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Transgenerational sterility of Piwi pathway mutants in response to germ granule dysfunction

Short title: Germ granules orchestrate Piwi sterility

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Abstract:

Germ cells deficient for Piwi and associated small RNA genome silencing factors transmit a form of heritable stress that induces sterility after growth for several generations. The cause of this transgenerational sterility phenotype is not understood but has been attributed to progressive deterioration of heterochromatin and associated DNA damage. Sterile small RNA genome silencing mutants displayed inconsistent increases in DNA damage signaling but consistently altered perinuclear germ granules. Germ granule dysfunction was sufficient to induce phenotypes associated with sterile small RNA genome silencing mutants, including germline atrophy, reproductive diapause and univalents in oocytes. Genes that perturb germ granule structure were not compromised in sterile small RNA mutants, suggesting a post-transcriptional reproductive arrest mechanism. We conclude that the integrity of germ granules, which are intimately associated with Piwi silencing factors, orchestrates the sterility of Piwi deficient mutants and could be generally relevant to regulation of reproductive arrest in response to stress.

Significance Statement:

Sterility in response to heterochromatin dysfunction was recognized in *Drosophila* P-M Hybrid Dysgenesis experiments carried out by Margaret Kidwell in the 1970's and more recently in mutants deficient for Piwi/piRNA silencing. A central model of these studies is that this sterility is caused by transposon expression and associated genomic instability. We demonstrate that sterility in response to deficiency for Piwi is a form of reproductive arrest that is orchestrated by germ granule dysfunction. Germ granules

promote genomic silencing of transposons and viruses, and they are likely to be

frequently targeted by these parasites. We hypothesize the evolution of a reproductive

arrest mechanism that responds to attacks on germ granules by disrupting their

integrity.

Keywords: Germ granules, reproductive arrest, small RNAs, heterochromatin, germ

cell immortality, Heritable Stress, Piwi

Introduction:

Germ cells give rise to the mortal somatic tissues while maintaining themselves in a

pristine condition that allows them to be propagated for an indefinite number of

generations. This capacity for self-renewal is termed "germ cell immortality", and

functions to protect the germline from forms of damage that can result in sterility

(Smelick and Ahmed, 2005). Defects in *Caenorhabditis elegans* (*C. elegans)* genes that

promote small RNA-mediated genome silencing (Fig. 5a) can cause a Mortal Germline

(mrt) phenotype, where robust fertility occurs for several generations but deteriorates in

later generations, finally culminating in complete sterility. Many *mrt* mutants only

become sterile when grown at the non-permissive temperature 25°C (Ahmed and

Hodgkin, 2000), some of which are deficient for small RNA-mediated genome silencing

(Ashe et al., 2012; Buckley et al., 2012; Burkhart et al., 2011; McMurchy et al., 2017;

Sakaguchi et al., 2014; Smelick and Ahmed, 2005; Spracklin et al., 2017). However, the

piRNA-deficient mutant *prg-1* and the nuclear RNA interference (RNAi) mutants *nrde-1*

and *nrde-4* display progressive sterility at any temperature (Batista et al., 2008; Buckley

et al., 2012; Burkhart et al., 2011; Das et al., 2008; McMurchy et al., 2017; Simon et al.,

2014).

Piwi is a conserved germ line Argonaute protein that interacts with thousands of

small RNAs termed piRNAs to repress transposons and foreign nucleic acids that

represent parasitic threats to the integrity of the genome (Aravin et al., 2007; Luteijn and

Ketting, 2013; Siomi et al., 2011). Deficiency for the *C. elegans* Piwi ortholog *prg-1*

compromises germ cell immortality, and late-generation *prg-1* mutant strains were

recently shown to elicit a striking germ cell atrophy phenotype at the generation of

sterility, as L4 larvae mature into 1 day old adults (Heestand et al., 2018). Moreover,

atrophied germ lines of sterile *prg-1* mutants can regrow on day 2 of adulthood, and a

small fraction of constitutively sterile 5 day old *prg-1* mutant adults can become fertile

again if they are shifted to a distinct food source (Heestand et al., 2018). This indicates

that the late-generation sterility of *prg-1*/Piwi mutants is a form of reproductive arrest

termed Adult Reproductive Diapause, which can be induced in response to

environmental stresses such as starvation (Angelo and Van Gilst, 2009; Padilla and

Ladage, 2012; Tatar and Yin, 2001). We therefore proposed that late-generation sterility

of *prg-1*/Piwi mutants may occur in response to accumulation of a heritable stress that is

transmitted by germ cells (Heestand et al., 2018). Consistently, temperature-sensitive

small RNA genome silencing mutants *rsd-2* and *rsd-6* also exhibit small and empty

germlines at the generation of sterility (Sakaguchi et al., 2014).

Transposon-induced genome instability has been implicated in the acute sterility

phenotype of Piwi/piRNA mutants in several species (Juliano et al., 2011; Siomi et al.,

2011), and fertility defects in response to heterochromatin dysfunction have been

associated with increased levels of RNA-DNA hybrids and of transposon-induced DNA

damage (McMurchy et al., 2017; Zeller et al., 2016). *C. elegans prg-1* mutants display

progressively increased levels of germline apoptosis when grown for successive

generations, and apoptosis promotes germ cell atrophy for sterile *rsd-2*, *rsd-6* and *prg-1*

mutants (Heestand et al., 2018; Sakaguchi et al., 2014; Simon et al., 2014). Given that

very low levels of transposition occur in late-generation *prg-1* mutants (Simon et al.,

2014), and given that the transgenerational sterility phenotype of small RNA-mediated

genome silencing mutants is reversible (Heestand et al., 2018; Simon et al., 2014;

Spracklin et al., 2017), their sterility is unlikely to be a consequence of debilitating levels

of transposon-induced DNA damage. Finally, high levels of transposition occur in *C.*

elegans mutator mutants but this is not sufficient to induce transgenerational sterility at

permissive temperature (Simon et al., 2014).

Another proposed cause of sterility in *C. elegans* small RNA genome silencing

mutants is misrouting of small RNAs that regulate the epigenome (de Albuquerque et

al., 2015; Phillips et al., 2015). Some Argonaute proteins that regulate epigenomic

pathways are located in perinuclear germ granules, which are conserved germline

structures akin to liquid droplets that interact with nuclear pore complexes and are

necessary for fertility (Updike et al., 2011). *C. elegans* germ granules are termed P

granules based on antibodies that label the P blastomere that generates the germ cell

lineage (Strome and Wood, 1982). Core P granule proteins have been shown to play

redundant functions making it difficult to eliminate P granules (Updike et al., 2014). Here

we study the late-generation sterility phenotype of small RNA-mediated genome

silencing mutants and find that it is linked to dysfunction of P granules, a mechanism

that could be generally relevant to the regulation of stress-induced reproductive arrest

and to the long-standing observation that desilencing of heterochromatin can induce

sterility.

Results:

Genome instability in small RNA mutants

Transgenerational sterility in *C. elegans* telomerase mutants that lack the ability to

maintain sequences that cap chromosome ends is caused by high levels of telomere

fusions and associated genome damage (Ahmed and Hodgkin, 2000). We examined

prg-1 mutants grown at 20°C across several generations for the presence of the DNA

damage response, as detected by an antibody to phosphorylated S/TQ, a protein

modification that is created by two sensors of DNA damage, the phosphatadylisonisol-3-

kinase like protein kinases ATM and ATR (Kim et al., 1999; Vermezovic et al., 2012).

We observed a significant increase in the fraction of germ cells with upregulated DNA

damage response for late-generation fertile *prg-1* mutants (~3-fold) and sterile *prg-1*

mutants (~6-fold) when compared to either wild-type controls or to early-generation *prg-*

1 mutants (Fig. 1a,b). We also tested temperature-sensitive small RNA mutants and

found that the wild-type DNA damage response was upregulated in many cells by

growth at 25°C but that this level did not change in sterile *rsd-6, nrde-2* or *hrde-1* mutant

germlines (Fig. 1b,c). Therefore, although the DNA damage response is induced in late-

generation *prg-1* mutants, it is not consistently altered in sterile small RNA genome

silencing mutants.

Small RNA mutants exhibit P- granule defects at sterility

Deficiency for PRG-1 causes delocalization of the P granule protein PGL-1 (Phillips et al., 2015), and combined loss of the epigenomic regulators SPR-5 and LET-418, or loss of H3K9 methylation modifier SET-2 and the nuclear RNAi pathway, results in immediate sterility that is associated with disruption of P granules (Käser-Pébernard et al., 2014; Robert et al., 2014). Whilst characterizing germ line defects of sterile *rsd-6* mutants by immunofluorescence, we found that a P granule antibody exhibited altered staining patterns in sterile but not fertile late-generation *rsd-6* mutant siblings (Fig 2d-d'). We also found that sterile late-generation *hrde-1* and *nrde-2* temperature-sensitive mutant germ lines displayed P granule defects (Fig 2c-c', S1), which were absent or comparatively minor in fertile late-generation mutants that were close to the generation of sterility (Fig. 2c-c', S1, Table 1). When compared to wild-type controls, P granule dysfunction in the sterile mutants ranged from a loss of P granules in a subset of cells to varying amounts of P granule disorganization (Fig. 2, S1). Sterile *hrde-1(tm200)* mutant animals displayed the most severe P granule phenotype, as the majority of sterile *hrde-1* mutant germ cells exhibited little to no staining (Fig. S1). We also examined the temperature sensitive *mrt* mutant *rbr-2(tm1231)*, which encodes a histone 3 lysine 4 demethylase that promotes genomic silencing and likely functions downstream of small RNAs to promote germ cell immortality (Alvares et al., 2014). Similarly to *hrde-1* and *nrde-2*, late generation fertile *rbr-2* animals did not exhibit obvious P granule defects, while loss of P granules was observed in many germ cells at sterility (Fig. 2e-e').

Germ line atrophy occurs in some but not all *prg-1* mutants as L4 larvae develop into sterile adults (Heestand et al., 2018). Large-scale apoptosis contributes to this germ

cell degeneration phenotype (Heestand et al., 2018), and P granules have been shown

to vanish in cells that undergo apoptosis (Min et al., 2016; Sung et al., 2017). However,

we observed widespread P granule dysfunction in sterile germlines of *rsd-6* mutants

that were wildtype in size and had not undergone significant amounts of apoptosis (Fig.

2d).

nrde-1 and *nrde-4* animals displayed a distinct phenotype, whereby only a

subpopulation displayed P granule defects (60% and 22% respectively (Fig. S1, Table

S1)). This suggests that loss of *nrde-1* and *nrde-4*, which act downstream of multiple

small RNA (and possibly other epigenetic) pathways, may lead to sterility via several

distinct mechanisms.

In contrast to most small RNA genome silencing mutants where fertility defects

are not severe until the generation of sterility, late-generation *prg-1* mutants display very

small brood sizes for many generations prior to sterility (Heestand et al., 2018). By

immunofluorescence, we observed a wide range of P granule defects that could be

identified in both sterile and fertile late-generation *prg-1* mutant germ cells (Fig. 2b, S1).

Many germlines exhibited strong P granule dysfunction that either resulted in a total

absence of or an irregular distribution of P granules (Fig. 2b-b', S1).

C. elegans P granules are adjacent to Mutator bodies, which house Mutator

proteins that amplify primary siRNA populations into secondary effector siRNAs via

RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (Phillips et al., 2012). *mutator* mutants are

dysfunctional for of secondary siRNAs and remain fertile indefinitely at low temperatures

(Simon et al., 2014), but display an immediate highly penetrant sterility phenotype at

25°C that could be caused by dysfunction of small RNA-mediated heterochromatin

(Ketting et al., 1999). We examined sterile *mut-14* mutants at the restrictive

temperatures 25°C and observed pronounced P granule defects in 87% of animals (Fig.

2f-f', Table 1).

P granule dysfunction is sufficient to elicit phenotypes of sterile small RNA

silencing mutants

We initially addressed the significance of P granule dysfunction in sterile late-generation

small RNA genome silencing mutants using an RNA interference clone that

simultaneously targets four P granule subunits *pgl-1*, *pgl-3*, *glh-1*, *glh-4* (Knutson et al.,

2017; Updike et al., 2014). This resulted in many F2 sterile adults at 25°C (80%) (Fig.

3a). The germlines of F2 P granule RNAi L4 larvae were normal in size in comparison to

control worms. However, a pronounced germ cell atrophy phenotype occurred as many

P granule-depleted animals matured into sterile adults, resulting in a significant change

in their germline profile (Fig. 3b, p=3.93E-24). Furthermore, oocyte univalents were

previously observed in sterile but not fertile late-generation *rsd-6* mutants (Sakaguchi et

al., 2014), and 45.5% of oocytes of sterile P granule depleted adults contained 7-12

univalents (Fig. 3c, e-h).

Deficiency for *pgl-1* phenocopies of reproductive arrest of sterile *prg-1* mutants

We considered that the germline atrophy phenotypes observed in P granule-depleted

worms might mimic the Adult Reproductive Diapause phenotype of sterile *prg-1* mutant

adults, which can regrow their atrophied germlines and become fertile (Heestand et al.,

2018). To test this hypothesis, we used a mutant deficient for the P granule component

pgl-1, which displays a pronounced sterility phenotype if shifted to the restrictive

temperature of 25°C (Kawasaki et al., 1998). While most first generation F1 *pgl-1*

animals at 25°C displayed normal germlines at the L4 larval stage, there was a

significant shift in the germline profiles with 52% of day 1 adults showing germline

atrophy (Fig. 3b) (p=1.04E-35), similar to P granule RNAi knockdown and sterile *prg-1*

mutants (Heestand et al., 2018). Furthermore, when oocytes of sterile *pgl-1* mutant

adults were scored, we found that 56.7% of oocytes had univalents, in agreement with

the oocyte univalents observed in response to P granule depletion by RNAi (Fig. 3c).

At 25°C, some F1 *pgl-1* mutants were fertile and gave rise to maternally depleted

F2 animals that were uniformly sterile. F2 L4 larvae had germline profiles that displayed

more severe germ cell proliferation defects than those of F1 L4 larvae, and day 1 adults

showed a striking 54% increase in empty germlines (Fig. 3d) (p=2.44E-05). Therefore,

germlines of F1 progeny of *pgl-1* mutant mothers that were shifted to the restrictive

temperature mimicked the germ cell degeneration phenotypes of sterile small RNA

genome silencing mutants as L4 larvae matured into adults, whereas F2 generation *pgl-1* mutant larvae displayed more pronounced germ cell proliferation defects.

We asked if the fertility of sterile 25°C F1 *pgl-1* mutants could be restored by

shifting them to the permissive temperature of 20°C. Sterile F1 *pgl-1* mutants that

lacked embryos were shifted to 20°C on day 1 of adulthood and their germlines were

scored after 48 hours, which revealed a significant change in their germline profiles

(p=0.007), with a shift from atrophied germlines towards large germlines when

compared to sterile F1 *pgl-1* sibling controls that remained sterile at 25°C (Fig. 3i). In

agreement with this amelioration of germline size, we observed that some sterile F1 *pgl-*

1 mutant adults that were shifted to 20°C for several days had laid oocytes and dead

embryos, and that a few even gave rise to progeny (Fig. 3j). In contrast, sterile *pgl-1*

mutant control adults that were kept at 25°C never gave rise to oocytes, dead embryos

or living progeny (Fig. 3j). The frequency of fertility observed in this circumstance is very

similar to sterile *prg-1* mutant adults that exit Adult Reproductive Diapause in response

to an alternative food source (Heestand et al., 2018). These results indicate that P

granule dysfunction could induce Adult Reproductive Diapause, a transient and

potentially adaptive form of reproductive arrest.

Transcriptional consequences of germ granule dysfunction and small RNA

genome silencing mutant sterility

The sterility of Piwi/piRNA mutants is thought to result in upregulated expression of

transposons and associated genome instability (Heestand et al., 2018). In an effort to

deduce how germ granule dysfunction might occur in small RNA genome silencing

mutants, we sequenced RNA from the nuclear RNAi defective mutants *nrde-1*, *nrde-2*

and *nrde-4*. These mutants are all defective in nuclear silencing in response to

exogenous dsRNA triggers (Buckley et al., 2012; Guang et al., 2010, 2008), and at

25°C they all have Mortal Germlines (Burkhart et al., 2011). However, at 20°C *nrde-1*

and *nrde-4* mutants become progressively sterile but *nrde-2* mutants remain fertile

indefinitely (Burkhart et al., 2011). We focused on *nrde-1* and *nrde-4* mutants because

they have relatively large brood sizes at sterility at 20°C, such that large cohorts of L4

larvae that are poised to become sterile can be collected. In contrast, *prg-1* mutants

develop very low brood sizes in late generations (Heestand et al., 2018), and it is

difficult to obtain large numbers of synchronous animals that are poised to become

sterile. We therefore prepared RNA from early-generation and sterile-generation *nrde-1*

and *nrde-4* mutants at 20°C and compared this with RNA from wildtype and *nrde-2*

mutant controls.

We found that sterile generation *nrde-1* and *nrde-4* mutant L4 larvae showed

strong upregulation of similar transposon classes in comparison to early generation

nrde-1 or *nrde-4* mutant L4 larvae or to wildtype controls (Fig. 4a). We identified 18

transposon classes that were upregulated at least two-fold in both *nrde-1* and *nrde-4*,

13 of which were CER retrotransposons, which is consistent with previous

transgenerational analysis of *hrde-1* mutants (Ni et al., 2016). However, we found that

nrde-2 mutant controls that do not become sterile at 20°C displayed strong upregulation

of similar transposon loci, even in early generations. Of the 18 transposons upregulated

in both *nrde-1* and *nrde-4*, 17 were also upregulated in *nrde-2* compared with wildtype.

As a comparison, we analyzed published RNA-seq data from *prg-1(n4357)* mutant

animals (McMurchy et al., 2017). Previous papers have reported that distinct classes of

transposons are upregulated in *prg-1* and *nrde-2* mutants (Das et al., 2008; McMurchy

et al., 2017; Ni et al., 2016; Simon et al., 2014), and we confirmed this result by showing

that MIRAGE1 was the only transposon upregulated in both *nrde-1*, *nrde-4* and *prg-1*

mutants (Fig. 4a).

We compared gene expression data from sterile generation *nrde-1* or *nrde-4*

mutant L4 larvae with late-generation *prg-1* mutants (McMurchy et al., 2017) and

compared this with RNA from wildtype or *nrde-2* mutant control L4 larvae in order to

identify common genes whose expression is specifically induced in L4 larvae that are

poised to become sterile and that might explain the P granule abnormalities at sterility.

Late-generation *prg-1* mutant and sterile generation *nrde-1* and *nrde-4* mutant gene

expression was very different from wildtype or *nrde-2* mutant controls RNA.

Spermatogenic genes were over-represented among genes significantly upregulated in

sterile generation *nrde-1* and *nrde-4* mutant larvae (p = 1e-15, Chi Square test for both

mutants), which is consistent with what has been previously reported for *spr-5* mutants

that become progressively sterile (Katz et al., 2009). However, there was no general

tendency of an up- or down-regulation of any gene category for *prg-1*, *nrde-1* and *nrde-*

4 mutants. Only 11 genes were significantly upregulated in all three mutants, and there

were no commonly downregulated genes (Fig. 4c). We identified a set of 20 genes that

were significantly upregulated at least fourfold in *prg-1* and either *nrde-1* or *nrde-4*.

which included many *pud* (protein upregulated in dauer) genes that could be an

indicator for genes upregulated due to a general stress response of the organism (Table

S2). This may be consistent with our recent observation that DAF-16, which promotes

dauer formation, is responsible for several phenotypes of sterile generation *prg-1*

mutant adults, including germ cell atrophy (Heestand et al., 2018).

Knockdown of a number of genes has been shown to disrupt P granule structure

in a manner that could be similar to what we observe in sterile small RNA mutant adults

(Updike and Strome, 2010). We compared the expression of genes known to perturb P

granule structure with genes whose expression is significantly altered in late-generation

prg-1 mutants or in sterile generation *nrde-1* and *nrde-4* mutant L4 larvae. We could find

no consistent changes in P granule associated genes in any of the mutants tested.

RNA-seq data sets have been previously obtained for germlines of P granule

defective L4 larvae and adults (Knutson et al., 2017). In P granule defective adults,

somatic genes are overexpressed because these animals display a germline to soma

transformation, but germlines of L4 larvae were not significantly different from wildtype.

We compared sterile generation *nrde-1* and *nrde-4* RNA from L4 larvae with RNA from

germlines of P granule defective L4 larvae (Knutson et al., 2017) and found no genes

that were up or downregulated in both *nrde-1/nrde-4* and P granule defective larvae.

Moreover, only two out of the 18 transposons upregulated in *nrde-1/nrde-4* were also

upregulated in P granule defective L4 larvae (Fig. 4a). We conclude that L4 larvae that

are poised to enter reproductive arrest as a consequence of P granule dysfunction do

not display a consistent transcriptional signature, nor does P granule dysfunction cause

immediate overt effects on expression of heterochromatic segments of the genome.

Our analyses indicate that *prg-1* and *nrde-1/nrde-4* have fundamentally different

gene expression profiles at or near sterility. We conclude that the sterility phenotype of

prg-1 and *nrde-1/nrde-4* is physiologically similar but very different on a molecular level.

Therefore, although deficiency for *prg-1* and *nrde-1/nrde-4* disrupts small RNA-

mediated genome silencing and compromises germ cell immortality, these genes have

distinct functions with regards to small RNA regulation of the genome such that we

observed only a small number of overlapping transcriptional effects. These

transcriptional differences could contribute to the more pronounced P granule defects in

late-generation *prg-1* mutant germ lines in comparison to the relatively mild effects on P

granules in sterile *nrde-1* and *nrde-4* mutants.

Discussion:

P-M Hybrid Dysgenesis is a temperature-sensitive *Drosophila* fertility defect that was discovered in the 1970's, where defects in transposon silencing were linked to reproductive failure (Kelleher, 2016; Kidwell et al., 1977). In these experiments, Drosophila M strain females were mated with males of the more recently isolated P strain to yield F1 hybrid progeny with high levels of P element transposition and temperature-sensitive sterility. The reduced fertility of P-M F1 hybrids has been attributed to lack of a piRNA response to specific transposable elements (Brennecke et al., 2008), and we note that the sterility phenotype of P-M hybrids involves gonad atrophy (Kelleher, 2016), which is reminiscent of the germ cell degeneration observed in sterile late-generation *C. elegans* small RNA genome silencing mutants (Heestand et al., 2018) (Fig 3). Defects in Piwi proteins lead to immediate sterility in *Drosophila*, zebrafish and mouse, accompanied by transposon expression, transposition and by increased levels of DNA damage, which implies that transposon-induced genome instability could cause sterility of Piwi mutants (Juliano et al., 2011; Kelleher, 2016; Siomi et al., 2011). However, analysis of effects of transposon copy number on P-M hybrid dysgenesis indicated that transposon-induced genome instability only explains a minor fraction of P-M hybrid sterility (Srivastav and Kelleher, 2017). Consistently, data from our transgenerational model of sterility in response to heterochromatin deterioration indicates that DNA damage is unlikely to be a central factor in small RNA mutant sterility.

We addressed the mechanism that evokes sterility by discovering pronounced P granule defects in sterile but not fertile late-generation animals (Updike and Strome,

2010). The common sterility phenotypes of *pgl-1* mutants, P granule RNAi treated

animals and small RNA genome silencing mutants imply that germ granule defects are

likely to cause sterility in response to heterochromatin dysfunction. Furthermore, our

data suggest that univalent chromosomes that are specifically observed in oocytes of

sterile small RNA genome silencing animals are a secondary consequence of P granule

dysfunction that indirectly disrupts a meiotic process (Hillers K.J. et al., 2017; Loidl,

2016). When RNA from sterile generation *nrde-1* and *nrde-4* mutant L4 larvae and from

late-generation *prg-1* mutants was examined, we failed to observe consistent depletion

of any gene whose knockdown is known to disrupt P granule formation (Updike and

Strome, 2010), suggesting that the mechanism by which P granules are disrupted in

prg-1, *nrde-1* and *nrde-4* mutants may be post-transcriptional. In addition, a lack of

commonly misregulated genes between sterile small RNA mutants and P granule

defective animals suggests that the reproductive arrest that occurs in response to P

granule dysfunction is orchestrated at a post-transcriptional level, at least at the L4

larval stage immediately prior to germ cell atrophy (Heestand et al., 2018). It is possible

that RNA or protein components of P granules are released at sterility to promote

reproductive arrest (Updike and Strome, 2010).

We found that some sterile *pgl-1* mutants could recover at permissive

temperature, resulting in growth of the germline and fertility (Fig. 3i-j), as previously

observed for sterile late-generations *prg-1* mutants whose germlines were in a

quiescent state of Adult Reproductive Diapause (Heestand et al., 2018). Given that *prg-*

1 mutant germ cells may transmit a form of heritable stress that occurs in response to

heterochromatin dysfunction (Heestand et al., 2018), our results suggest that P granule

dysfunction could represent a general mechanism for orchestrating reproductive arrest in the context of stress-induced Adult Reproductive Diapause. Possibly consistent with our observations, sterile mouse mutants with defects in piRNA biogenesis have been reported to display germ granule defects (Chuma et al., 2006; Zheng and Wang, 2012). We suggest that germ granule dysfunction could explain the sterility observed in P-M hybrid dysgenesis and the immediate sterility phenotype of Piwi mutants in several species (Juliano et al., 2011; Kelleher, 2016; Siomi et al., 2011). Environmental stresses such as starvation can also evoke reproductive arrest (Angelo and Van Gilst, 2009), and it is possible that altered germ granule integrity could represent a response mechanism to a variety of stresses. A more speculative consideration is that germ granule dysfunction might contribute to the rise in human infertility and associated fertility treatment in recent decades, which has been attributed to factors such as psychological stress, caffeine consumption and pollutants (Homan et al., 2007; Younglai et al., 2005).

Small RNA silencing proteins such as CSR-1, PRG-1 or HRDE-1 are localized to P granules, and it has been hypothesized that dysfunction of pro- and anti-silencing small RNA pathways associated with P granules could be the cause of sterility in small RNA genome silencing mutants (de Albuquerque et al., 2015; Phillips et al., 2015). Our data is generally consistent with this hypothesis, as physical disruption of P granule integrity is likely to generally perturb small RNA silencing pathways. However, we found that few transposons were mis-regulated in P granule deficient L4 larvae, indicating that the reproductive arrest phenotype that occurs in response of P granule disruption does not cause pronounced desilencing of many heterochromatic segments of the genome.

Our results establish a novel framework for considering inheritance in the context

of epigenetic stress and how this can evoke transgenerational sterility. We suggest that

the sterility we describe in response to epigenome dysfunction represents a

developmental arrest mechanism to protect the genome or epigenome in times of

stress. We note that transposons and viruses are central targets of the small RNA

genome silencing system and are likely to be in a continuous arms race between

parasite and host, where components of P granules that protect the host are likely to be

targeted (Updike and Strome, 2010). It may therefore be reasonable to hypothesize the

evolution of a reproductive arrest mechanism in the context of an attack on the P

granule silencing system that is predicated on disrupting the integrity of P granules

themselves.

Materials and Methods

Strains

All strains were cultured at 20°C or 25°C on Nematode Growth Medium (NGM) plates

seeded with *E. coli* OP50. Strains used include Bristol N2 wild type, *hrde-1(tm1200) III,*

rsd-6(yp11) I, nrde-1(yp4) III, nrde-2(gg95) II, nrde-4 (gg131) IV, prg-1 (n4357) I, prg-1

(tm872) I, mut-14 (pk730) V, and *rbr-2(tm1231) IV.*

RNAi Assay

Feeding RNAi plates harboring host bacteria HT115(DE3) engineered to express *"quad"*

dsRNA (targeting P granules) were obtained from Susan Strome (Knutson et al., 2017;

Updike et al., 2014). L1 larvae were placed onto freshly prepared feeding RNAi plates

with dsRNA induced by 1 mM IPTG (isopropyl-β-D(-)-thiogalactopyranoside) and were

transferred after 1 generation at 25°C and collected at F2 adults as described in

Knutson et al., 2017 for DAPI staining, oocyte and germline analysis.

<u>DAPI staining and Scoring</u>

DAPI staining was performed as previously described (Ahmed and Hodgkin, 2000).

Briefly, L4 larvae were selected from sibling plates and sterile adults were singled as

late L4s, observed 24 hours later for confirmed sterility, and then stained 48 hours after

collection. Univalents were scored by counting DAPI bodies in the -1 to -4 oocytes.

Germline profiles were scored using the method outlined in Heestand et al 2018

(Heestand et al., 2018).

<u>Statistical Analysis</u>

Statistical analysis was performed as previously described (Heestand et al., 2018).

Briefly, statistical analysis was performed using the R statistical environment (R Core

Team, 2013). For germline phenotypes, contingency tables were constructed and

pairwise Chi Square tests with Bonferroni correction was used to determine significant

differences in in germline phenotype distributions. The significance of the DNA damage

response analysis was determined by a Kruskal-Wallis test, followed by a Mann-

Whitney test between individual samples. P-values were adjusted with Bonferroni

correction when multiple comparisons were performed.

<u>RNA extraction and sequencing</u>

Animals were grown at 20°C on 60 mm NGM plates seeded with OP50 bacteria. RNA

was extracted using Trizol (Ambion) followed by isopropanol precipitation. Library

preparation and sequencing was performed at the UNC School of Medicine High-

Throughput Sequencing Facility (HTSF). Libraries were were prepared from ribosome-

depleted RNA and sequenced on an Illumina Hiseq 2500.

RNA-seq Analysis

The following publicly available RNA-seq datasets were download from the Gene

Expression Omnibus (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/): GSE92690 (P granule RNAi

experiment) and GSE87524 (*prg-1* experiment). Adapter trimming was performed as

required using the bbduk.sh script from the BBmap suite (Bushnell, n.d.) and custom

scripts. Reads were then mapped to the *C. elegans* genome (WS251) using hisat2 (Kim

et al., 2013) with default settings and read counts were assigned to protein-coding

genes using the featureCounts utility from the Subread package (Liao et al., 2014) . For

multimapping reads, each mapping locus was assigned a count of 1/n where n=number

of hits. Differentially expressed genes were identified using DESeq2, and were defined

as changing at least 2-fold with FDR-corrected p-value < 0.01. For analysis of

transposon RNAs, reads were mapped to the C. elegans transposon consensus

sequences downloaded from Repbase (http://www.girinst.org/repbase/) with bowtie

(Langmead et al., 2009) using the options -M 1 -v 2. Transposons with fewer than 10

counts in each sample were excluded from further analysis. Counts were normalized to

the total number of mapped reads for each library for the prg-1 dataset, or to the total

number of non-ribosomal mapped reads for all other datasets. A pseudocount of 1 was

added to each value to avoid division by zero errors. Analysis of sequencing data and

plot creation was performed using the R statistical computing environment (R Core

Team, 2013).

<u>Accession numbers</u>: RNA-seq data reported in this study have been submitted to the

GEO database and will be available at the time of publication.

<u>Immunofluorescence</u>

Adult hermaphrodites raised at 20°C or 25°C were dissected in M9 buffer and flash

frozen on dry ice before fixation for 1 min in methanol at -20°C. After washing in PBS

supplemented with 0.1% Tween-20 (PBST), primary antibody diluted in in PBST was

used to immunostain overnight at 4 °C in a humid chamber. Primaries used were 1:50

OIC1D4 (Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank). Secondary antibody staining was

performed by using a Cy3 donkey anti-mouse or Cy-5 donkey anti-rabbit overnight at

4°C. All images were obtained using a LSM 710 laser scanning confocal and were

taken using same settings as control samples. Images processed using ImageJ.

<u>DNA Damage Assay</u>

Worms that were close to sterility were isolated and defined as sterile if they did not

have any offspring as day 3 adults at 20˚C or day 2 adults at 25˚C. Fertile siblings of

sterile worms were defined as 'close to sterility'. The presence of the DNA damage

response was determined by using a phospho-specific antibody targeting the

phosphorylated consensus target site of ATM and ATR kinases (pS/TQ) (Cell Signaling

Technology). This antibody has only been shown to stain a DNA damage response in

the germline and was used as previously described (Vermezovic et al., 2012).

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the data. K.B., B.H., M.S., S.F. and S.A. wrote manuscript.

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Figure 1: DNA Damage Response is variable in small RNA genome silencing

mutants prior to and at sterility. (A) Staining of pS/TQ in wildtype, *prg-1(n4357) and*

prg-1(tm876) mutants. pS/TQ(grey and yellow) and DAPI(blue) **(B)** Quantification of

pS/TQ staining in 20°C wildtype and *prg-1* mutants at different levels of fertility. **(C)**

Quantification of pS/TQ staining in 25°C wildtype and small RNA genomic silencing

699   mutants at sterility. P-values were obtained by comparing sample groups in a Mann-

700   Whitney U test (p-value: $P > 0.05$ = n. s., $P < 0.05$ = *, $P = <0.01$ = **, $P =< 0.001$ = ***

701   compared to wildtype)

OICD/DAPI

wildtype

Late stage fertile — Sterile

prg-1 (n4357)

nrde-2 (gg95)

rsd-6 (yp11)

rbr-2 (tm1231)

mut-14 (pk730)

10μm

Figure 2: At sterility, partial loss of P granule staining occurred in *prg-1* and

temperature-sensitive mutants. Germlines of sterile Day 2-3 adult animals were

stained using the OIC1D4 antibody against P granules (green) and DAPI (blue). **(A-A')**

Control animals contain uniform puncta of P granule staining surrounding each nuclei.

(B-F) Late generation fertile *prg-1, rsd-6*, *nrde-2*, *rbr-2*, and *mut-14* animals displayed

relatively normal P granule staining in the germlines. **(B'-F')** *prg-1*, *nrde-2*, *rsd-6, rbr-2,*

and *mut-14* sterile animals all exhibited some degree of germ cell P granule loss.

Figure 3: Disruption of P granules by RNAi or loss of *pgl-1* resulted in similar

phenotypes. (A) F2 wild-type (N2) worms on Empty Vector (EV) or P granule RNAi at

25°C were scored for sterility, embryonic lethality, or fertility. n=16-30 worms per

condition, 2 independent experiments. **(B)** F1 L4 *pgl-1* mutants and F2 L4 P granule

RNAi treated animals stained by DAPI contained mostly large germlines while adults

exhibited a range of germline phenotypes from empty to large. **(C)** F1 *pgl-1* mutants and

F2 P granule RNAi treated animals contained oocytes with increased numbers of

univalents at sterility as measured by DAPI bodies n=151 wild-type, 81 P granule RNAi,

37 *pgl-1*. (D) Stained DAPI germlines of sterile F2 L4 and Day 1 *pgl-1* mutants. **(E-H)**

Representative DAPI images of germline and oocyte defects in empty vector treated

animals **(E,F)** and P granule RNAi treated animals **(G,H)** scale bar=10μm. **(I)** *pgl-1* F1

worms at 25°C were either DAPI stained as Day 3 adults (blue) or shifted to 20°C at

Day 1 and DAPI stained at Day 3 (red). **(I)** No sterile day 1 *pgl-1* F1 at 25°C laid

oocytes or progeny (n=35 plates, 350 worms). Sterile day 1 *pgl-1* shifted to 20°C (n=50

plates, 500 worms) gave rise to plates with oocytes and rarely progeny. Plates with

oocytes contained both oocytes and dead embryos. Plates with progeny contained

embryos that hatched to L1. For B,D,I *** $p<0.0001$, * $p=0.007$ Fisher's Chi Square test

with Bonferroni correction, n=total germlines scored, error bars are S.E.M.

Figure 4: Transcriptome profiling of germ granule deficient larvae and small RNA

genome silencing mutants. (A) Log2-fold changes in transposon transcript abundance

in mutant vs wild-type (VW), late vs early generation (LVE) or P granule RNAi-treated vs

control (PGD VC). Transposons upregulated at least two-fold in *nrde-1*, *nrde-4* or *prg-*

1(n4357) are shown. **(B)** Enrichment of germline-expressed genes in genes upregulated

in small RNA mutants. **(C)** Number of genes up and downregulated in small RNA

mutants.

 Figure 5: Model for P granule dysfunction in small RNA genome silencing

741 **mutants. (A**) Model of P granules and associated small RNA genome silencing

742 proteins. Green circles contain P granule components. Mutants in this paper that are

743 temperature-sensitive for germ cell immortality have blue outlines. Non-conditional

744 mutants have red outlines. **(B)** Model for accumulating Heritable Stress in small RNA

745 genome silencing mutants, which ultimately compromises P granule integrity.

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750 **Table 1**

Genotype	<20% loss	>20%loss	p-value
wt	32	0	
prg-1 (tm872)	1	7	<.0001
prg-1 (n4357)	3	1	=.11
hrde-1 (tm1200)	0	31	<.0001
rsd-6 (yp11)	0	32	<.0001
nrde-2(gg95)	0	25	<.0001
rbr-2 (tm1231)	0	32	<.0001
nrde-4 (gg131)	17	5	=.008
mut-14 (pk730)	1	6	<.0001
nrde-1 (yp4)	4	6	<.0001

Table 1: Quantification of P granule defects in the germline.

Sterile small RNA genome silencing mutants were stained with P granule antibody.
Germlines arms were semi-qualitatively scored for P granules. If at least 20% of the arm
was missing P granules if was scored as loss and if 80% or more of the arm contained
P granules on DAPI-stained nuclei it was considered normal. Statistics were performed
using Fishers exact test.
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Supplemental Information

Fig. S1. Related to Figure 2. P granule defects in *prg-1, nrde- 4, hrde-1 and nrde-1*.
Germlines of sterile Day 2-3 adult animals were stained using the OIC1D4 antibody against P
granules (green) and DAPI (blue). (A-A') Control animals contain uniform puncta of P granule
staining surrounding each nuclei. (B-E) Late generation fertile *prg-1, nrde-4, hrde-1*, and *nrde-1*

768 animals displayed relatively normal P granule staining in the germlines. (B'-E') sterile *prg-1,*
769 *nrde-4, hrde-1*, and *nrde-1* germ cell P granules.

	Total Worms Scored	% Fertile	% Sterile
pgl-1 F1 at 25°C	91	22%	78%
pgl-1 F2 at 25°C	71	0%	100%

774 **Table S1: Related to Figure 3. Fertility of *pgl-1* mutants at 25°C.** P0 *pgl-1* mutants
775 were shifted to 25°C and fertility was measured for the F1 generation. Fertile F1 worms
776 were cloned and the fertility of the F2 generation was measured.

gene	prg-1	nrde-1	nrde-4
C06B3.7	4.331128036	1.732445354	2.669978253
dhs-26	3.88587979	3.752818032	1.793937273
bath-45	3.604851731	5.5002102	2.319444032
fbxb-97	3.555301139	3.002992933	3.278539846
irg-2	3.519633623	2.605415087	2.189754742
pud-4	3.226292885	2.956152303	4.407697185
pud-3	3.097392415	3.143142026	4.328678969
R09E10.2	2.745900789	5.100997358	4.251177196
Y53F4B.5	2.636725232	5.821227047	4.162462556
K08D12.6	2.631068263	2.955437046	0.277803871
R03H10.6	2.469258519	4.82098578	3.295830487
Y58A7A.5	2.397260966	1.795895	2.143861408
pud-1.1	2.299685196	2.556376909	3.17781014
T22B7.7	2.276777478	3.01143186	2.207919501
fbxa-224	2.248998131	4.226992478	1.979961678
swt-6	2.144598564	3.153313277	0.277029378
pud-2.1	2.119890425	2.781615959	2.880747229
pud-2.2	2.094123631	2.779337879	2.796566876
pud-1.2	2.080250623	2.559790088	3.000944771
catp-3	2.014970724	2.436698711	2.674464594

780 **Table S2: Related to Figure 4. Genes upregulated in late-generation *prg-1* mutants**
781 **and in sterile *nrde-1* and *nrde-4* mutant L4 larvae.**
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