similar pathways to trigger
cell cycle arrest [80,81]. Although *C. elegans* lacks a direct MDM2 homolog, analogous pathways may be at
play to prevent meiotic entry, potentially explaining the observed oogenesis defect. Indeed, our data show
no significant stabilization of the C. elegans p53 ortholog, CEP-1, upon nucleolar disruption, indicating
that any cell cycle arrest likely occurs independently of CEP-1/p53, possibly involving other checkpoint
mechanisms or signaling pathways.

Second, nucleolar caps may function as stress sensors for DNA damage or incompletely replicated rDNA,
activating surveillance pathways that stall meiotic progression. This model is supported by findings in other
systems showing that nucleolar stress can prompt G2 arrest through ATR-Chk-1 signaling, independent of
ribosome depletion [82]. In *C. elegans*, rDNA loci may become exposed prematurely when nucleolar structure
is compromised, leading to activation of ATM/ATR pathways and diverting double-strand break repair or
chromatin-modifying complexes toward rDNA repeats. Indeed, we observed increased ATM/ATR
checkpoint activation upon RNA Pol I depletion, supporting this interpretation. Given that proper ATM
and ATR activity is critical for organization of chromosomes along the cohesin axis and normal meiotic
progression [83,84], exposure of rDNA loci could disrupt the balance of ATM/ATR activity, leading to
prophase arrest in RPOA-2-depleted animals.

An additional possibility is that aberrant chromatin remodeling, particularly premature deposition of H3K4me3 marks, could itself trigger ATM/ATR checkpoint signaling. Our results indicate that RNA Pol I depletion causes significant chromatin remodeling at promoters of oogenesis specific genes as well as other autosomal loci. This altered chromatin accessibility, driven by aberrant H3K4 methylation patterns, could disrupt normal synaptonemal complex formation and homologous recombination processes [63]. Thus, nucleolar stress induced redistribution of chromatin modifying enzymes, including H3K4 methyltransferases, may initiate a cascade in which aberrant chromatin structure leads to synaptic defects and subsequent ATM/ATR-dependent checkpoint activation. However, since H3K4 methyltransferases can localize to double-strand break sites [62], this stress-driven redistribution of repair machinery might also underlie the misregulated H3K4me3 pattern observed in our study.

Ribosomal RNA transcription itself can also be regulated by epigenetic modifications at rDNA loci [85]. Small molecule inhibitors such as CX-5461 or low dose oxaliplatin alter rDNA chromatin and activate DNA damage responses or senescence in a p53 independent manner [86,87]. Since these drugs concurrently stabilize or damage G quadruplex structures and generate replication stress [88,89], their pleiotropic effects complicate interpretation. In contrast, our inducible genetic depletion of RNA Pol I subunits allows us to isolate the effects on genome-wide chromatin, revealing a clear link between Pol I loss, H3K4me3 mis-patterning, ATM/ATR activation and defective oogenesis, which occur independently of ribosome production.

Spatiotemporal control of H3K4 methylation by the nucleolus during oogenesis

Our work demonstrates that premature nucleolar disassembly during oogenesis impairs germ cell maturation, primarily through its effects on chromatin remodeling. Specifically, the regulation of H3K4-related chromatin dynamics is critical for oogenesis, as H3K4me3 levels need to gradually increase along the distal-proximal axis to prime the promoters of genes required for zygotic genome activation [4]. Disruptions in the activity of H3K4 de/methylases have been linked to abnormal nuclear morphology, reduced oocyte production, and inability to enter meiosis [11–13]. In agreement, we find that premature nucleolar disruption weakens the H3K4 remodeling gradient, leading to defects in chromatin architecture and oocyte production. This highlights a novel role for nucleolar integrity as a critical upstream regulator of the spatiotemporal regulation of H3K4 methylation necessary for germ cell maturation.

Our gonadal ATAC-seq analyses further reveal that nucleolar disruption uniquely increases chromatin accessibility at oogenesis genes, oogenesis-promoting EFL-1-binding sites, and promoters undergoing

H3K4me3 remodeling during oogenesis. We propose a model in which germ cells experiencing nucleolar stress redirect H3K4 methyltransferases or other remodeling factors to the site of rDNA damage, thereby depleting them from normal chromatin remodeling tasks. This shift may lead to hyper-accessible yet transcriptionally inactive loci in the germ line, consistent with the disruption of the normal H3K4me3 gradient and oogenesis-related gene priming.

Furthermore, our single-cell analysis of H3K4me3 immunofluorescence reveals that the positive H3K4me3 gradient along the distal-proximal gonad axis is disrupted under nucleolar stress. This perturbation is mediated by premature deposition of H3K4me3 in the distal region, further supporting the misregulation of chromatin accessibility in oogenesis genes. However, without single-cell ATAC-seq resolution, it remains unclear how chromatin accessibility changes are distributed along the gonad axis.

Although H3K4me3 represents a major dynamic mark in oocyte development, H3K27 methylation is also critical for germ line maintenance, and these marks are generally mutually exclusive [4]. It remains possible that misregulated heterochromatin marks, such as H3K27me3, contribute to the nucleolar-disruption phenotype. Intriguingly, H3K27 methylation has been associated with the nucleolus in other contexts [67], further hinting that a global shift in histone marks underlies the oogenesis defects we observed.

Broad implications

While our study focuses on *C. elegans,* nucleolar integrity and H3K4me3 remodeling during oogenesis are evolutionary conserved in higher eukaryotes, including humans [5–10]. This suggests that nucleolus may play a similarly critical, non-ribosomal role in female gametogenesis in other species. The sensitivity of meiotic germ cells to nucleolar stress has significant implications for reproductive health [90], particularly in individuals exposed to environmental stress, undergoing aging, or affected by ribosomopathies.

Our findings also highlight potential explanations for phenotypic differences observed in disorders linked to Pol I components, such as Treacher Collins syndrome, which involves mutations in *POLR1B*, and uniquely impacts neural crest proliferation and migration [91,92]. By uncovering how nucleolar driven chromatin reorganization shapes germ cell maturation, we provide a conceptual framework for understanding how disruptions in rDNA transcription can lead to specialized developmental deficits. More broadly, understanding these nucleolar roles offers a window into the intersection of genome maintenance, chromatin remodeling, and cell fate decisions across Metazoan development.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

R.M.T. and E.S.C. conceptualized the project and co-wrote the original manuscript. R.M.T., Q.Z., and E.S.C. revised the manuscript. Q.Z. and F.A. generated the RPOA-1 AID strain and dsRNAs. R.M.T. performed all imaging, immunostaining, data processing, and statistical analyses. Q.Z. performed crosses, injections, and all other molecular experiments. A.R. generated the ATAC-seq and RNA-seq libraries. E.S.C. supervised the project and acquired funding.

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Data availability

ATAC-seq and RNA-seq libraries are available through NCBI GEO, with accession codes GSE290498 and GSE290499, respectively.

Code availability

Original pipeline used for germ nuclei linearization and confocal intensity quantification is hosted on the GitHub repository: https://github.com/raqmejtru/germ-nuclei-linearization.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

     MAIN FIGURE TITLES AND LEGENDS

Figure 1. Auxin-inducible depletion of RNA Pol I subunits and ribosome assembly factors reveal that

nucleolar structure is dependent on pre-rRNA synthesis but not downstream ribosome maturation.

See also Figure S1.

(**A-D**) Germline expression of fluorescently tagged RPOA-2 (**A**), RPOA-1 (**B**), GRWD-1 (**C**), and TSR-2

(**D**) proteins after control or auxin treatment. Dissected germ lines are outlined in white. Each strain's

control/auxin images were taken with identical exposure settings. Scale bar = 50 μm. (**E**) Distribution of

germ nuclei GFP intensity after auxin-inducible depletion of GFP-tagged RPOA-1/RPOA-2/GRWD-

1/TSR-2. Statistical comparisons performed using left-tailed Welch's two-sample *t*-tests. (**F**) Comparisons

of counts per million (CPM) reads across a simplified single copy of the ITS1 and ITS2 loci based on

gonadal RNA-seq (total RNA) after auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-2/GRWD-1/TSR-2. Points

represent biological replicates (3 per condition, each consisting of 20 gonads); bars and error bars represent

the mean and SEM, respectively. (**G-H**) Germline nucleolar morphology (endogenous NUCL-1::mKate2)

after auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-2 (**G**) or GRWD-1 (**H**). Germ lines are outlined in white; zoomed-

in nucleoli are shown in the right column. Scale bars = 50 μm (whole gonad) and 5 μm (zoomed nucleoli).

Figure 2. Oocyte morphology and organization are impaired by reduced RNA Pol I activity,

independent from RNA Pol I's role in ribosome production. See also Figure S2.

(**A**) Representative DIC images of adult germ lines after auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-1/RPOA-

2/GRWD-1/TSR-2. Dotted lines highlight the proximal arm; triangles point to proximal oocytes. Scale bar

= 50 μm. (**B**) Graphical representation of proximal arm length and oocyte positions quantified in (**C-E**).

(**C-E**) Proximal arm lengths (**C**), proximal oocyte counts (**D**), and oocyte sizes (**E**) after auxin-inducible

depletion of RPOA-1/RPOA-2/GRWD-1/TSR-2. Each point represents a measurement from an individual

animal, normalized to the mean of each strain's control group. Crossbars represent SEM. All comparisons

were performed using two-tailed Welch's two-sample t-tests followed by Bonferroni corrections.

Figure 3. Synaptonemal complex formation during the mitotic-to-meiotic germ cell transition is

dependent on Pol I activity, but not other ribosome processing steps. See also Figure S3 and S4.

(A) Confocal images of transition zone nuclei expressing degron::GFP::RPOA-2, EmGFP::SYP-3, and

NUCL-1::mKate2 following control or auxin-inducible depletion of RPOA-2 (top two rows). Additionally,

we show non-treated nuclei from a wild-type genetic background (middle row) and zoomed-in nuclei from

RPOA-2-depleted and wild-type conditions (bottom row, labeled a-e). Scale bar = 5 μm (transition zone)

and 0.5 µm (zoomed-in nuclei). **(B)** Confocal images of transition zone nuclei expressing EmGFP::SYP-3

and NUCL-1::mKate2 48 hours post RNAi knockdown of a non-target locus (*wrmScarlet*), *nucl-1*, *grwd-*

1, *rpoa-2*, and *fib-1* (top), as well as zoomed-in nuclei from each condition (bottom). Scale bar = 5 µm

(transition zone) and 0.5 µm (zoomed-in nuclei). All images were taken with identical laser intensity; due

to decreased SYP-3 expression under knockdown of *grwd-1, rpoa-2,* and *fib-1*, we have increased the

brightness of these conditions to be more comparable to wild type.

Figure 4. Disrupting RNA Pol I activity prematurely primes autosomal promoters in an accessible

state associated with oogenesis. See also Figure S5.

(A) Venn diagram comparing the number of significantly more accessible (SMA) regions following

RPOA-2 depletion versus GRWD-1 depletion, based on an adjusted $p < 0.05$. **(B)** Genomic feature

annotations of ATAC-seq peaks. SMA regions after RPOA-2 or GRWD-1 depletion are predominantly

located within 1 kb of the nearest promoter. **(C)** Log_2 fold-change estimates of chromatin accessibility

based on gonadal ATAC-seq data from at least three biological replicates per condition, each composed

of 20 gonads. Each segment along the x-axis represents a genomic region. The number of differentially

accessible regions are noted in the plot legend based on an adjusted $p < 0.05$. Percentages represent the

proportion of differentially accessible peaks relative to the total number of called peaks per chromosome.

(D) Enrichment of gene ontology (GO) biological processes in genes exhibiting increased accessibility

after depletion of RPOA-2 or GRWD-1 (Hypergeometric test, FDR < 0.001). The term "gene" refers to

those associated with the nearest genomic feature annotation of each peak. **(E)** Overlap between peaks

that are SMA after RPOA-2 depletion and peaks near genes involved in oogenesis [53] (Hypergeometric

test). **(F)** Chromosomal distribution of genes involved in oogenesis [53] and SMA peaks after RPOA-2

depletion. **(G)** Alignment of the *C. elegans* EFL-1-binding site, human E2F-binding site, and the two

motifs enriched in SMA peaks after RPOA-2 depletion. **(H)** Genomic feature annotations of peaks

containing an EFL-1-binding site. **(I)** GO enrichment analysis for biological processes among genes with

promoter peaks that contain an EFL-1-binding site (Hypergeometric test, FDR < 0.05).

Figure 5. Chromatin regions that become more accessible after reducing RNA Pol I activity display

patterns of H3K4me3 remodeling characteristic of the germ-to-oocyte transition. See also Figure S6.

(A) Log_2 fold-change estimates of chromatin accessibility after RPOA-2 depletion in peaks annotated to

genes that undergo H3K4me3 remodeling during oogenesis, compared to a random subset of peaks. The

number of peaks in each set is specified by *n*, and means are denoted by an *x*. Statistical comparisons were

performed using right-tailed Welch's two-sample *t*-tests with Bonferroni corrections. (**B**) Metagene

analysis of mean $\log_2$ ATAC signal (RPOA-2 depletion/control) within 1 kb of genes that undergo

H3K4me3 remodeling during oogenesis. In gonads with reduced RNA Pol I activity, the shape of chromatin

accessibility signal within each cluster mirrors the shape of H3K4me3 remodeling associated with each

gene cluster. (**C**) Distribution of average H3K27me3, H3K36me3, and H3K4me3 ChIP signals from wild-

type germ cells or oocytes within ATAC-seq peaks that are significantly more accessible (SMA) after

RPOA-2 depletion, compared to signals within an identically-sized random subset of regions. Means are

denoted by an *x*. (**D**) Metagene plot displaying the average H3K27me3, H3K36me3, and H3K4me3 ChIP

coverage from wild-type germ cells or oocytes within 1 kb of genomic regions that are SMA after RPOA-

2 depletion, compared to coverage within an identically-sized random subset of promoter ATAC-seq peaks

that are not SMA. (**E**) Representative 3-D confocal projections of adult gonad arms with H3K4me3

immunostaining and DAPI after control treatment or RPOA-2 depletion. Dotted lines represent gonad

boundaries determined from T-PMT. Scale bar = 50 μm. (**F**) Using the example gonads from (**E**), we show

germ cell position along a linear gonad axis following implementation of a gonad linearization algorithm

(see Methods). Each point represents a germ cell detection; however, note that not all gonadal cells are

detected by the algorithm. The distal tip is represented by zero on the gonad axis, whereas the most proximal

tip of the gonad is variable based on biological size, gonad disruption during immunostaining, or gonad

placement on Z-plane. H3K4me3 intensity measurements are normalized to DAPI to account for

differences in permeability across gonads. (**G**) Linear relationship between germ cell position along the

gonadal axis (from distal to proximal end) and H3K4me3 signal intensity (relative to DAPI intensity or

scaled per-gonad), aggregated across all gonads. Spearman correlation coefficients are represented on the

plot. Linear models and overall correlations are based on data from 3,933 control cell detections and 8,134

depletion cell detections from 50 and 77 gonads, respectively. (**H**) Distribution of Spearman coefficients

estimating per-gonad positive correlations between cell position on the gonad axis and H3K4me3 intensity

(relative to DAPI intensity or scaled per-gonad). Mean and standard error are represented by red points and

crossbars. The number of gonads analyzed per condition are represented by *n*. A one-tailed Welch's two-

sample *t*-test suggests that on average, control gonads have a higher magnitude correlation than gonads

with reduced RNA Pol I activity (Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted *p*-values).

Figure 6. Schematic model illustrating the non-ribosomal function of RNA Pol I during *C. elegans*

oogenesis.

Under normal conditions (left), RNA Pol I activity maintains nucleolar integrity, which supports the

establishment of a proper H3K4me3 gradient from the distal to proximal germ line. This gradient facilitates

meiotic synapsis and the progression of oogenesis, resulting in normal oocyte formation. When RNA Pol I

activity is reduced (right), nucleolar disruption leads to premature and ectopic H3K4me3 deposition,

aberrant oogenesis chromatin remodeling, and activation of ATM/ATR signaling independently of CEP-

1/p53-mediated apoptosis. This dysregulation interferes with meiotic cell-cycle perturbation and leads to

abnormal oogenesis, characterized by fewer and enlarged oocytes. The model proposes an epigenetic

feedback mechanism that links nucleolar function to germline genome integrity. Created in BioRender.

https://BioRender.com/oq1fz8k.

METHODS

Strain generation

Constructs and strains used in this study are listed in **Table S7-S8**, respectively.

The *mKate2* tagged *nucl-1* allele was constructed using Cas9 protein driven by *eft-3* promoter in pDD162 and gRNA targeting a genomic sequence in the C-terminus of *nucl-1* in pAR2, a derivative of pRB1017, an empty vector for gRNA cloning. The sgRNA construct pAR2 was generated by the oligos ESC-AR-5 and ESC-AR-6. *nucl-1::mkate2::c1^sec^3xflag* (pAR1) was constructed for generating the knock-in into the C-terminus of the *nucl-1* gene. The 5′ and 3′ homology arms were amplified ~500 bp upstream of *nucl-1* stop codon using oligos ESC-AR-7 and ESC-AR-8, and ~500 bp downstream of stop codon using ESC-AKP-40 and ESC-AKP-41. The repair templates were used to replace the ccdB in pDD285.

Oligos ESC-AKP-(7-8) were used to generate a sgRNA targeting the N-terminus of the *dao-5* gene (16 bp from start codon) in pAKP2. The 5' homologous arm (500 bp upstream of *dao-5* start codon) and 3' homologous arm (500 bp downstream of start codon) were amplified using oligos ESC-AKP-(1-4), and subsequently used to replace the ccdB cassette in pDD282 to construct the repair template plasmid pAKP1.

The *degron*::*GFP*-tagged *rpoa-1* gene allele was constructed in a similar manner as above using pDD162 and gRNA targeting a genomic sequence in the C-terminus of *rpoa-1* in pQZ104. Oligos ESC-QZ-518 and ESC-QZ-519 were used to anneal sgRNA. The following reagents were used to assemble the final repair template pQZ103: 5′ homology arm (548 bp upstream of *rpoa-1* stop codon), 3′ homology arm (868 bp downstream of *rpoa-1* stop codon) were amplified using oligos ESC-QZ-512, ESC-QZ-513, ESC-FA-20, and ESC-FA-21. The 5′ homologue arm template was synthesized by a gBlock (IDT, ESC-QZ-511), while the 3′ homology arm was amplified using genomic DNA.

All plasmids for microinjection were purified using the PureLink HiPure Plasmid Miniprep Kit (Invitrogen #K210002). Oligo sequences used to generate these plasmids are in **Table S6**.

Strains generated through microinjection were prepared according to guidelines from [93]. To generate ESC254, N2 animals were injected with a mix consisting of 50 ng/µL pDD162 (Cas9 vector), 50 ng/µL gRNA pAKP2, 50 ng/µL *dao-5* repair template of pAKP1, and 5 ng/µL of pCFJ104 as an extrachromosomal marker. The SEC was then excised by heat shock. To generate ESC770, N2 animals were injected with a mix consisting of 50 ng/µL pDD162, 50 ng/µL gRNA pAR2, 50 ng/µL *nucl-1* repair template of pAR1, and 5 ng/µL extrachromosomal marker L3785. Animals lacking the extrachromosomal array were heat-

shocked to remove the SEC. To generate ESC772, DLW109 animals were injected with a mix consisting

of 50 ng/μL pDD162, 50 ng/μL gRNA pRR13, 50 ng/μL *rpoa-2* repair template of pQZ43, and 5 ng/μL

extrachromosomal marker pCFJ104. To generate ESC829, DLW109 animals were injected with a mix

consisting of 50 ng/μL pDD162, 50 ng/μL gRNA pQZ104, 50 ng/μL *rpoa-1* repair template of pQZ103,

and 5 ng/μL extrachromosomal marker pCFJ104. Finally, animals without the extrachromosomal array

were heat-shocked to excise the SEC.

WT/mIn1 males were crossed separately to ESC795, ESC772 and ESC796 strains to generate males

carrying *EmGFP::syp-3* transgene and *mKate2*-tagged *nucl-1*, as well as hermaphrodites carrying

degron::GFP-tagged *rpoa-2* or *degron::GFP*-tagged *grwd-1*. Both hermaphrodite genotypes were in the

BFP-tagged *TIR1* and *WT/mIn1* background. These males were then crossed to the corresponding

hermaphrodites to generate the ESC825 and ESC826 strains. We also crossed ESC772 to RB1025 to

generate ESC818, a strain carrying *set-2(ok952)* mutation in auxin-inducible *rpoa-2* background. *set-*

2(ok952) mutation was genotyped using the oligos ESC-QZ-515, 516, 517.

To visualize nucleolar structure while depleting RPOA-2 or GRWD-1, we crossed the *nucl-1::mKate2*

reporter (ESC770) into the RPOA-2 AID background (ESC772) and GRWD-1 AID background (ESC796)

to produce ESC794 and ESC797.

Lastly, to examine the co-localization of nucleolar structure and chromatin during meiosis, we crossed the

nucl-1::mKate2 reporter (ESC770) into a background containing a reporter for the synaptonemal complex

(CA1218).

Worm growth

C. elegans strains were maintained on plates with agar and nematode growth media (NGM) that were

seeded with *Escherichia coli* strain OP-50. Animals were grown at 20°C for all experiments. Prior to

experiments, animals were synchronized either by bleach synchronization or by allowing adults to lay

embryos for two hours. The synchronized embryos were grown on NGM agar plates until they reached the

late L4 stage. At the late L4 stage, animals were transferred to control or auxin treatment plates for further

analysis.

Auxin treatment

To deplete our proteins of interest using the auxin-inducible degron system (AID) system, we used a natural

auxin (IAA) compound from Alfa Aesar (#A10556). A 400 mM stock solution was prepared in EtOH and

stored at −20°C. For auxin treatment plates, we diluted IAA to a 1 mM concentration in NGM agar, then

poured and let it solidify in plates. For control treatment plates, we diluted an equivalent volume of ethanol

into NGM agar, then also poured and let it solidify in plates. Once solidified, plates were seeded with OP-

50 and set to incubate at 20°C overnight to allow lawn growth. Synchronized late L4 worms were then

transferred onto control or auxin plates for 18 hours at 20°C. Prior to any subsequent experiments, a

qualitative assessment of GFP depletion was performed on a fluorescent dissection scope to ensure that

auxin treatment worked as expected. Efficient degradation of RPOA-2 and GRWD-1 proteins were

previously validated by western blotting within the experimental timeframe used in this study [43,65].

Polysome fractionation

L4 larvae grown on regular NGM plates were transferred to NGM plates with and without 1 mM IAA for

24 hours at 20°C. Animals were liquid nitrogen flash frozen in polysome lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH

7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 5 mM MgCl2) and ground in liquid nitrogen (with mortar and pestle). The frozen worm

powder was thawed on ice and solubilized in polysome lysis buffer that was supplemented with 1 mM DTT,

100 μg/ml cycloheximide, 40 U/100 μl recombinant ribonuclease inhibitor (Invitrogen #10777019), 2

U/100 μl DNase (Invitrogen #AM2238). Lysates were loaded onto 10% to 45% sucrose gradients and spun

for 2.5 hours at 40,000 rpm using SW 41 Ti rotor in an ultracentrifugation system (Beckman Coulter). RNA

from monosome and polysome peaks was isolated using a density fractionation system (Brandel). The data

were used for the analysis in **Figure S1E.**

The following steps were performed to calculate reductions in polysome abundance in auxin-treated

samples relative to controls. We annotated thresholds on the fractionation curves generated above that

encompassed free RNA regions, along with the first three polysome curves. Based on these thresholds, we

calculated the area under the curve (AUC) for each region using the `AUC` function in R with parameter

`method = 'trapezoid'` [94]. Normalized polysome abundance was calculated by dividing the polysome AUC

by the free RNA AUC. We then compared this normalized abundance between auxin and control

treatments.

RNAi by dsRNA injection

We performed RNAi by injecting dsRNA into L4-stage animals. To generate the dsRNA, we amplified the

following genes (*rpoa-2*, *grwd-1*, *fib-1*, and *nucl-1*) from cDNA, and non-target control (*wrmScarlet*) from

plasmid pGLOW39. *T7* promoters were added to both ends of the amplified fragments using appropriate

primers (ESC-RR-174/175, ESC-QZ-524/525, ESC526/527, ESC-QZ-528/529, ESC-QZ-416/417) (**Table**

S7). The dsRNA synthesis was performed using the MEGAscript T7 Transcription Kit (Invitrogen

#AMB13345) following the manufacturer's instructions. We injected dsRNA (3µg/µl) into L4-stage

animals of ESC772, COP262, TG12, and ESC795 strains. After injection, the animals were transferred to

NGM plates and incubated at 20℃ for 48 hours prior to imaging. At least 20 worms were injected for each

dsRNA condition.

Widefield and confocal imaging

Widefield and confocal images were captured using a STELLARIS 8 microscope (Leica Microsystems).

When applicable, Z-stacks were transformed into average projections using LAS-X software (Leica

Microsystems). For images that are presented for qualitative purposes, we adjusted the brightness and

contrast to highlight features of interest, ensuring that adjustments are identical across

treatments/conditions. Images used for statistical quantification were analyzed in their raw form without

adjustments.

Quantification of GFP signal

Imaging slides were prepared by transferring worms onto an immobilizing solution (10 mM levamisole

hydrochloride, Sigma-Aldrich #31742-250MG). Gonads were dissected by using a hypodermic needle to

slice near the head region. GFP signal was captured using a 10X objective with a GFP filter with consistent

intensity and exposure settings.

CellProfiler v4.2.6 was used to segment individual nuclei and measure signal intensity based on the average

signal of each segmented nucleus [95]. Statistical comparison of mean GFP intensity between control and

auxin treatments was carried out using a one-tailed Welch two-sample *t*-test, performed with the `t.test`

function in R [94].[87]

Quantification of apoptotic corpses

Acridine orange (AO) staining was used to count apoptotic corpses in young adult germlines. First, L4s

were transferred onto control or 1 mM IAA plates seeded with OP50 for 16 hours. We confirmed that the

GFP signal was visibly reduced in the auxin-treated animals under a fluorescent dissection scope prior to

continuing with AO staining. After 16 hours, each plate was spiked with 500 µL of AO stain prepared using

2 µL of 10 mg/mL AO (Invitrogen™ #A1301) dissolved in 1 mL of M9 buffer. Animals were left to feed

on the stain for one hour, and were subsequently transferred onto new control or 1 mM IAA plates to de-

stain for an additional hour before live imaging in levamisole.

Fluorescent microscopy was used to identify strong GFP signals characteristic of apoptotic corpses that retain a green AO signal. We counted the number of corpses per one gonad arm per animal, and used a Mann-Whitney *U*-test to compare the distribution of corpses across control and auxin-treated samples.

Quantification of germline morphology

After control or auxin treatment, animals were transferred to slides with an immobilizing agent (10 mM levamisole hydrochloride, Sigma-Aldrich #31742-250MG). We captured whole-worm images for body measurements using a 10X DIC objective and germline morphology images using a 63X DIC objective. Using ImageJ, we measured body area, the length of the proximal arm (from the edge of the "-1" oocyte to the edge of the U-shaped arm bend), and the length and area of the three most proximal oocytes based on eggshell boundaries [96]. Oocyte counts were measured by scanning vertical stacks for nuclear and eggshell boundaries while imaging. Statistical comparisons were performed with the `t.test` function in R [94].

Library preparation

After control or auxin treatment, worms were transferred onto a slide with an immobilizing solution (1 mM levamisole hydrochloride, Sigma-Aldrich #31742-250MG). Gonads were dissected by using a hypodermic needle to slice near the head region. Twenty dissected gonads were collected per replicate into ddH_2O.

For RNA-seq, the dissected gonads were transferred to 1 mL of TRIzol (Thermo Fisher Scientific), vortexed, then incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature. RNA was extracted by adding 200 µL of chloroform to the lysate, spinning for 10 minutes at 15,000 rpm, and isolating the supernatant. The isolated RNA was precipitated overnight at −20°C using 50 mM sodium acetate, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 15 mg/mL GlycoBlue™ Coprecipitant (Thermo Fisher Scientific #AM9515), and isopropanol. RNA pellets were washed in 80% ethanol and prepared using the SMARTer Stranded RNA-Seq kit (Takara #634839). Briefly, the libraries were prepared by fragmenting and converting RNA to cDNA, and PCR amplified. PCR amplification reactions were run as follows: 1 minute denaturation at 94°C, followed by 15-17 cycles with 15 seconds at 98°C, 15 seconds at 55°C, and 30 seconds at 68°C. After PCR amplification, the DNA libraries were further purified using Agencourt AMPure XP beads (Fisher Scientific #A63880). The resulting libraries were quantified using the Qubit™ dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific #Q32851) and sequenced on a NovaSeq 6000 v1.5 SP flow cell (Illumina).

For ATAC-seq, the dissected gonads were stained with DAPI (5 ng/µL in PBS), then loaded onto a hemocytometer for nuclei counting. A volume containing 50,000 nuclei was then mixed with 2.5 µL TDE1

tagmentase. The tagmentation reaction was incubated at 37 °C for 30 minutes on a shaker. Immediately

after, the reactions were cleaned using the Zymo DNA Clean & Concentrator-5 kit (Fisher #NC9674845).

The cleaned and tagmented DNA was then amplified with Nextera i5 and i7 adapters using the NEBNext®

High-Fidelity 2X PCR Master Mix (NEB M0541L). Amplification reactions were run as follows: 5 minute

extension at 72°C; 30 second denaturing at 98°C; 18-19 cycles with 10 seconds at 98°C, 30 seconds at

63°C, and 1 minute at 72°C; and a final extension of 10 minutes at 72°C. PCR products were cleaned to

remove adapter contamination using the Zymo DNA Clean & Concentrator-5 kit. Library quality was

assessed by checking nucleosome banding patterns on a gel, and passing libraries were subsequently

cleaned using Agencourt AMPure XP beads. The resulting libraries were quantified using the Qubit™

dsDNA HS Assay Kit and sequenced on a NovaSeq 6000 v1.5 SP flow cell (Illumina).

Quantification of rDNA transcription

Raw RNA-seq reads were trimmed with Trim Galore! v0.6.10 using default parameters [97]. HISAT2 v2.2.1

was then used to build an index of the WBcel235 genome using the command `hisat2-build --seed 40` [98].

To report all multimapping alignments to repetitive rDNA regions, reads were mapped using the command

`hisat2 --seed 40 --all`. Alignments were coordinate sorted using Picard SortSam v3.1.1 with the command

`-SORT_ORDER coordinate --CREATE_INDEX true` [99].

To quantify rDNA transcription, we manually curated "gene" annotations for the two unique internal

transcribed spacers (ITS) and appended them to the WBcel235 annotation. We assessed alignment counts

to the modified annotation using featureCounts v2.0.6 with parameters `-t gene -g gene_id -M -O --fraction

-p` [100]. A Welch two-sample *t*-test was performed to compare mean counts per million reads mapped to

each ITS region as well as the entire 45S region using the `t.test` function in R [94].

For a visual comparison of coverage in the rDNA region, we used bamCoverage v3.5.4 to normalize reads

to average counts per million using the parameters `--normalizeUsing CPM --binSize 25` [101]. Coverage was

later visualized in R using the Gviz v1.47.1 package [102].

rDNA transcription was also quantified by RT-qPCR. L4-stage animals were treated with or without auxin

for 24 hours. Total RNA was treated with TURBO DNase (Thermo Fisher Scientific #AM2238), followed

by phenol/chloroform extraction to remove DNA contamination. Approximately 800 ng of purified RNA

was used for first-strand cDNA synthesis using SuperScript III Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo Fisher

Scientific #18080-093) with random primers. RT-qPCR was performed using specific primer pairs (**Table**

S6) on the QuantStudio 7 Flex Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Relative rDNA

transcript levels were determined by normalization to mature 26S rRNA.

Identification of differentially expressed genes

Raw RNA-seq reads were trimmed with Trim Galore! v0.6.10 using default parameters [97]. HISAT2 v2.2.1

was then used to build an index of the WBcel235 genome using the command `hisat2-build --seed 40` [98].

Reads were mapped using the command `hisat2 --seed 40` with default parameters. Alignments were

coordinate sorted using Picard SortSam v3.1.1 with the command `-SORT_ORDER coordinate --

CREATE_INDEX true` [99]. Alignment counts were then summarized using featureCounts v2.0.6 with

parameters `-t exon -g gene_id -p` [100]. Before further analyses, we filtered genes down to the 19,985 protein

coding genes found in the WBcel235 annotation, and we also filtered out genes with low expression (less

than 5 counts across 3 biological replicates). We evaluated differential gene expression using DESeq2

v1.40.2 with an experimental design that accounted for strain and treatment [103]. Genes were considered

differentially expressed if they had a Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value < 0.05.

Identification of differentially accessible regions

Raw ATAC-Seq reads were trimmed, aligned, decontaminated, and quality assessed using the SRAtac

v0.5.0 pipeline [65]. Before performing differential accessibility analyses, we used RUVSeq v1.34.0 to

perform batch correction on mapped counts by computing estimated factors of unwanted variance against

an empirical set of control genes [104]. We arbitrarily selected control genes with p-values greater than 0.75

and an average count per million above 20 in at least 90% of samples, calculated with the `filterByExpr`

function in edgeR v3.42.4 [105].

To evaluate differentially accessible chromatin regions (DARs), we used DESeq2 v1.40.2 with an

experimental design that accounted for strain, treatment, and the estimated factors of unwanted variation

[103]. We compared DARs across non-depleted and depleted samples using a significance threshold of a

Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value < 0.05. To visualize DARs, we performed $\log_2$ fold-change

shrinkage using DESeq2's `lfcShrink` function with apeglm v1.22.1 shrinkage estimators [106].

ATAC-seq genomic feature annotation

ATAC-seq peaks were annotated using the `annotatePeak` function in the ChIPseeker v1.36.0 package with modification `overlap = all` [107] in conjunction with the TxDb ce11 v3.4.6 reference database [108]. Results were visualized with the `plotAnnoBar` function in the clusterProfiler v4.12.0 package [109,110].

Differential analysis of functional gene ontology (GO) biological processes

For both ATAC-seq and RNA-seq, differential analysis of functional gene ontology (GO) biological processes were performed using the `compareCluster` function in the clusterProfiler v4.12.0 package using the following parameters: fun = 'enrichGO', ont = 'BP', pAdjustMethod = 'fdr', pvalueCutoff = 0.0001 (ATAC) or 0.001 (RNA), qvalueCutoff = 0.0001 (ATAC) or 0.001 (RNA) [109,110]. Results were visualized using the `dotplot` function in the enrichplot v1.24.0 package using parameter showCategory = 3 [111].

Motif enrichment and characterization

The MEME-suite bed2fasta tool was used to add nucleic sequences to background and differentially accessible peaks based on the UCSC ce11 reference genome [112]. We used the MEME-suite STREME tool to enrich for ungapped motifs present in our peak sets with a *p*-value and *E*-value threshold of 0.05, an alignment around the center of the peak, and all other default parameters [113]. We used the MEME-suite Tomtom tool [114] to map the enriched motifs against the 842 TF motifs present in the TFBSshape database [54]. We classified significant motif-motif similarity based on Pearson correlation coefficients, an *E*-value threshold of 8.42, and all other default parameters. We further manually curated matches to combine redundant query motifs and their repeated hits, and to ensure that alignments were visibly cohesive.

To identify genomic sites in our ATAC-seq data containing the *C. elegans* EFL-1 motif (MA0541.1), we used the MEME-suite FIMO v5.5.5 tool with parameters `--thresh 1.0E-4 --nrdb--` against our background set of peaks (i.e., all peaks across all samples called in SRAtac pipeline). We identified which peaks contained EFL-1 motifs by searching for overlaps between EFL-1 motif sites and peaks using the `findOverlaps` function with parameter `type = 'within'` in the GenomicRanges v1.56.1 package [115]. Genes with EFL-1 motifs in their promoter were analyzed for enrichment of GO biological processes using the enrichGO function in the in the clusterProfiler v4.12.0 package with parameters `pAdjustMethod = 'fdr', pvalueCutoff = 0.05, qvalueCutoff = 0.05` based on the annotation of the peak that the motif was located in [109,110]. Results were visualized using the `dotplot` function in the enrichplot v1.24.0 package using parameter showCategory = 3 [111].

Metagene analysis of histone ChIP-seq coverage

1149

Isolated germ and oocyte histone ChIP-seq experiments used in this study are listed in **Table S9**.

Raw ChIP-seq reads were downloaded from NCBI using the SRA Toolkit [116]. Reads were processed using
the nf-core/chipseq pipeline with parameters: `--genome WBcel235 --broad_cutoff 0.01 --macs_fdr 0.001
--nomodel` and `--extsize` between 147-250 [117,118]. If read length was known, we specified the `--
read_length` parameter, otherwise we specified the effective genome size (`--macs_gsize 100286401`)
estimated using the recommended `faCount` tool [119].

Next, bigwigAverage v3.5.5 was used to compute an average bigwig coverage track for each antigen and
cell type combination (i.e., oocyte H3K4me3 antigen, oocyte H3K4me3 input, etc.) using parameter `--
scaleFactors` with the scale factors provided by the nf-core/chipseq pipeline [101]. Average $\log_2$ ratios of
coverage across antigen/input samples were then computed using bigwigCompare v3.5.5 with parameter `-
-operation log2` [101]. Additionally, an average $\log_2$ coverage score was computed across significantly more
accessible peaks after RPOA-2 depletion and an identically-sized random subset of ATAC-seq peaks by
intersecting bigwig scores using the `findOverlaps` function in the GenomicRanges v1.56.1 [115].

Metagene profile plots were used to display the average $\log_2$ ratios of ChIP signal from isolated germ cells
or oocytes across peaks that were significantly more accessible after RPOA-2 depletion, or across an
identically-sized random subset of promoter ATAC-seq peaks that were not significantly more accessible.
The tool computeMatrix v3.5.5 was used to generate coverage scores per peak using parameters `--
referencePoint center --afterRegionStartLength 1000 --beforeRegionStartLength 1000 --binSize 25` [101].
Metagene plots were displayed using plotProfile v3.5.5 with parameter `--perGroup` to summarize scores
across germ versus oocyte cell types [101].

Analysis of chromatin accessibility across H3K4me3-remodeled gene clusters

1170

Scaling (size) factors for ATAC-seq peak counts were computed using the relative log expression (RLE)
normalization method from DESeq2 v1.40.2 [103]. Each sample's ATAC-seq coverage was re-scaled and
binned into bigwigs for downstream visualization using bamCompare v3.5.5 with parameters `--scaleFactor
(1/RLE size factor) --binSize 50` [101]. RLE-normalized coverage for depletion and control samples was
aggregated using bigwigAverage v3.5.5, and subsequently $\log_2$ transformed using bigwigCompare v3.5.5
`--operation log2` to interpret fold changes in coverage across depletion and control conditions [101].

Metagene profile plots were used to display the average $\log_2$ ratios of ATAC signal across the H3K4me3-
remodeled gene clusters. The tool computeMatrix v3.5.5 was used to generate coverage scores per gene
using parameters `scale-regions --afterRegionStartLength 1000 --beforeRegionStartLength 1000 --
regionBodyLength 1000 --binSize 25` [101]. Metagene plots were displayed using plotProfile v3.5.5 with
parameter `--perGroup` to summarize scores across cluster 1, 2, and 3 gene sets [101].

Gonadal immunostaining

Prior to immunostaining, we confirmed that degron::GFP::RPOA-2 signal was visibly reduced in auxin-
treated animals.

H3K4me3 immunostaining was performed on tube-fixed dissected gonads from adult worms after control
or auxin treatment. Briefly, gonads were dissected in a solution with levamisole and 0.05% Tween 20 in
PBS (PBS-T). Dissected bodies were transferred to DNA LoBind™ Tubes (Eppendorf™ #022431021) and
fixed for five minutes using 4% PFA, then washed three times with PBS-T. Next, gonads were
permeabilized for fifteen minutes using 0.5% Triton X-100 in PBS-T. Gonads were then post-fixed using
95% ethanol for five minutes at -20°C, washed three times in PBS-T, and blocked for one hour using 5%
BSA in PBS-T. For primary antibody incubation, half of the gonads from each treatment condition were
incubated overnight at 4°C in 2% BSA in PBS-T as a negative primary antibody control, while the other
half were incubated overnight at 4°C using the primary antibody (Rabbit Anti-Histone H3 (tri-methyl K4)
antibody (Abcam #ab8580), 1:250; Rabbit Phospho-(Ser/Thr) ATM/ATR Substrate Antibody (Cell
Signaling #2851), 1:250) in 2% BSA in PBS-T. Gonads were subsequently washed three times using PBS-
T and incubated at room temperature for two hours in the secondary antibody (For H3K4me3: 10 μg/mL
of Goat Anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) Cross-Absorbed Alexa Fluor™ 633 (Invitrogen™ #A-21070); for Phospho-
(Ser/Thr) ATM/ATR Substrate: Goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody, Alexa
Fluor™ 555 (Thermo Fisher Scientific #A-21428), 1:200) in 2% BSA in PBS-T. Finally, gonads were
washed three times with PBS-T and mounted onto slides using VECTASHIELD® Antifade Mounting
Medium with DAPI (1.5 μg/mL) (Vector Laboratories #H120010).

Immunostained gonads were imaged from the distal to proximal zones using 40X tile-scanned confocal Z-
stacks of identical resolutions (2048x2048). All Z-stacks were forced to encompass 3 μm to minimize
overlaps between nuclei for downstream nuclei segmentation. Additionally, all confocal images were
captured using identical laser intensity and gain settings for downstream intensity quantification. We
excluded imaging gonads that were not adequately laying flat on the slide, preventing us from completely

capturing the distal to proximal zones within a 3 μm vertical space. Lastly, Z-stacks were transformed into

average projections for further analyses using LAS-X software (Leica Microsystems).

Gonad linearization and H3K4me3 signal quantification

A custom QuPath v0.5.1 script was created to identify H3K4me3 signal intensity per nuclei following

RPOA-2 control or depletion treatment. Briefly, gonads were manually annotated based on morphology

from the T-PMT confocal channel, and these annotations were overlaid onto the corresponding DAPI

channel. Gonad annotations were segmented using the `StarDist2D` function on the DAPI channel with the

`dsb2018_heavy_augment.pb` model and parameters `normalizePercentiles(1, 99)`, `threshold(0.80)`,

`pixelSize(0.1)`, and `cellExpansion(0)` [120,121]. Segmented nuclei annotations were copied to the H3K4me3

channel. Average H3K4me3 and DAPI signal intensities within segmented nuclei were measured using the

`addIntensityMeasurements` function with parameter `downsample = 0.1`. We converted average signal

intensity to integrated signal intensity using the formula `integrated intensity = mean intensity * area of

detected nuclei` to prevent nuclei detection area from biasing intensity comparisons across differently sized

nuclei. Additionally, to account for differences in permeability across gonads during immunostaining (due

to varying physical damage while vortexing, etc.), we normalized integrated H3K4me3 intensity to

integrated DAPI signal, and separately to the maximum H3K4me3 intensity recorded per gonad.

To analyze variation in H3K4me3 intensity from the distal to proximal zones, we employed a variation of

a gonad linearization algorithm to track the location of each nuclei along a linearized gonad representation

[122]. Briefly, in QuPath, a polyline skeleton was drawn from the distal tip to the most proximal end of the

gonad. We computed perpendicular projections of each nucleus onto the nearest gonad skeleton segment

and used this value to calculate the position of each nucleus along the gonad skeleton. We limited our

analyses to nuclei that were within a linearized gonad length of 2,000 px.

Lastly, for each gonad, we evaluated the positive non-parametric correlation between nuclei position along

the linear gonad axis and integrated H3K4me3/DAPI intensity or per-gonad scaled H3K4me3 intensity

using the `cor.test` function in R with parameters `method='spearman', alternative='greater', exact='false'`

and corrected for false positives using the `p.adjust` function in R with parameter `method='BH'` [94].

SUPPLEMENTAL TABLE LEGENDS

Table S1. Differential accessibility results from DESeq2 analysis comparing RPOA-2 control vs depletion conditions, as well as GRWD-1 control vs depletion conditions.

Table S2. Gene ontology (GO) biological processes enriched in gene sets with increased accessibility after reducing RNA Pol I activity or ribosome biogenesis. (GeneRatio: the proportion of annotated genes that are significantly more accessible and belong to a specific GO set, relative to the total number of significantly more accessible genes. BgRatio: the proportion of genes in a specific GO set, relative to the total number of annotated *C. elegans* genes).

Table S3. Ungapped sequence motifs enriched in differentially accessible regions (DAR) after reducing RNA Pol I activity or ribosome biogenesis, compared to motifs in background peaks. (Sites: the number and percentage of ATAC-seq regions in a DAR set that match the motif). (S.M.A. = significantly more accessible peaks, S.L.A. = significantly less accessible peaks)

Table S4. Differentially expression results from DESeq2 analysis comparing RPOA-2 control vs depletion conditions, as well as GRWD-1 control vs depletion conditions.

Table S5. Gene ontology (GO) biological processes enriched in differentially expressed genes (DEG) after reducing RNA Pol I activity or ribosome biogenesis. (GeneRatio: the proportion of DEGs that belong to a specific GO set, relative to the total number of DEGs. BgRatio: the proportion of genes in a specific GO set, relative to the total number of annotated C. elegans genes).

Table S6. Oligonucleotides used in this study.

Table S7. Constructs used in this study.

Table S8. Strains generated and used in this study.

Table S9. Data sets used in this study.

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