1 Long-term experimental evolution reveals purifying selection on piRNA-mediated
2 control of transposable element expression
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18
19 **Abstract**
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Transposable elements (TEs) are an almost universal constituent of eukaryotic
genomes. In animals, Piwi-interacting small RNAs (piRNAs) and repressive
chromatin often play crucial roles in preventing TE transcription and thus
restricting TE activity. Nevertheless, TE content varies widely across eukaryotes
and the dynamics of TE activity and TE silencing across evolutionary time is
poorly understood. Here we used experimentally evolved populations of *C.*
***elegans* to study the dynamics of TE expression over 400 generations. The**
experimental populations were evolved at three different population sizes to
manipulate the efficiency of natural selection versus genetic drift. We
demonstrate increased TE expression relative to the ancestral population, with
the largest increases occurring in the smallest populations. We show that the
transcriptional activation of TEs within active regions of the genome is
associated with failure of piRNA-mediated silencing, whilst desilenced TEs in
repressed chromatin domains retain small RNAs. Additionally, we find that the
sequence context of the surrounding region influences the propensity of TEs to
lose silencing through failure of small RNA-mediated silencing. Together, our
results show that natural selection in *C. elegans* is responsible for maintaining
low levels of TE expression, and provide new insights into the epigenomic
features responsible.

Introduction

Transposable elements (TEs) are almost ubiquitous across eukaryotic genomes

(Chuong et al., 2017). Their ability to replicate independently of the host genome,

coupled with the existence of multiple copies liable to ectopic recombination means

they present a potential threat to genome stability. Moreover, TEs pose a threat to

genome function as new integrations can disrupt genes or gene regulatory elements.

As a result, organisms have evolved sophisticated control strategies, which protect the

genome from TE proliferation. Across eukaryotes, short (20-33 nucleotides) small

RNAs play an important role in the suppression of TE activity. Within animals, Piwi-

interacting small RNAs (piRNAs) are paramount in the TE defence armoury (Siomi et

al., 2011). piRNAs are produced from defined genomic loci named piRNA clusters

and after processing, associate with the Piwi subfamily of argonaute proteins

(Brennecke et al., 2007). They recognise TEs through sense-antisense base pairing

and target TEs for transcriptional and post-transcriptional silencing(Siomi et al.,

2011). In many model organisms, piRNAs are essential for fertility through their role

in controlling TE proliferation in the germline (Weick and Miska, 2014)

The nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* is a well-established model for small-

RNA mediated silencing. piRNAs in *C. elegans* are unusual in that the two piRNA

clusters on Chromosome IV are composed of individual RNA polymerase II (RNA

pol II) transcription loci where each piRNA has its own upstream motif (Batista et al.,

2008; Das et al., 2008; Ruby et al., 2006; Wang and Reinke, 2008). piRNA clusters

are located within H3K27me3-rich chromatin, which, together with cis-acting RNA

pol II pausing sequences downstream of the piRNA, enforce production of ~28

nucleotide piRNA precursors(Beltran et al., 2019). piRNA precursors are further

trimmed to result in mature 21 nucleotide piRNAs with a Uracil as the first nucleotide

(21U-RNAs), which associate with the *C. elegans* Piwi protein PRG-1 (Batista et al.,

2008; Das et al., 2008; Wang and Reinke, 2008). Downstream of PRG-1, piRNA

silencing relies on a nematode-specific class of secondary small RNAs known as

22G-RNAs(Das et al., 2008). 22G-RNA synthesis is carried out by RNA-dependent

RNA polymerases using the target RNA as a template, following initiation by piRNA

target recognition(Pak and Fire, 2007). 22G-RNAs bind to Argonaute proteins and

lead to transcriptional and post-transcriptional silencing of target RNAs (Yigit et al.,

2006). Additionally 22G-RNAs can be transmitted transgenerationally (Buckley et

al., 2012) and as a result piRNA-initiated silencing can persist for many generations

even after piRNAs themselves are removed by mutating PRG-1 (Ashe et al., 2012;

Luteijn et al., 2012; Shirayama et al., 2012). Consequently whilst removal of piRNAs

alone has mild effects on TE expression, combining mutations of PRG-1 with

mutations disrupting the 22G-RNA biogenesis machinery leads to reactivation of

several TEs (de Albuquerque et al., 2015; Phillips et al., 2015)

Despite the universality of TEs across eukaryotes, there is striking variability both in TE content and TE expression across species.   Several interacting factors have been proposed to account for this. First, silencing mechanisms differ between organisms. For example, the entire piRNA pathway has been lost independently multiple times in nematodes (Sarkies et al., 2015), and was lost in parasitic flatworms (Fontenla et al., 2017; Skinner et al., 2014) and in dust mites (Mondal et al., 2018). Second, it is possible that some TEs may have beneficial consequences through their ability to act as reservoirs for evolutionary novelty. For example up to 60% of human-specific enhancers may be TE-derived (Rebollo et al., 2011) and TE insertions have been proposed to substantially rewire the human immune cell transcriptome (Imbeault et al., 2017). TEs themselves may also be co-opted into developmental programs. For example, transcription of L1 RNA is observed at the 2-cell stage in mouse embryogenesis where it may have a direct role in coordinating gene expression programs (Percharde et al., 2018). Furthermore, TEs may serve as a genome-wide source of regulatory elements (Chuong et al., 2017). Despite these examples, TEs are overall considered to be detrimental to fitness and beneficial TE insertions appear overrepresented due to the effects of natural selection in weeding out deleterious insertions (Simonti et al., 2017). The diversity of TEs across evolution may thus reflect population genetics factors such as population structure and effective population size. For example, even moderately deleterious TE insertions might become fixed in very small populations as the intensity of selection decreases with reduced population size. In agreement with this model, a recent large-scale study across nematodes concluded that genetic drift was likely responsible for differences in TE content across nematodes (Szitenberg et al., 2016).

In the context of these potential models to explain the diversity in TE content, it is important to understand the extent to which the balance between TE expression and TE regulation is under selection. One way to study this is to use a mutation accumulation (MA) framework in which replicate lines descended from a single common ancestor are propagated under a regime of drastic population bottlenecks for several hundred generations (Halligan and Keightley, 2009; Katju and Bergthorsson, 2019). The maintenance of these lines at a minimal population size attenuates the efficacy of selection, thereby enabling the accumulation of a large, unbiased sample

of spontaneous mutations under conditions of genetic drift which can subsequently be

identified and their fitness effects investigated. Previously, MA lines have been used

to investigate the rate and spectrum of TE copy-number changes in *Saccharomyces*

cerevisiae, C. elegans and *Drosophila melanogaster*, thus providing estimates of the

rate of TE transposition (Adrion et al., 2017; Bast et al., 2019; Bégin and Schoen,

2006, 2007). However, TE expression is not necessarily directly linked to TE copy-

number and may have independent fitness consequences. The opportunity to

interrogate genome-wide RNA expression has been exploited to investigate the effect

of mutations on protein-coding gene expression divergence (Denver et al., 2005;

Landry et al., 2007; Rifkin et al., 2005). Here, we extend this approach to investigate

the effect of spontaneous mutations on TE expression divergence.

We created spontaneous MA lines of *C. elegans* that were descended from a

single worm ancestor and propagated for ~400 generations under three population

size treatments of $N = 1$, 10 and 100 individuals per generation (Katju et al., 2015).

The varying population size treatment in the experiment permitted a manipulation of

the strength of selection, with the $N = 1$ lines evolving under close to neutral

conditions (minimal selection) and an incremental increase in the strength of selection

with increasing population size. We employed this framework to investigate how TE

expression evolves under conditions of near neutrality and under the influence of

increasing selection intensity. We show that overall TE expression increases in MA

lines with the smallest population size. We further show that expression increase

results in part from failure of piRNA-mediated silencing. Intriguingly, differences in

the responses of different TEs to reduced piRNA-mediated silencing depend on the

chromatin environment of the TE loci, such that TEs in repressed chromatin domains

largely remain silent due to epigenetic memory imparted by 22G-RNAs, whilst in

active chromatin domains, increased TE expression is much more likely to occur.

Together our results demonstrate for the first time that robust control of TE

expression is under selection in animals. Importantly further, our results provide new

insight into how the chromatin environment interacts with piRNA-mediated silencing

to control TE expression.

Results

Relaxed selection leads to increased TE expression

In order to assess the effect of selection on TE expression, we generated

mutation accumulation (MA) lines and propagated them by randomly selecting N

individuals at each generation, where N was either 1, 10 or 100 (Katju et al., 2015).

Henceforth we refer to the three conditions as $N.1$, $N.10$ or $N.100$ (Figure 1A). After

409 generations, we isolated RNA and performed RNA sequencing to investigate TE

expression. The fundamental difference between these conditions is the size of the

bottleneck that the population is subjected to in each generation. However, it is

inevitable that the population density will also vary between the three population size

treatments, resulting in environmental differences that could introduce variation in

gene expression among the experimental lines maintained at these three population

sizes. To counteract this, all lines were maintained in similar conditions including no

population bottleneck differences for three generations prior to RNA extraction.

Therefore, the most likely explanation for any differences in TE expression that we

observe is the different strength of purifying selection between the three population

size treatments during MA.

MA lines from all three population size treatments showed an increase in total

TE expression relative to the pre-MA ancestral control; moreover, $N.1$ had higher

total TE expression than $N.10$ or $N.100$. Across increasing population sizes, we

observed a monotonic decrease in total TE expression (Jonckheere test for ordered

medians; henceforth Jh, $p = 0.02$; Figure 1B). Similarly, linear regression analysis

showed a significant negative correlation between increasing population size and TE

expression (linear regression; henceforth LR, $p = 0.02$ Figure 1B). The mean

expression across all changes in TEs normalized to the pre-MA ancestral control

showed a significant tendency to decrease as the population size increased (Jh, $p =$

0.003; LR, $p = 0.02$; Supplemental Figure 1A).

Protein-coding gene expression diverges during MA in a variety of model

organisms including *C. elegans* (Denver et al., 2005; Rifkin et al., 2005; Landry et al.,

2007; Hodgins-Davis et al., 2015). In addition to an overall increase, TE expression

also appears to show broader distributions in the *N*.1 lines compared to the *N*.10 and

N.100 lines (Supplemental Figure 1B). To test this directly, we estimated the

variation in the expression of each individual TE and each individual gene. To

control for potential changes in the mean expression, which can affect noise, we

calculated the Fano factor [var(x)/mean(x)] within *N*.1, *N*.10 and *N*.100 lines

separately. Fano factors for TEs and genes were higher in *N*.1 lines than in *N*.10 or

N.100 lines (TEs: Wilcoxon paired test $p = 0.015$ and 0.004 for *N*.10 and *N*.100;

genes: Wilcoxon paired test $p < 1 \times 10^{-16}$ for both *N*.10 and *N*.100; Supplemental

Figures 1C and D). To control for the possibility that the larger number of *N*.1 lines

might lead to higher variance, we calculated TE Fano factors from 1,000 subsets of

five *N*.1 lines and all 252 subsets of five *N*.10 lines and compared these to the five

N.100 lines. This showed the same trend as the full dataset (Supplemental Figure 1E).

To further investigate the variation in expression, we calculated the total variance in

the change in expression of all TEs or all genes between each line and the pre-MA

ancestral control. Variance in the differences in both TE and gene expression

increased with smaller population sizes (Jh, $p = 0.008$ and 0.009, respectively)

(Supplemental Figure 1 F,G). However, importantly, there was no correlation in

overall variance between TEs and genes in the same line (Supplemental Figure 1H),

showing that TE expression and gene expression diverge independently.

In order to understand loss of repression of TE expression in more detail, we

classified TEs into different families using RepeatMasker annotations and compared

the median TE expression for each TE family across different lines. TE expression

was compared between *N*.1 and *N*>1 lines and tested for monotonic median increase

with decreasing population size. As expected, the majority of TEs that showed a

significant difference between *N*.1 and combined *N*.10 and *N*.100 lines had increased

expression in *N*.1 compared to the other lines (Figure 1C and Supplemental Figure 2).

However, individual TEs displayed different patterns of expression change. Some

TEs, notably the DNA transposon Turmoil2, showed more consistent increases across

the *N*.1 lines compared to the *N*.10 and *N*.100 lines (Figure 1D). Indeed, the majority

of the total effect on TE expression seen in Figure 1B could be attributed to one TE

family, the Turmoil2 TEs, which showed a large expression increase across the

majority of the *N*.1 lines (Figure 1C, D). Contrastingly some TEs, notably the

Mariner family DNA transposon Tc1, showed a burst-like pattern of expression where

a large increase in expression was observed in a few $N.1$ lines while retaining low

expression in the remainder $N.1$ lines as well as the $N>1$ lines (Figure 1E).

We next investigated the timecourse of TE desilencing during propagation of

the MA lines. We performed gene expression analysis by RNA-Seq on 11 $N.1$ lines

at 25 and 100 MA generations. Median total TE expression showed a highly

significant increase with increasing numbers of generations (Jh, $p = 2.6\times10^{-5}$; Figure

1F). Linear regression analysis confirmed a positive relationship between increased

numbers of generations and increased TE expression (LR, $p = 4.4\times10^{-3}$; Figure 1F).

Different TEs showed different kinetics of desilencing. Turmoil2 showed a positive

relationship between the number of MA generations and expression (LR $p = 3.9\times10^{-3}$)

and a monotonic increase in median expression (Jh, $p = 2.6\times10^{-3}$; Figure 1G).

Contrastingly, Tc1 desilencing did not show a positive linear relationship between the

number of MA generations and expression (LR, $p = 0.14$; Figure 1H) though there

was a significant increase in median expression (Jh, $p = 4.2\times10^{-6}$).

We further investigated whether the expression of TEs in individual MA lines

correlated with the expression of other TEs. The majority of TEs showed little

correlation with the expression of other TEs (Figure 2A, B). The TEs with the most

statistically significant increases in expression, Turmoil2 and non-LTR

retrotransposons of the LINE2 family (Figure 1C and Supplemental Figure 2)

clustered together (Figure 2B) suggesting coregulation of these TE families despite

their different mechanisms of replication.

Expression of TEs is weakly associated with increased copy-number

TEs are capable of replicating independently of the host genome and thus their

copy-number might change across MA lines. We sequenced the genomes of the MA

lines after 400 generations and mapped the reads to consensus TE sequences thereby

obtaining estimates of copy-number variation (CNV) for each TE family. Median TE

copy-number increased with decreasing population size (Jh, $p = 8.0\times10^{-4}$; LR, $p =$

4.2×10^{-3} Figure 3A). Across all lines, there was a significant positive correlation (LR,

$p = 0.01$) between increased copy-number and increased expression, although this was

driven by *N*.1 lines and not apparent in the *N*.10 and *N*.100 lines (Figure 3B).

Furthermore, Turmoil2 elements, which exhbitied the largest changes in expression,

displayed no correlation between expression changes and copy-number increases

(Figure 3C). We conclude that increased TE copy-number was not the primary cause

of increased TE expression. Moreover, increased expression of specific TEs did not

always lead to increased copy-number.

Alterations in small RNA levels are associated with TE expression changes

We investigated whether changes in regulation of TE expression could explain

the loss of silencing observed during mutation accumulation. In *C. elegans*, piRNAs

and 22G-RNAs are important small RNA classes involved in TE silencing (de

Albuquerque et al., 2015; Bagijn et al., 2012; Das et al., 2008; Phillips et al., 2015).

To test whether piRNAs are important in the loss of silencing of TEs in the *N*.1 lines,

we remapped recently published cross-linking immunoprecipitation (CLIP) data

(Shen et al., 2018) to identify TE transcripts that are bound by piRNA-Piwi

complexes *in vivo*.   Approximately 25% of TE transcripts with RNA-Seq reads were

targeted by piRNAs. TEs targeted by piRNAs showed a statistically significant

increase in total expression in the *N*.1 lines (Jh, $p = 0.02$; LR, $p = 0.03$; Figure 4A)

whilst TEs that were not targeted by piRNAs were not significantly altered (Jh, $p =$

0.47; LR, $p = 0.27$; Figure 4B).

We tested whether defective piRNA-mediated silencing might account for

increased expression of TEs targeted by piRNAs. piRNAs in *C. elegans* are expressed

from individual promoters as a result of RNA polymerase II transcription (Billi et al.,

2013; Cecere et al., 2012; Gu et al., 2012). We considered two potential mechanisms

that might give rise to altered piRNAs. One possibility is that mutations in the

piRNA sequences might occur in individual lines, which might affect their ability to

recognise transposable elements and thus interfere with TE silencing. There was a

trend for *N*.1 lines to have more mutations in piRNAs than *N*.10 or *N*.100 lines

(Supplemental Figure 3). However, the trend was not significant (Jh, $p = 0.12$).

Moreover, on average, we identified only 1.1 piRNA sequences with mutations across

the *N*.1 lines. Thus, we conclude that the increase in TE expression is unlikely to be

related to mutations in specific piRNAs.

We next considered the expression of individual piRNA loci. We identified

piRNA loci with significantly altered median expression between *N*.1 lines and *N*.10

and *N*.100 lines combined using the Wilcoxon unpaired test. A small percentage of

piRNA loci showed significant differences but overall there was no trend for these

loci to show reduced expression in the *N*.1 lines. Indeed, these loci were more likely

to have higher expression in the *N*.1 lines (Figure 4C). Thus, changes in piRNA

expression are unlikely to explain the changes we observed in TE expression.

22G-RNAs act downstream of piRNAs to bring about target silencing(Das et

al., 2008). Surprisingly, although 22G-RNAs silence TEs, we found that the total

levels of 22G-RNAs mapping to TEs were increased in lines with smaller population

sizes, although this increase was on the border of significance (Jh, $p = 0.05$; LR, $p =$

0.07; Figure 4D). To examine this in more detail, we analysed 22G-RNAs at

individual TEs. The majority of TEs showing significantly increased 22G-RNAs in

N.1 lines were non-LTR transposons (Figure 4E). Notably, these TEs were not

significantly elevated in transcript levels in the *N*.1 lines (Figure 1C; Supplemental

Figure 2). Thus, the global increase in 22G-RNA levels does not relate directly to the

increased transcript levels of TEs in *N*.1 lines.

To compare directly how increased expression of TEs relates to 22G-RNA

mediated silencing, for each TE we compared 22G-RNA levels in lines with increased

expression to 22G-RNA levels in lines without increased expression. The only TE

showing alterations in both expression and 22G-RNA levels was Turmoil2. The

expression changes of Turmoil2 relative to the ancestral control across all lines

correlated inversely with changes in 22G-RNA levels (LR, $p = 2.0 \times 10^{-5}$, Figure 4F).

Thus, the increased transcript levels of Turmoil2 elements is associated with reduced

22G-RNAs. We conclude that the increased transcript levels of some TEs may be

caused by reduced small RNA-mediated silencing, but that some increases in TE

transcript levels occur independently of 22G-RNA changes.

Chromatin environment is associated with the relationship between 22G-RNA levels

and TE expression

22G-RNAs interact with chromatin modifying factors to control expression of

TEs (McMurchy et al., 2017). piRNA-mediated silencing has been directly linked to

the generation of H3K9me2/3 marked nucleosomes ("classical heterochromatin") and

this has been proposed to be important for transcriptional silencing induced by

piRNAs (Ashe et al., 2012; McMurchy et al., 2017; Shirayama et al., 2012;

Woodhouse et al., 2018). Additionally, it is becoming clear that a large proportion of

the autosomal DNA in *C. elegans* can be divided into active domains, containing

H3K36me3 and germline expressed genes and regulated domains, containing

H3K27me3 marked nucleosomes and silent genes (Evans et al., 2016; Liu et al.,

2011). These domains are largely stable through development, including in the adult

germline (Evans et al., 2016; Rechtsteiner et al., 2010). We examined the influence

of these three types of chromatin on the response of TEs to mutation accumulation.

TEs in regulated domains and in classical heterochromatin showed no significant

overall increase in expression (Figure 5A, B). The rare examples of *N*.1 lines

showing significantly higher expression of TEs in classical heterochromatin

corresponded to lines in which Tc1 reactivation occurred, consistent with enrichment

of Tc1 elements within these regions (McMurchy et al., 2017). Contrastingly, TEs in

active domains had significantly higher expression in *N*.1 than *N*>1 lines (Wilcoxon

unpaired test, $p = 0.02$). There was also a trend towards decreased median expression

with increasing population size although this was on the border of significance (Jh, *p*

$= 0.07$; LR, $p = 0.08$; Figure 5C).

We next examined 22G-RNAs mapping to TEs across different chromatin

domains. TEs in repressed domains showed significantly increased levels of 22G-

RNAs in *N*.1 lines relative to *N*.10 and *N*.100. However, in active domains there was

no significant change in 22G-RNA levels (Figure 5D-F). Thus, increased 22G-RNAs

occur predominantly in TEs within repressed chromatin.

AT-rich sequences in TEs reduce the generation of 22G-RNAs

A recent study has demonstrated that silencing of both transgenes and

endogenous genes by 22G-RNAs is inhibited by a high content of periodic repeats of

AT-rich sequences, known as PATCs (Frøkjær-Jensen et al., 2016). We tested how

PATC density within TEs was associated with changes in their expression under

reduced selection. High PATC density corresponded to reactivation of TEs (Jh, $p =$

0.02; LR, $p = 0.02$) whereas TEs with low PATC density did not show an increase in

expression (Figure 6A). Contrastingly, only TEs with low PATC density showed

significantly increased 22G-RNAs in *N*.1 lines relative to *N*.10 and *N*.100 (Jh, $p =$

0.02; LR, $p = 0.01$; Figure 6B). Importantly this effect was specific to PATC

sequences as GC-content alone had no significant effect on either TE expression or

small RNA generation (Supplemental Figure 4A, B). We conclude that low PATC

density is required for 22G-RNA generation, which may be required to restrain TE

activation. We tested whether the chromatin environment modulated the effect of

PATC sequences on TE reactivation in MA lines. Importantly, PATC content was

similar in TEs across active, classic heterochromatin and regulated domains

(Supplemental Figure 4C). 22G-RNAs were significantly increased in low PATC

regions within regulated domains (Jh, p $= 0.02$; LR, $p = 0.11$) and classical

heterochromatin domains (Jh, $p = 0.06$; LR, $p = 0.04$) but not in active domains

(Figure 6C, D). In contrast, there were no significant changes in 22G-RNA levels in

high PATC regions within these domains (Figure 6C, D). Thus, the generation of

increased 22G-RNAs against TEs in MA lines is associated with both low PATC

content and a repressive chromatin environment.

Discussion

Our analysis of how the interplay between TE expression and TE silencing

factors changes over 400 generations at small population sizes provides the first clear

view of how TE expression diverges under reduced selection in animals.

Additionally, closer analysis of how TE control mechanisms are affected in the MA

lines offers new insight into the fundamental mechanisms of TE silencing in *C.*

elegans, underlining the ability of experimental evolutionary studies to derive

fundamental molecular insights. Here we discuss each of these aspects of our work in

turn.

The effect of selection on TE expression

Here, we demonstrate that in *C. elegans*, TEs drift to higher expression under

conditions of strong genetic drift and reduced efficiency of selection. This is

consistent with the action of purifying selection on TE expression. Only a single TE,

Vingi-1, showed the opposite trend of lower expression in *N*.1 lines relative to the

N.10 or *N*.100 lines (Figure 1B). However, the expression of this element was actually

lower in the ancestral control than in the *N*.10 or *N*.100 lines. Thus, the significance of

this observation is unclear. Our observations suggest that the expression of most TEs

is largely detrimental and TE expression is under purifying selection. It remains a

formal possibility that TE activation is beneficial under fluctuating environmental

conditions or low fitness as opposed to the stable environment of the laboratory.

An important point raised by our results is that that not all expression

increases of TEs are linked to increasing copy-number; indeed many lines with very

high expression of specific TEs display no evidence of increased copy-number at all.

This suggests that many TEs replicate inefficiently in *C. elegans* such that even very

large increases in expression levels do not automatically result in increased copy-

numbers. This also implies that TE expression may be detrimental without directly

posing a threat to genome integrity, potentially through effects on endogenous gene

expression networks or through toxicity of repetitive RNA within the cell (Simon et

al., 2014).

Phenotypic analyses of previous *C. elegans* MA experiments suggest that the

decline in fitness in $N = 1$ lines results primarily from a few mutations with large

effects (Estes et al., 2004; Halligan et al., 2003; Katju et al., 2015, 2018; Keightley

and Cabellero, 1997). Similar results have been obtained in experimental evolution

studies in *D. melanogaster* (Ávila and García-Dorado, 2002) and bacteria (Dillon and

Cooper, 2016; Heilbron et al., 2014). In our study, purifying selection at larger

population sizes (*N*.10 and *N*.100) would eliminate such large-effect mutations and

indeed, our *N*.10 and N. 100 lines exhibited no evidence of fitness reduction over the

course of successive bottlenecking for 409 generations (Katju et al., 2015, 2018).

Analysis of gene expression data from MA experiments from *C. elegans*, *D.*

melanogaster and *S. cerevisiae* concluded that large effect mutations are also

responsible for changes in protein-coding gene expression (Hodgins-Davis et al.,

2015). However, our results for TE expression do not seem to fit with this model

because overall TE expression, which is largely driven by Turmoil2 and non-LTR

elements (see Figure 1), increases gradually with time across the *N*.1 lines and is also

increased, although less so, in *N*.10 and *N*.100 lines. The expression of Tc1 is an

exception to the overall trend as it is not affected in *N*.10 or *N*.100 lines but a small

number of *N*.1 lines show markedly increased Tc1 expression. Thus, Tc1 reactivation

may be dominated by a few mutations with large effect. This difference might be

related to the different mechanism of silencing of Tc1 compared to Turmoil2

elements as discussed further below.

Weakened piRNA silencing is responsible for increased expression of TEs under

relaxed selection.

Our investigations of the molecular mechanisms behind reduced silencing of

TEs in MA lines strongly suggest that defective piRNA silencing is a major culprit.

Only piRNA-targeted TEs show increased expression in MA lines, and, whilst

piRNAs themselves do not seem to change significantly in MA lines, the levels of

22G-RNAs that act as effectors of piRNA silencing are perturbed at the Turmoil2 TEs

that show increased expression. Why is piRNA silencing so vulnerable to mutation

accumulation? TE silencing and TE activation in organisms are likely in a precarious

equilibrium due to a constant evolutionary arms race between TEs and their host

genome. As a result, many mutations could converge on the piRNA pathway to

throw TE silencing out of balance.

New insights into the role of chromatin in the piRNA pathway

Our analysis of how mutation accumulation affects TE silencing provides

novel insights into how the chromatin environment of TEs might affect piRNA-

mediated silencing in *C. elegans* (Figure 7). Importantly, TEs in repressive chromatin

are much less prone to reactivation than those in active chromatin regions.

Mechanistically this is because 22G-RNAs in repressive chromatin regions are stable

or even increased, whilst 22G-RNAs mapping to TEs in active regions are reduced in

MA lines with increased expression. This result may also explain why reactivation of

Tc1 elements occurs less frequently than Turmoil2 elements, because Tc1 elements

are predominantly located in repressed domains and are therefore silenced more

robustly.

What is the mechanism whereby silencing memory is supported in repressed

chromatin regions? The simplest possibility is that silencing and generation of 22G-

RNAs are directly promoted by repressive chromatin modifications. In line with this

possibility, a mutually reinforcing loop between H3K9 methylation and small RNAs

is well documented in fission yeast (Bühler, 2009), and H3K9 methylation factors

contribute to silencing of transgenes in *C. elegans* (Ashe et al., 2012; McMurchy et

al., 2017; Shirayama et al., 2012; Woodhouse et al., 2018) although the situation is

more complicated for endogenous genes (Ni et al., 2014).   However, our observations

hold equally well for H3K27me3-repressed chromatin, which has not been directly

linked to 22G-RNA silencing. We propose therefore that the nuclear small RNA

pathway responds differently depending on whether surrounding genes are active or

repressed to detect and quell aberrant gene activation. This model will be of interest

for further mechanistic investigation of small-RNA mediated silencing in *C. elegans*.

    Figure Legends

Figure 1 Increased expression of transposable elements in mutation accumulation

lines. **A** Diagram of the mutation accumulation (MA) experimental design with

different population sizes. **B** Overall transposable element expression in MA lines as

a function of population size. **C** Volcano plot for individual TE genes coloured

according to family. The x axis shows the median difference between *N*.1 and

combined *N*.10 and *N*.100 lines such that higher values correspond to higher

expression in smaller population sizes. The p-value is a Wilcoxon unpaired test

comparing the median in *N*.1 lines to *N*.10 and *N*.100. **D** Expression changes in

Turmoil2 elements. The box shows interquartile range with a line at median and the

whiskers extend to the furthest point $\leq$ 1.5 times the interquartile range from the

median. **E** Expression changes in Tc1 elements. Boxplot as in D. **F** Total TE

expression after different numbers of generations of mutation accumulation in lines

with a population size of 1. **G** Turmoil2 expression after different numbers of

generations of mutation accumulation with a population size of 1. **H** Tc1 expression

after different numbers of generations of mutation accumulation with a population

size of 1.

Figure 2 A heatmap of expression of individual TE elements illustrating significant

differences in expression between different population size treatments. **B** A heatmap

illustrating the significance in correlation in expression between different TEs across

all the MA lines. The colour intensity shows the significance of the Spearman's rank

correlation coefficient with blue showing a negative correlation and orange a positive

correlation.

Figure 3 Relationship between TE copy-number and expression in MA lines . **A**

Increase in TE copy-number is associated with stronger genetic drift (weaker

selection). Data shows mean of TE copy-number across all TEs normalized to the

mean across all lines. **B** Correlation between total change in TE copy-number across

all TEs and total TE expression. **C** Lack of correlation between Turmoil2 RNA levels

and copy-number changes in MA lines.

Figure 4 Perturbed 22G-RNAs are associated with changes in TE expression in MA

lines. **A and B** Comparison of differences in TE expression in MA lines of different

population sizes for piRNA targeted and non-piRNA targeted TEs, respectively. **C**

Total piRNA levels in MA lines across different population sizes. **D** Levels of 22G-

RNAs mapping to all TEs in MA lines at different population sizes. **E** Volcano plot

showing the gradient of change in 22G levels for different TEs relative to the

population size against their *p*-values on the y-axis. The gradient of change was

estimated by linear regression. Negative values on the x-axis correspond to higher

22G-RNA levels in lines with smaller population sizes.

F 22G-RNAs mapping to Turmoil2 plotted against Turmoil2 expression across all

MA lines.

Figure 5 Chromatin environment controls alterations in piRNA mediated silencing in

MA lines. **A, B, and C** Expression changes in TEs in Regulated (H3K27me3),

Classic Heterochromatin (H3K9me2) and Active (H3K36me3) chromatin domains.

P-values are Wilcoxon unpaired test. **D, E, and F** Changes in TE-mapping 22Gs in

Regulated, Classic Heterochromatin and Active domains.

Figure 6 PATC content influences 22G-RNA generation in MA lines

A Expression differences in TEs in four equal-size bins of 21 TEs with decreasing

PATC content. **B** 22G-RNAs across the bins used in A. **C** and **D** Stratification of

bins from A and B into regulated (H3K27me3) chromatin, active (H3K36me3)

chromatin, and heterochromatin (H3K9me2) domains. High PATC is the top bin and

low PATC is the lowest bin.

Figure 7 Chromatin and PATC together influence TE control in MA lines

Model for how chromatin environment contributes to TE desilencing in MA lines.

Left- repressed chromatin domains, taking H3K27me3 enriched domains as an

example. Right, Active chromatin domains.

Supplemental Figure Legends

Supplemental Figure 1

A Mean change in expression relative to the ancestral control across all TEs for each

line. **B** Violin plots showing distribution of changes in TE expression across all TEs

for each line. Lines are ordered by increasing mean TE expression change (L to R).

C Fano factor of individual TE transcript levels across all lines of the indicated

population size. **D** Fano factor in individual protein-coding gene transcript levels

across all lines of the indicated population size. **E** Fano factor of TE transcript levels

in 1,000 samples of five *N*.1 lines, 253 samples of five *N*.10 lines [the maximum] and

all five *N*.100 lines. **F** Total variance in transcript level differences between each TE

and its corresponding value in the starting population across lines of different

population size. **G** Total variance of transcript level differences between each

protein-coding gene and the starting population in lines of the indicated population

size. Boxplots for A-D are as in Figure 1D. **H** Variance in TE transcript changes

relative to starting population compared to the variance in protein-coding gene

transcript changes in the same line.

Supplemental Figure 2

Volcano plot showing the logarithm (base 10) *p*-value of a linear model relating

expression of TEs to population size on the y-axis to the gradient of the linear model

on the x-axis.

Supplemental Figure 3

Total piRNA reads showing one base pair mismatch to the reference sequence divided

by the total number of mismatched loci, in MA lines across different population sizes.

Supplemental Figure 4

A GC content does not affect reactivation of TEs in the *N*.1 lines. Bins with high to

low GC content, left to right. **B** GC content does not affect the change in 22G-RNA

levels. Bins with high to low GC content, left to right. **C** No clear difference in the

proportion of TEs from different chromatin domains within bins of different PATC

content. **D** Expression of TEs from regulated, heterochromatic and active chromatin

regions in the top PATC bin. **E** Expression of TEs from regulated, heterochromatic

and active chromatin regions in the lowest PATC bin.

Additional Files

R code and input files required to generate the plots in the figures will be released

along with final publication and are available upon reasonable request to

psarkies@imperial.ac.uk

Methods

Spontaneous Mutation Accumulation (MA) Experiment at Varying Population Sizes

and Its Theoretical Underpinnings

The descendants of a single wild-type Bristol (N2) hermaphrodite were used

to establish 35 MA lines. Twenty MA lines were propagated through single individual

descent, while ten lines were bottlenecked to ten individuals, and five lines were

bottlenecked to 100 individuals every generation (Katju et al., 2015, 2018; Konrad et

al., 2018)(Katju et al., 2015, 2018; Konrad et al. 2018). The size of these bottlenecks

was ensured through careful counting of randomly chosen L4 larvae selected to

establish a new generation every four days. All populations were grown on NGM

plates (Nematode Growth Medium) at 20˚C (Figure 1A). The lines were propagated

through 409 generations or until extinction under standard laboratory conditions.

Populations of size $N = 1$ ($N.1$ lines) and 10 ($N.10$ lines) were maintained on 60×15

mm petri dishes seeded with 250μl of *Escherichia coli* (OP50) in YT medium. $N =$

100 (or $N.100$) populations were housed on 90×15 mm petri dishes seeded with

750μl OP50 in YT medium.

The fitness effects of mutations range continuously from lethal to deleterious

to neutral to beneficial. In small populations, beneficial mutations can be lost and

detrimental mutations fixed by random chance events (genetic drift). The loss or

fixation of mutations depend upon both their selection coefficients (s) and the

effective population size, N_e. It has been shown that for sexually reproducing diploids,

the dynamics of mutations with $|s| << 1/2N_e$ are dominated by random genetic

drift(Kimura, 1962). Therefore, small populations subjected to attenuated selection

and an increased magnitude of genetic drift can potentially accumulate mutations with

extremely large effects in addition to ones with moderate to very slight effects. With

increasing population size, the efficiency of natural selection is increased. The

differences in populations size in this MA experiment alters the relative importance of

genetic drift versus natural selection in the fixation or loss of mutations, with genetic

drift having the greatest influence in $N = 1$ lines and natural selection having greater

influence in populations that were bottlenecked at 10 and 100 individuals each

generation.

RNA Library Preparation, Sequencing, and Analysis of Transcript Abundance

The library preparation and RNA-sequencing procedures have previously been

described in detail (Konrad et al., 2018). Briefly, we isolated one, two, and three

individuals each of the *N*.1, *N*.10, and *N*.100 lines, respectively. These 55 worms, as

well as one individual from the ancestral population, were each sequestered to NGM

plates seeded with OP50, where they were allowed to self-fertilize and reproduce at

20ºC. Three offspring worms at the L4 larval stage were isolated from each of the F_1

populations to serve as biological replicates. These 168 individual worm samples

were allowed to reproduce for three generations to yield enough tissue for RNA

extraction. A standard bleaching protocol was used to collect gravid eggs from adults

in order to generate synchronized populations of L1 larvae. Total RNA was isolated

from L1 larvae via the Qiagen RNeasy Mini Kit. The Nanodrop 2000, Qubit 3.0

Fluorometer, and an Agilent RNA Analyzer were used to evaluate the quality of the

RNA samples, and an Illumina TruSeq RNA library Prep Kit v2 was used with

standard procedures to prepare the RNA sequencing libraries for each sample at the

Texas A&M University Genomics and Bioinformatics Services Center. The RNA was

fragmented and Illumina adapters were annealed for amplification. Size selected

cDNA fragments were isolated via a Qiagen Gel Extraction Kit. Finally, sequencing

was performed on the Illumina HiSeq 4000 platform with default quality filters.

Demultiplexing and prefiltering of the sequencing reads was performed based

on default Illumina QC protocols. Reads containing abnormally short insert lengths

were removed, and adapters were discarded from the reads. The raw RNA-sequencing

reads in fastq format were aligned to the protein-coding transcriptome of *C. elegans*

(Wormbase reference N2 genome version WS247) using TopHat(Trapnell et al.,

2009) via the "very sensitive" bowtie2 algorithm with a maximum of one mismatch in

the anchor region for each spliced alignment and a minimum and maximum intron

length of 20 and 3,000 bp, respectively. Cufflinks(Trapnell et al., 2010) with default

settings and gene annotations from the N2 genome version WS247 was used to

estimate the relative transcript abundance for each protein-coding gene. All following

analyses were focused on FPKM values calculated on the per gene level. The relative

transcript abundances (FPKM) from the three biological replicates for each original

sample were averaged to get mean relative transcript abundance for each gene in that

sample.

Small RNA sequencing

MA lines were synchronised using hypochlorite treatment and embryos were

isolated after 12 hours. RNA was extracted using trizol and small RNA libraries were

prepared using the Illumina Small RNA sequencing kit as described

previously(Sarkies et al., 2015). Small RNAs were aligned to a genome built using

bowtie from a fasta file containing all piRNAs, miRNAs, ncRNAs and genes

including TEs, extracted from Wormbase (WS264; ce11), requiring perfect mapping.

Reads mapping to the sense strand of ncRNAs and miRNAs were extracted using

bedtools intersect –c –S. We used DEseq using ncRNAs and miRNAs to extract size

factors. 22G-RNAs mapping to TEs and genes were extracted using a custom Perl

script and the number of 22G-RNAs mapping antisense to each gene and TE was then

counted using bedtools intersect –c -s. The 22G-RNAs were then normalized to the

size factors from ncRNAs and miRNAs combined.

TE copy-number analysis

DNA sequence reads were aligned to a genome built using bowtie2-build from

TE consensus sequences extracted from repbase combined with all coding sequences.

Bowtie2 was used to map PE reads to this genome and the read count mapping to

each CDS or TE was obtained using bedtools intersect –c.

Computational analysis of TE expression and small RNA analysis

TEs from WS264 were annotated using Repeatmasker(Smit et al., 2017). All

data analysis was conducted using the R environment for statistical analysis

(www.Rproject.com). Details of the individual analyses are documented in the R

markdown file accompanying this manuscript (additional file 1), with the raw data

tables required to run these programs in as a zipped file (additional file 2). Previously

published datasets containing Chromatin domain annotations from Early Embryo

ChiP-Seq were taken from Evans et al. (2016) updated to WS264 using liftover

(https://genome.ucsc.edu/). Small RNA sequencing data from reactivation of small

RNA pathways in the presence or absence of piRNAs was taken from Phillips et al.

(2015) and aligned to the *C. elegans* genome as described above. The average PATC

score for each TE was calculated by taking the average PATC score across the

element from per-base sliding window genome-wide PATC scores from (Frøkjær-

Jensen et al., 2016).

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Figure 1

A

B

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Repressed chromatin, low PATC content

Active chromatin, high PATC content

Figure 7

Supplemental Figure 1

Supplemental Figure 2

Supplemental Figure 3

Figure S4