

The interplay between small RNA pathways shapes chromatin landscape in *C. elegans*

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The nematode *C. elegans* contains numerous endogenous small RNAs produced by RNA-dependent RNA polymerase complexes. The DRH-3 helicase, a component of RdRP, is required for production of both “silencing” siRNAs bound by Worm-specific Argonautes (WAGO) and “activating” siRNAs bound by CSR-1. Here we show that in the *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant deficient in the RdRP-produced secondary endo-siRNAs there is an ectopic accumulation of H3K27me2 at highly expressed genes. Moreover, we observe ectopic H3K9me3 at the enhancer elements in both *drh-3(ne4253)* and *csr-1(tm892)* mutant backgrounds. Notably, our previous work described a global increase in antisense transcription upon *csr-1* and *drh-3* loss-of function, and now we also report an increase in enhancer RNA levels in these mutants. We propose that, in the absence of secondary siRNAs, elevated antisense transcription promotes nuclear dsRNA formation, which, in turn, can be cleaved by Dicer into primary siRNAs that guide deposition of silent chromatin marks. A change in the siRNA landscape in RdRP and *drh-3(ne4253)* mutants and accumulation of dsRNA in the nuclei of *drh-3(ne4253)* worms supports this model.

24

25 INTRODUCTION

26 Research in fission yeast and plants identified an elaborate connection
 27 between small RNAs and heterochromatin formation (Reinhart et al., 2002;
 28 Pikaard and Mittelsten Scheid, 2014). To what extent this mechanism is
 29 conserved in other species is an important biological question. Exogenous or
 30 transgene-based introduction of the double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) was shown
 31 to initiate transcriptional silencing and/or heterochromatin formation in *C. elegans*
 32 (Grishok et al., 2005; Gu et al., 2012; Burton et al., 2011) and mammalian cells
 33 (Gullerova and Proudfoot, 2012). With the discovery of a new class of small
 34 RNAs, piRNAs, and their role in protecting germline from parasitic elements, the
 35 connection between small RNAs and chromatin in animals has been increasingly
 36 attributed to piRNAs (Cecere and Grishok, 2014). Although endogenous siRNAs
 37 (endo-siRNAs) produced from the dsRNA segments arising from large hairpins,
 38 overlapping 5' or 3' ends of transcripts, or repetitive elements have been
 39 detected in oocytes of higher animals (Watanabe et al., 2008; Tam et al., 2008),
 40 their biological significance remains unclear. Most recently, the possibility of
 41 nuclear small RNA production at the enhancers (Li et al., 2016) brought renewed
 42 interest in the regulatory potential of nuclear RNAi in animals.

43 In *C. elegans*, primary siRNAs generated through long dsRNA cleavage
 44 by the Dicer complex have been described in silencing induced by exogenous
 45 dsRNA (Yigit et al., 2006) or during viral infection (Sarkies et al., 2013).
 46 Consistently, the long dsRNA-binding protein RDE-4 (Tabara et al., 2002) and

the primary siRNA-binding Argonaute RDE-1 (Yigit et al., 2006), which are required for these processes, are often referred to as antiviral RNAi pathway components. However, in the absence of *C. elegans* ADARs, there is ectopic accumulation of nuclear dsRNA substrates for Dicer and ectopic activation of the antiviral RNAi pathway, which leads to developmental and physiological abnormalities (Warf et al., 2012). Most recently, Bass and colleagues described novel abundant endogenous primary siRNAs accumulating in the ADAR mutants that are likely responsible for these negative effects (Reich et al., 2018).

In wild type worms, the most abundant endo-siRNAs are 22G-RNAs produced by RNA-dependent RNA Polymerases (RdRP). In the antiviral pathway, primary siRNAs bound by RDE-1 are ultimately responsible for the recruitment of RdRPs to the 3' uridylated mRNA fragments and amplification of the RNAi response through secondary 22G-RNAs (Tsai et al., 2015). In the endogenous RNAi pathways, either ERGO-1-bound primary siRNAs or piRNAs initiate 22G-RNA production (Yigit et al., 2006; Han et al., 2009; Vasale et al., 2010; Ashe et al., 2012; Buckley et al., 2012; Gu et al., 2012b; Luteijn et al., 2012; Shirayama et al., 2012)). These pathways target repetitive elements, pseudogenes, transposons and some duplicated protein-coding genes for silencing. A group of redundant Worm-specific AGO proteins (WAGO) bind 22G-RNAs generated downstream of both antiviral and endogenous RNAi silencing pathways. The nuclear WAGO implicated in inducing transcriptional silencing are NRDE-3, expressed in the soma, and HRDE-1, expressed in the germline. There is evidence that these proteins are capable of inducing H3K9me3 at

endogenous genes complementary to exogenous dsRNA or at the transgenes, downstream of the piRNAs (Guang et al., 2008; Guang et al., 2010; Burton et al., 2011; Ashe et al., 2012; Buckley et al., 2012; Gu et al., 2012b; Luteijn et al., 2012; Shirayama et al., 2012). At the endogenous WAGO targets, i.e. repetitive elements, pseudogenes, and transposons, the connection between 22G-RNA production, H3K9 methylation and transcriptional silencing is less robust (Moazed et al., 2006; Burkhardt et al., 2011; Ni et al., 2014), and the possibility of H3K27 methylation guided by 22G-RNAs has not been widely explored.

CSR-1 (Chromosome Segregation and RNAi deficient) Argonaute (Yigit et al., 2006; Claycomb et al., 2009) is present both in the cytoplasm and the nucleus. It binds 22G-RNAs that are largely antisense to highly and widely expressed genes, and is associated with the nascent transcripts and mature mRNAs complementary to these siRNAs. Elucidating the molecular function of CSR-1 in the nucleus remains challenging, despite the efforts of multiple research groups attracted to this enigmatic Argonaute. The current agreement is that CSR-1 is an “activating” or “anti-silencing” Argonaute, since the levels of nascent transcripts complimentary to CSR-1-bound siRNAs decrease in *csr-1*-deficient worms. However, the mechanism behind this apparent positive role of CSR-1 in gene regulation is not known. Earlier, we took a genomic approach in studying CSR-1 function (Global Run-on Sequencing or GRO-seq) and detected both a decrease in nascent mRNA transcripts targeted by CSR-1 siRNAs and a remarkable increase in antisense transcription genome-wide in *csr-1* and *drh-3* loss-of-function mutants (Cecere et al., 2014). Notably, DRH-3 (Dicer-related

helicase) is a component of RdRP complexes producing 22G-RNAs and is required for generation of both WAGO-bound and CSR-1 bound small RNAs.

Here, we report a re-distribution of H3K27 methylation from the repetitive elements and X chromosome to active genes (CSR-1 targets) in the *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant worms, which correlates with an increase in antisense transcription at these loci. Moreover, we show that in both *csr-1(tm892)* and *drh-3(ne4253)* there is an increase in enhancer RNA transcription and elevation in H3K9me3 at the enhancers. Finally, we determined that small RNAs remaining on the absence of RdRP function are matching both sense and antisense strands of CSR-1 target pre-mRNAs. Our results support a model that “activating” and “silencing” secondary siRNAs in *C. elegans* have complementary functions required for proper genome-wide chromatin organization. We propose that in the absence of secondary siRNAs, there is excessive dsRNA production and activation of the antiviral RNAi pathway, which has the potential in guiding both H3K9 and H3K27 methylation.

RESULTS

Histone H3K27 methylation is ectopically increased on highly active genes upon *drh-3* loss-of-function

In the earlier studies, we observed similar alterations in global transcription in the viable partial loss-of-function *csr-1(tm892)* and *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant larvae (Cecere et al., 2014). To establish a connection between the transcription changes and chromatin status in these mutants, we performed

ChIP-seq with the antibodies specific to several histone modifications:
H3K27me3, H3K36me3, and H3K9me3.

The data obtained using wild type worms were consistent with the previous studies (Schmitges et al., 2011; Yuan et al., 2011; Gaydos et al., 2014) and demonstrated that H3K36me3 was linked to actively transcribed genes, while H3K27me3 was enriched in the regions with low transcription activity (Figure 1A).

In the *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant, transcription reduction of normally highly expressed genes strongly correlated with a reduction in the levels of active histone modification H3K36me3 and a gain of repressive histone mark H3K27me3 (Figure 1B). The highly expressed messages are known to be complementary to CSR-1-bound small RNA (i.e. represent CSR-1 target genes) (Claycomb et al., 2009), and a global reduction in H3K36me3 accompanied by a gain in H3K27me3 occurred at these CSR-1 target genes in *drh-3(ne4253)* (Figure 1C, left panel and Figure 1D).

At the same time, we observed that transcriptionally silent regions (pseudogenes and tissue-specific genes) that become more active in *drh-3(ne4253)* gained H3K36me3 and lost H3K27me3 in the *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant (Supplementary figure 1).

Surprisingly, in the *csr-1(tm892)* mutant, we did not observe dramatic changes in chromatin modifications (Figure 1C, right panel), even though transcription changes similar to those occurring in *drh-3(ne4253)* take place in this mutant as well (Cecere et al., 2014). It is possible that a loss of CSR-1-

interacting siRNAs in *drh-3(ne4253)* causes a more severe effect on the CSR-1/siRNA complex function than a decrease in CSR-1 protein level in the partially rescued *csr-1(tm892)* mutant (Cecere et al., 2014). Alternatively, the distinct molecular phenotypes, that is: the partial loss of only the “activating” pathway in the *csr-1(tm892)* mutant and the perturbation of both “activating” and silencing pathways in the *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant can result in different changes in chromatin.

Overall, our results indicate that a loss of both “activating” and “silencing” siRNAs results in dramatic redistribution of H3K36me3 and H3K27me3 histone modifications along the gene bodies. We conclude that ectopic H3K27me3 observed at the CSR-1 target genes in *drh-3(ne4253)* cannot be guided by the WAGO pathway, which is not active in this mutant, and there must be additional mechanisms responsible for the deposition of this mark.

Opposite regulation of H3K9me3 on highly active genes by the CSR-1 and WAGO pathways

Another histone modification, H3K9me3, which is associated with heterochromatin and had been connected to the WAGO pathway in several publications (Guang et al., 2008; Guang et al., 2010; Burton et al., 2011; Ashe et al., 2012; Buckley et al., 2012; Gu et al., 2012b; Luteijn et al., 2012; Shirayama et al., 2012), has been analyzed in our study. We found this modification to be predominantly located on the chromosome arms (Figure 2A), consistent with the published data (Liu et al., 2011). Whereas the level of H3K9me3 increased at the

CSR-1 target genes in the *csr-1(tm892)* mutant compared to wild type (Figure 2B, left plot), in *drh-3(ne4253)* we observed a depletion in this silencing mark at the same set of genes (Figure 2B, right plot). Because both the CSR-1 and the WAGO pathways are inhibited by the *drh-3(ne4253)* mutation, these results suggest a competition between the activating and silencing secondary siRNAs, such that the WAGO pathway promotes H3K9me3 and CSR-1 inhibits its deposition at the majority of CSR-1 target genes. This type of competitive relationship has been suggested by numerous studies utilizing transgenic strains (Ashe et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2012; Shirayama et al., 2012).

Our results are consistent with the idea that ectopic H3K27me3 is associated with a reduction in expression of highly active genes in *drh-3(ne4253)*, whereas in *csr-1(tm892)* WAGO-induced H3K9me3 is likely to play a more prominent role in inhibiting active genes. Therefore, CSR-1-bound siRNAs must protect highly expressed genes from both WAGO-dependent H3K9me3 deposition and H3K27me3 deposition driven by additional mechanisms.

H3K9me3 increases at enhancer regions in *csr-1(tm892)* and *drh-3(ne4253)* mutants

Notably, we identified a small group of CSR-1 target genes (2.5%) that harbor enhancer elements in their introns (Supplementary figure 2A). In this group, H3K9me3 levels increased in the *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant background (Supplementary figure 2B), similarly to the overall increase observed in *csr-1(tm892)*. Since enhancer-containing genes represent a small group of CSR-1

targets, this observation did not reach statistical significance. However, this initial finding prompted us to investigate H3K9me3 levels specifically at the enhancers. Indeed, in both *csr-1(tm892)* and *drh-3(ne4253)* mutants H3K9me3 was increased at the enhancer regions defined by a recent ATAC-seq study (Daugherty et al., 2017a) (Figure 2C).

From these results we conclude that RdRP-produced small RNAs may promote enhancer function by antagonizing, directly or indirectly, chromatin compaction at these regions.

Increase in antisense RNA production in *csr-1(tm892)* and *drh-3(ne4253)* correlates with silencing marks accumulation

Previously, we described a global increase in antisense transcription in the *csr-1(tm892)* and *drh-3(ne4253)* mutants (Cecere et al., 2014). To determine whether regions showing ectopic silencing marks in these mutants produce antisense RNA, we re-analyzed our published GRO-seq data. Indeed, we detected an increase in antisense transcription at CSR-1 target genes in both mutants, and especially at the genes containing intronic enhancers (Figure 3).

To further analyze transcription associated with the potential enhancer regions, we used enhancer-mapping data from two recent publications (Evans et al., 2016; Daugherty et al., 2017). One of these studies used the established chromatin signature of the enhancers to predict their location (Evans et al., 2016), and another used ATAC-seq to map open chromatin regions associated with the enhancers (Daugherty et al., 2017). The latter one also confirmed the

functionality of some of the enhancers. The first study contained a data set obtained from larval stage 3 (L3), the same developmental stage used in our GRO-seq (Cecere et al., 2014) and ChIP-seq experiments. Our analysis of GRO-seq data identified a global increase in transcription at the putative enhancers in both *csr-1(tm892)* and *drh-3(ne4253)* mutants (Figure 4A). We confirmed this result using the ATAC-seq-based enhancer mapping data set for our analyses, which allowed us to distinguish between the intragenic and intergenic (distal) enhancers (Figure 4B). We found that transcription was increased only at the distal enhancers in the *csr-1(tm892)* mutant, whereas in *drh-3(ne4253)* an increase was observed at both intragenic and distal enhancers, although it was more pronounced at the distal ones (Figure 4B and C).

In summary, we observed an increase in antisense transcription at the CSR-1 target genes and an increase in enhancer RNA transcription (in both directions) in the absence of RdRP-produced small RNAs. These results suggest that double-stranded RNA may accumulate at these regions in the studied mutants and that it may initiate the antiviral RNAi pathway ultimately guiding the deposition of silencing chromatin marks.

dsRNA-derived primary small RNA may induce histone modifications in the absence of secondary siRNAs

To test the idea of dsRNA accumulation in our mutants, we performed immunostaining of the intestinal cells with the antibody recognizing long dsRNA (J2, a generous gift from Dr. Mühlberger). In the *csr-1(tm892)* mutant the

accumulation was not extensive, but in *drh-3(ne4253)* we observed a strong staining signal in the nucleus (Figure 5C). We confirmed the specificity of the antibody by using RNase A-treated control samples (Supplementary figure 3).

Small antisense RNAs are very abundant in the wild type worms, and they are mostly represented by secondary siRNAs produced by RdRPs: 22G RNAs. Therefore, secondary siRNAs should be significantly depleted in the RdRP complex mutants. Two *C. elegans* RdRPs: EGO-1 and RRF-1 have partially overlapping functions in secondary siRNA generation (Gu et al., 2009). The datasets of small RNAs cloned from the RdRP and other mutants are available (Gu et al., 2009; Claycomb et al., 2009). Using these data, we tested the idea that, in the absence of secondary, and mostly antisense, siRNAs produced by RdRP, primary siRNAs produced by the Dicer cleavage may take their place. To accomplish this, we compared the proportion of small antisense RNAs in the wild type and the RdRP complex mutants: *drh-3(ne4253)*, *ego-1(om97)*, and *ego-1; rrf-1* (Gu et al., 2009). As expected, antisense RNAs comprised 90-95% of the total pool in wild type. In the RdRP mutants the proportion of antisense RNAs dropped to 50-35% (Figure 5A), consistent with the equal representation of sense and antisense RNAs in the siRNA duplex generated by Dicer.

To specifically examine the changes in the siRNA landscape at the CSR-1 target genes, we chose a cluster of histone genes on chromosome four (Figure 5B). In wild type worms, small RNAs mapping to this region largely correspond to antisense 22G RNAs binding to CSR-1 (Figure 5B, CSR-1 IP track). Strikingly, in the *drh-3(ne4253)* worms, there are more sense than antisense RNAs at this

locus, and in the RdRP mutants the symmetric signature of both sense and antisense small RNAs matching each gene becomes apparent.

Thus, the nuclear accumulation of dsRNA in *drh-3(ne4253)* and the appearance of the primary siRNA signature in the population of small RNAs present in RdRP mutants strongly suggest that the antiviral RNAi pathway is ectopically activated in the absence of secondary small RNAs.

Moreover, the ectopic H3K27me3 at the CSR-1 target genes and H3K9me3 at the enhancers observed in *drh-3(ne4253)* is likely guided by this new population of Dicer-dependent small RNAs. We believe that CSR-1-bound antisense RNAs protect their RNA targets both from the WAGO-induced and antiviral RNAi pathway-induced silencing in the nucleus (Figure 6). However, at the developmental genes harboring enhancers both CSR-1 and WAGO pathways appear to antagonize ectopic H3K9me deposition (Figure 6).

The increased intergenic enhancer RNA expression in *csr-1(tm892)* and *drh-3(ne4253)* worms is likely due to indirect effects, as no secondary siRNAs matching enhancers had been detected. However, we cannot exclude the possibility that some non-abundant secondary siRNAs may limit enhancer RNA expression, therefore antagonizing the production of long dsRNA and heterochromatin formation at these regulatory regions.

DISCUSSION

The nematodes are unique in their extensive network of the *de novo* RdRP-produced small RNAs (22G RNAs). Two Argonaute proteins belonging to the WAGO group, NRDE-3 and HRDE-1, were associated with nuclear silencing processes in multiple studies, mostly involving exogenous dsRNA triggers or reporter transgenes (Guang et al., 2008; Guang et al., 2010; Burkhart et al., 2011; Burton et al., 2011; Ashe et al., 2012; Buckley et al., 2012; Gu, S.G., et al. 2012; Luteijn et al., 2012; Shirayama et al., 2012). Nuclear RNAi in *C. elegans* has been largely associated with secondary small RNAs generated in the cytoplasm and moving to the nucleus to execute their function. They are considered to be functionally equivalent to the nuclear dsRNA-derived Dicer products in fission yeast, a mechanistically well-studied system of RNAi-induced transcriptional silencing and heterochromatin formation (Cecere and Grishok, 2014). However, other reports, most notably those describing a competition between ADARs and the antiviral RNAi pathway components for nuclear dsRNA, strongly suggest that another Dicer-dependent RNAi process must initiate in the nucleus (Warf et al., 2012; Reich et al., 2018). Indeed, a recent publication characterized ectopic RNAi silencing taking place in the *adar-1/2* mutant worms (Reich et al., 2018), although this silencing had not yet been connected to chromatin changes.

Here, we uncovered a surprising role of the *C. elegans* secondary siRNA system in inhibiting dsRNA production in the nucleus and ectopic heterochromatin deposition associated with this. We propose that siRNAs

produced by the Dicer cleavage guide this process. This new silencing pathway can be more readily related to organisms lacking RdRPs, such as *Drosophila* and mammals.

Our work relates the new ectopic nuclear RNAi pathway to both H3K9 and H3K27 methylation marks. Both marks were shown to be artificially induced on active genes targeted by exogenous dsRNA (Guang et al., 2010; Mao et al., 2015). However, it was not possible to reliably correlate NRDE-3 or HRDE-1 function in regulation of endogenous genes with these silencing modification marks (Gu et al., 2012). Notably, only in the *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant background, when both CSR-1 and WAGO pathways are inactive, dramatic chromatin rearrangements take place. Our results suggest that, in *drh-3(ne4253)*, a loss of CSR-1 binding to its target pre-mRNAs may allow them to hybridize with antisense RNAs, before the latter get degraded, and produce dsRNA, which becomes processed into siRNAs by Dicer. At the same time, histone methyltransferase (HMT) complexes normally working with WAGO may become available and get distributed into the freed “CSR-1 territory”. Thus, the new siRNAs and HMTs could now co-operate in inducing chromatin changes. The ectopic deposition of H3K27me3 at CSR-1 targets in *drh-3(ne4253)* may occur through such a mechanism.

At the tissue-specific spermatogenesis genes, a loss of H3K27me3 takes place in *drh-3(ne4253)*. This is accompanied by ectopic expression of these genes in *drh-3(ne4253)* L2 larvae (Supplementary figure 4). However, we have not observed this increased expression in neither *nrde-3(gg64)* nor *hrde-*

1(*tm1200*) mutant worms (Supplementary figure 4). Both NRDE-3 and HRDE-1, in the complexes with 22G RNAs, strongly interact with their target pre-mRNAs (Guang et al., 2008; Ashe et al., 2012; Buckley et al., 2012; Shirayama et al., 2012). It is possible that when NRDE-3 or HRDE-1 are missing, their target pre-mRNAs may also engage with antisense RNAs and form dsRNA. In this case, the dsRNA-induced silencing will substitute for the silencing role of WAGOs. The absence of both CSR-1-bound siRNAs and WAGO-bound siRNAs may create further competition for HMTs and lead to reduction of H3K27me3 at the tissue-specific genes.

Interestingly, in the case of H3K9me3 re-distribution, both CSR-1 and WAGO appear to cooperate in preventing dsRNA formation and deposition of this silencing mark at the enhancer elements. We have also detected a competition between the CSR-1 and WAGO pathways: CSR-1 appears to protect its targets from the deposition of H3K9me3, likely guided by WAGO. This result is consistent with the published work (Seth et al., 2013; Wedeles et al., 2013; Shen et al., 2018).

Notably, the re-distribution of H3K27me3 to active autosomal genes (i.e. CSR-1 targets) also occurs in the absence of H3K36 methylation at these genes in the germlines of *mes-4* mutant worms (Gaydos et al., 2012). The H3K36 methyltransferase in yeast has been implicated in suppressing antisense transcription (Venkatesh et al., 2016), and it is possible that in *C. elegans* and other animals it prevents dsRNA formation and ectopic silencing of active genes. Importantly, an independent line of research from our lab identified a role for

H3K79 methylation in suppressing dsRNA formation and RNAi-induced H3K9me2 deposition at the enhancers (manuscript under consideration). Therefore, research in *C. elegans* identified multiple mechanisms that have evolved to suppress the inappropriate nuclear RNAi. Some of them, such as ADAR action (Warf et al., 2012), H3K79 methylation, and possibly H3K36 methylation, are likely to be conserved.

Another mechanism shown to inhibit antisense RNA accumulation in organisms ranging from plants to mammals is the nuclear exosome-driven antisense transcript degradation (Pefanis et al., 2014; Pefanis et al., 2015). It was first shown to inhibit nuclear small RNA production in plants (Chekanova et al., 2007), and possibly plays a similar role across species. Finally, although the nuclear dsRNA inhibition via the secondary siRNA system that we describe here is unique to nematodes, other protein complexes interacting with pre-mRNAs, such as splicing factors, may have this additional role.

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372 MATERIALS AND METHODS

373 **Strains**

374 Strains were maintained at 20 °C unless otherwise noted, using standard
375 methods (Brenner, 1974). Bristol N2 was the WT strain used. Strains used in this
376 study were *drh-3(ne4253)* and *csr-1(tm892)*. For the ChIP-seq experiments,
377 worm populations were synchronized and grown for approximately 40 h after
378 hatching at 20 °C on OP-50 *E. coli* at a density of ~50,000 animals per 15-cm
379 Petri dish until they reached L3 stage. For steady-state expression analysis,
380 worm populations were grown 5-7 h after synchronization.

381 **ChIP**

382 Chromatin immunoprecipitation was performed following the modENCODE
383 Protocol from the Lieb Lab (modENCODE Consortium et al., 2009) with some
384 modifications. The worm pellet fixed with 2% PFA for 30 minutes at 20°C was
385 washed in M9 3 times and resuspended in RIPA buffer supplemented with
386 Protease inhibitors (Thermo Scientific, 78443). DNA fragmentation was
387 performed using sonication on Covaris (Peak power 240, Duty factor 20,
388 Cycles/burst 200, 8 min). Then, 1.5–2mg of cross-linked chromatin extract was
389 incubated at 4°C ON with a specific antibody and the immune complexes were
390 then incubated with 50 µl IgG Dynabeads (Invitrogen) for 3h at 4°C. DNA was
391 cleaned up with the Qiagen PCR purification kit. We used the following

antibodies: 5 µg of anti-H3K27me3 (Diagenode, pAb-195-050), 5 µg of anti-H3K36me3 (Abcam, ab9050), 5 µg of anti-H3K9me3 (Abcam, ab8898). Validation information for the commercial antibodies is included at the manufacturers' websites.

Library preparation, sequencing and data processing

ChIP-seq libraries were prepared using TruSeq Illumina kit (set A – 15034288, set B - 15034289) according to manufacturer's instructions. The sequencing was performed on Illumina NextSeq 500 Next-Generation Sequencing equipment. The 75-bp single-end Illumina sequencing reads were preprocessed by trimming the adapter sequences with Cutadapt (Didion et al., 2017). After that, reads were aligned to the WS220/ce10 assembly of the *C. elegans* genome using Bowtie for Illumina (Galaxy Version 1.1.2) (Langmead et al., 2009) with default settings. The SAMtools (Galaxy Version 1.1.2) (Li et al., 2009; Li, 2011) utility was used to convert the alignments to BAM format. The table containing the number of reads aligned to genome is included in supplementary data (Table 1).

Two independent ChIP experiments were performed with each type of antibody. Comparison of the results demonstrated the good reproducibility of the data (Supplementary table 2). Duplicates reads were removed, and the data was processed as described below.

Analysis of GRO-Seq Data

GRO-seq reads (Cecere et al., 2014) were aligned to the WS220/ce10 assembly of the *C. elegans* genome using Bowtie for Illumina (Galaxy Version 1.1.2) (Langmead et al., 2009) with default settings. Reads matching ribosomal RNA

loci were removed, as described before (Cecere et al., 2013). Read counting in regions (either genes, regions or genomic bins) was performed with package GenomicAlignments (Lawrence et al., 2013); only reads with mapping quality 20 or higher were included in subsequent analyses. Regions without reads across the sample set were removed. Counts were then normalized using the TMM method, which takes RNA composition bias into account (Robinson and Oshlack, 2010), using the edgeR package (Robinson et al., 2010). Coverage was expressed as RPKM (reads per kilobase per million mapped) and log₂-transformed.

Analysis of ChIP-seq Data

Analysis of ChIP-seq data was performed as described for the analysis of GRO-seq data, with the exception that, after normalization of read counts, coverage was expressed as the log₂-transformed ratio of the RPKM value in the immunoprecipitated DNA sample divided by the RPKM value in the non-immunoprecipitated (input) DNA. Only regions in which the normalized count value in the immunoprecipitated DNA sample was higher than that in the corresponding input DNA in at least one sample in the set were considered.

Analysis of Chromatin Domains and ATAC-seq Peaks

Coordinates of chromatin domains were obtained from Evans et al., 2016. Putative enhancer regions were obtained by combining coordinates of domains 8, 9 and 10. Enhancer domains at least 1500 bp distal to any annotated transcription start site or transcription termination site were considered distal enhancer domains. Enhancer domains intersecting coordinates of genes < 15kb

by at least 50 bp were considered intragenic enhancer domains. ATAC-seq peak coordinates (Daugherty et al., 2017) were downloaded from the NCBI GEO database (GSE89608). Distal and intragenic ATAC-seq peaks were obtained as for enhancer domains. CSR-1 target genes were obtained from (Claycomb et al., 2009). Gene identifiers were converted to Refseq mRNA IDs using the WormBase Converter utility (<http://wormbasemanager.sourceforge.net/>) and the DAVID Gene ID Conversion Tool (Huang et al., 2008). Intersections of genomic intervals were performed in R using the valr package (Riemondy et al., 2017).

Small RNA bioinformatics analyses

Small RNA library sequences were downloaded from the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus and Sequence Read Archive under the following accessions: GSM454002, GSM455389, GSM455390, GSM455387, GSM455388, SRR030720, SRR030721, SRR030722, SRR030719, and SRR030717. Fastq files were validated and adapters were trimmed with the programs Fastqc (Brown et al., 2017) and Cutadapt (Didion et al., 2017), respectively. The genome and Refseq transcript assemblies for “ce10” were loaded into our custom “gene-centric process” small RNA analyses pipeline (Sytnikova et al., 2014; Chirn et al., 2015). This program maps small RNAs with Bowtie1 (Langmead et al., 2009) with a maximum of 2 base mismatches, counts the genomic strand reads against the Ensembl gene transcript models using Bedtools (Quinlan, 2014) using the longest transcript isoform as the main gene model, and generates WIG plots for coverage visualization on the UCSC Genome Browser (Speir et al., 2016). Each

library's read counts were normalized against library depths (counts per million, cpm), as well as frequency of genomic locations (cpm / number of genomic loci).

Immunostaining

Young adult worms were handpicked and placed in M9 solution supplemented with 0.01% Tween and 25mM sodium azide on a slide. Worms were dissected using scalpel and fixed with 2% PFA for one hour at room temperature and post-fixed in ice-cold methanol for 5 minutes. Control worms were treated with RNase A prior to fixation at 37°C for 30 minutes to confirm the antibody specificity and then washed 3 times with M9. After fixation, worms were transferred to glass tubes and blocked with 1% BSA in M9 supplemented with 0.05% Tween-20. Blocked samples were then incubated with the J2 antibody (1:1000) overnight at 4°C, washed 3 times in washing buffer (BSA 0.25%, Tween-20 0.05% in M9), and then incubated with secondary fluorophore-conjugated (AF 568) antibody (1:500) for two hours in the dark room. After 3 washes, the samples were transferred to a slide and mounted with DAPI-containing solution (Invitrogen, Prolong Diamond Antifade Mountant with DAPI). The images were taken at 63x on a Zeiss AxioImager Z1 instrument and processed with ImageJ (version 1.51k).

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Ectopic H3K27me3 accumulation at highly expressed genes in absence of DRH-3. a) Open chromatin is associated with H3K36me3 histone modification (pink), which opposes heterochromatin histone mark H3K27me3 (blue). Highly expressed genes (CSR-1 targets: *ncl-1*, *lin-13*, *snu-23*) are enriched for H3K36me3 and depleted of H3K27me3. H3K27me3 is abundant at low expressed/silent regions. The peaks were generated with MACS2 peak calling algorithm (Galaxy version 2.0.10.2) (Zhang et al., 2008). b) ChIP-seq normalized coverage for H3K36me3 (pink) and H3K27me3 (blue) demonstrating the decrease of H3K36me3 in *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant compared to wild type and increase in H3K27me3 modification in highly expressed CSR-1 target gene *bet-2*. c) Global increase in H3K27me3 and reduction of H3K36me3 on highly expressed CSR-1 target genes in *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant, but not in *csr-1(tm892)* mutant. The normalization of both replicated was performed as described in Materials and Methods. The genome was divided into 50 bp bins and log₂ fold change of bin coverage ratio between mutant strain and wild type was calculated. Only the subclass of highly active genes (CSR-1 targets) is represented. The

colors reflect the histone mark enrichment (red) and depletion (blue) observed in both biological replicates. d) Heatmap demonstrating an increase in heterochromatic modification H3K27me3 and the decrease in activating modification H3K36me3 in actively transcribed gene coding regions in *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant compared to wild type. The genome was divided into 50 bp bins and the ratio of normalized bin coverage between mutant and wild type was plotted on a heatmap. Each row corresponds to a CSR-1 target gene body between transcription start site (TSS) and transcription termination site (TTS) +/- 200 bp. Different gene length was approximated to be 1000 bp for the representation purpose. The mean value of 2 biological replicates was plotted.

Figure 2. H3K9me3 alterations at actively transcribed genes and enhancers in *csr-1(tm892)* and *drh-3(ne4253)*. a) H3K9me3 distribution along the chromosomes demonstrates that, on *C. elegans* autosomes, H3K9me3 is enriched at the chromosome arms and, on the X chromosome, only at the left arm. Read coverage in wild type worms (L3) normalized to, consequently, RPKM and input is represented. b) Box plot demonstrating increase of H3K9 methylation in CSR-1 target genes in *csr-1(tm892)*, but not in *drh-3(ne4253)*. ChIP-seq data were normalized as described in methods. *P-value<2.2*10⁻¹⁶(Wilcoxon test) c) Box plots and cumulative plots demonstrating H3K9me3 increase at enhancers detected by ATAC-Seq (Daugherty et al., 2017) in *csr-1(tm892)* and *drh-3(ne4253)* mutants compared to wild type.

Figure 3. Bidirectional transcription is increased at enhancer regions in *csr-1(tm892)* and *drh-3(ne4253)*.

a) Box plot representing increase of sense GRO-Seq read coverage (Cecere et al., 2014) at enhancer-containing transcripts in L3 larva *csr-1(tm892)* mutant. Gro-Seq data (Cecere et al., 2014) was normalized as described in methods and \log_2 transformed RPKM was plotted. *P-values <0.01 b) Same for *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant. c) Box plot representing increase of antisense GRO-Seq read coverage (Cecere et al., 2014) at enhancer-containing transcripts and CSR-1 targets containing enhancers in L3 larva *csr-1(tm892)* mutant. *P-values <0.01 d) Same for *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant.

Figure 4. Elevated transcription at enhancer regions in *csr-1(tm892)* and *drh-3(ne4253)*.

a) Box plot demonstrating increase of total GRO-seq read coverage at putative enhancers (Evans et al., 2016) in *csr-1(tm892)* L3 larva (left) and in *drh-3 (ne4253)* (right). GRO-seq data (Cecere et al., 2014) were normalized as described in methods and \log_2 transformed RPKM was plotted. *P-values < 2.2×10^{-16} . b) GRO-seq read coverage is increased at enhancer regions in *csr-1(tm892)* (left panel) and *drh-3(ne4253)* (right panel). The increase is more pronounced at distal enhancers than at intragenic enhancers (ATAC-seq peaks). *P-values <0.01. Analysis was performed as in (a). Cumulative plots confirming the GRO-seq data analysis for *csr-1(tm892)* (on the left) and *drh-3(ne4253)* (on the right) and demonstrating an increase of GRO-seq reads coverage in both mutants. The latter is especially clear at intergenic (distal) enhancers (ATAC-seq

data by (Daugherty et al., 2017)). c) GRO-seq reads corresponding to antisense transcription are shown at the region containing an enhancer detected by ATAC-seq upstream of the *daf-12* gene. The increase in the number of antisense reads is shown in *drh-3(ne4253)* (blue) and *csr-1(tm892)* (green) compared to wild type (grey).

Figure 5. A shift to equally abundant sense and antisense small RNAs in the RdRP-mutants and *csr-1(tm892)*.

a) A decreased ratio of antisense/total small RNAs in RdRP mutants and *csr-1(tm892)*. The small RNA data (Claycomb et al., 2009; Gu et al., 2009) were analyzed as described in Materials and Methods. The reads corresponding to miRNA and structure RNA were removed. Error bars represent 95% confidence interval. b) Sense small RNAs and antisense small RNAs (depending on the directionality of gene transcription) become equally abundant in RdRP mutants and *csr-1(tm892)*. The region on chromosome II containing a cluster of histone genes is shown. The reads on the positive strand are labeled with red and on those on the negative strand are labeled with blue. The bottom track represents the reads obtained by sequencing CSR-1-associated small RNAs that are antisense to the direction of gene transcription. The directionality of histone genes is marked with the arrows. The enlarged region demonstrates the increase in both sense and antisense small RNA occupancy. c) Images demonstrating an increase in nuclear dsRNA in *drh-3(ne4253)*. The worm intestines were extracted, fixed and stained with J2 antibody. J2 foci preferentially accumulate in

the intestine nuclei. Control worms were treated with RNase A to confirm the specificity of J2 antibody (Supplementary figure 3).

Figure 6. Model demonstrating the proposed role of secondary (RdRP-produced) small RNAs in preventing dsRNA formation and deposition of the silencing marks at enhancer elements and active genes in *C. elegans*

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

Supplementary figure 1. Loss of H3K27me3 in pseudogenes and tissue-specific genes (spermatogenesis) genes in absence of DRH-3. a) Heatmap demonstrating a decrease in heterochromatic modification H3K27me3 and the increase in activating modification H3K36me3 in pseudogenes in *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant compared to wild type. The genome was divided into 50 bp bins and the ratio of normalized bin coverage between mutant and wild type was plotted on a heatmap. Each row corresponds to pseudogene coding regions between transcription start site (TSS) and transcription termination site (TTS) +/- 200 bp. Different gene length was approximated to be 1000 bp for the representation purpose. The mean value of 2 biological replicates is shown. b) same as on a) for tissue-specific genes represented by spermatogenesis genes.

Supplementary figure 2. H3K9me3 levels at CSR-1 target genes in *drh-3(ne4253)*.

a) Pie chart representing the percentage of CSR-1 target genes containing enhancers. b) Box plots demonstrating a general decrease of H3K9me3 at CSR-1 target genes in *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant compared to wild type, with the exception of genes with the enhancers. *P-value<2.2*10⁻¹⁶, **P-value=0.35, ***P-value=3.241*10⁻¹⁵.

Supplementary figure 3. Images demonstrating the absence of J2 foci after treatment with RNase A.

Supplementary figure 4. Expression of spermatogenesis genes is increased in *drh-3*, but not in RdRP-mutants. Expression of spermatogenesis genes was detected by real-time PCR following reverse transcription. The obtained qPCR efficiency was normalized on house-keeping gene expression *csq-1*. Two spermatogenesis genes demonstrate ectopic transcription in *drh-3(ne4253)* mutant, but not in RdRP-mutants. Primers: C15H7.3 (forward GAATGGTCCGGAGAGTTTCA, reverse AGCTATGCTCTCCTGGTGGG); F19B6.4 (forward AACCTCACAGTCCGAGAGA, reverse GTCATGGTTCCGACTTTCGT); *csq-1*(forward GGCATCTCCAAAAACGAAGA, reverse ACCGATTTGGTGTCTTCAGC).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

E.G. conducted experiments and analyzed data, R.E. analyzed data, Q.M. and N.L. analyzed small RNA data, A.G. supervised the project. E.G. and A.G. wrote the manuscript.

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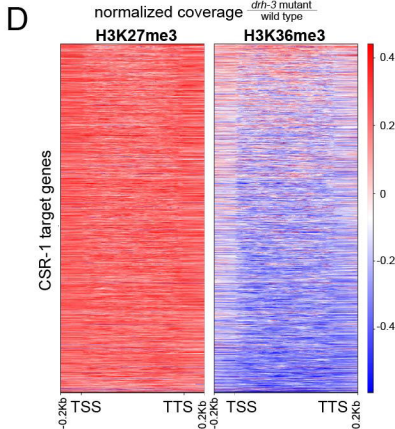
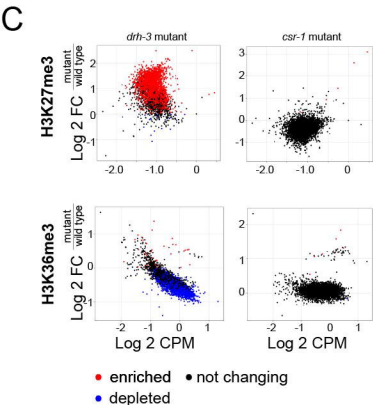
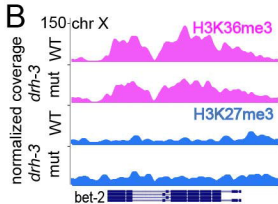
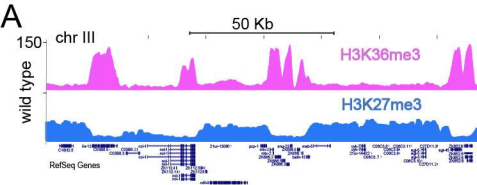
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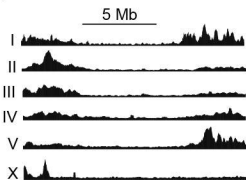
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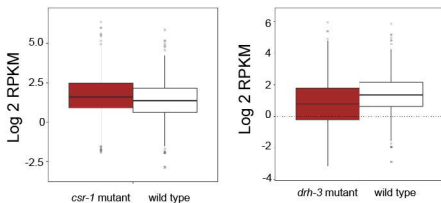


A

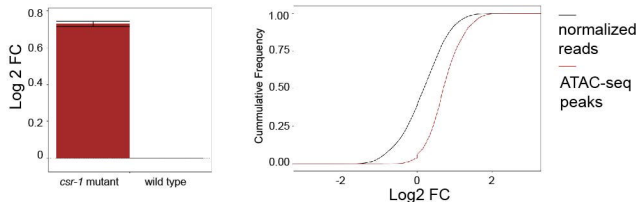
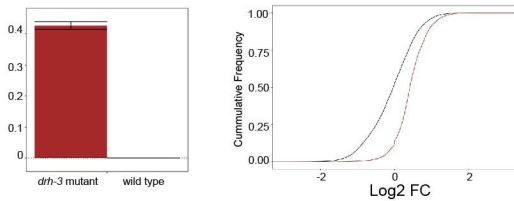


B

H3K9me3 at CSR-1 targets*

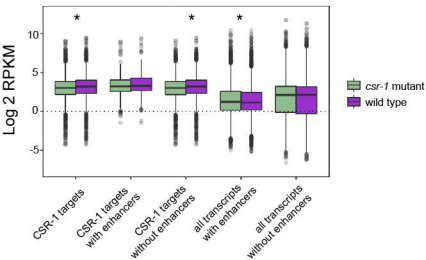


C

H3K9me3 at enhancers (ATAC-seq) in *csr-1* mutant compared to wild type*H3K9me3 at enhancers (ATAC-seq) in *drh-3* mutant compared to wild type*

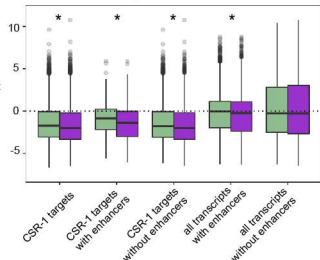
A

GRO-Seq sense reads



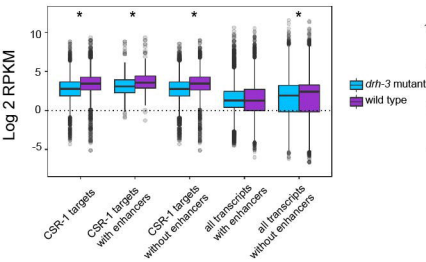
C

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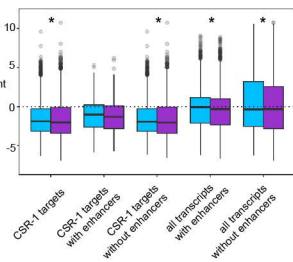
B

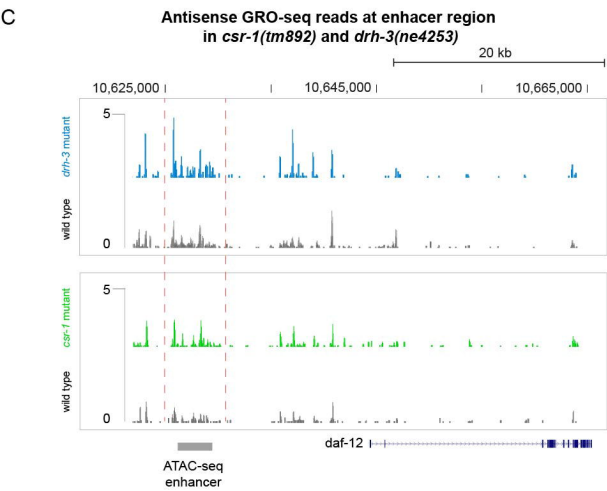
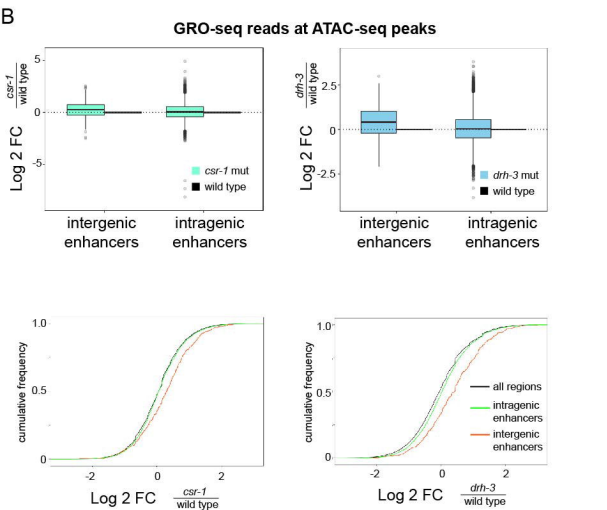
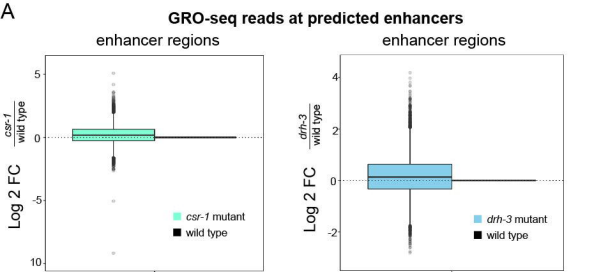
GRO-Seq sense reads

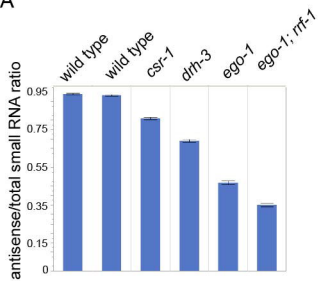
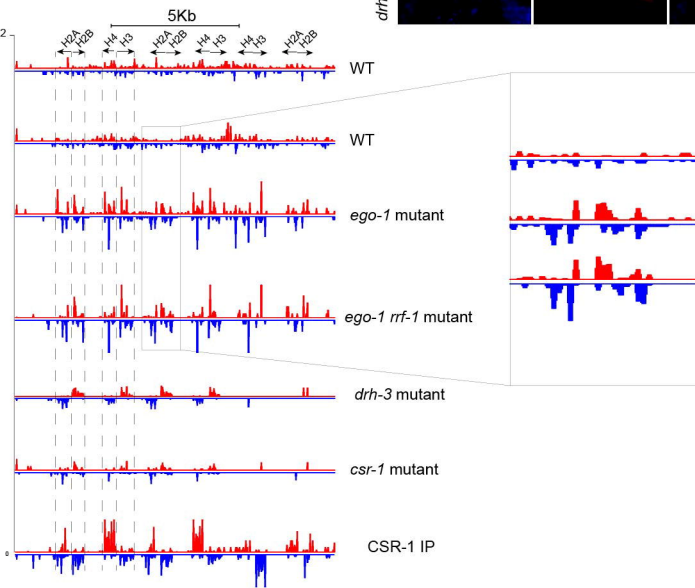


D

GRO-Seq antisense reads





A**B****C**