1 Long-term experimental evolution reveals purifying selection on piRNA-
2 mediated control of transposable element expression
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Abstract

Transposable elements (TEs) are a key component of eukaryotic genomes.
TEs can copy themselves independently of the host genome, thus are often
considered to be selfish genomic elements. However, TE dynamics within
genomes have contributed to adaptive evolution leading to speculation
that natural selection preserves TE expression. Here we used
experimental evolution of *C. elegans* to study the dynamics of TE
expression over 400 generations in population sizes maintained at 1, 10
and 100 individuals. We demonstrate increased TE expression relative to
the ancestral population, with the largest increases corresponding to
smaller population sizes. Using high-throughput small RNA sequencing we
show that the transcriptional activation of TEs within active regions of the
genome is associated with loss 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. [183
words]

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40 **Introduction**
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Transposable elements (TEs) are almost ubiquitous across eukaryotic
genomes(Pritham, 2009). 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 are key to TE control.

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[ref to be

inserted after pub]). 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)
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Despite the threat posed by TEs to genome integrity, many events in adaptive
evolution have been linked to TE insertions. Across a variety of species,
individual examples have been documented whereby TE insertions can rewire
gene expression leading to differences both within and between species that can
be positively selected for. On a more widespread level, 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). Such observations have led to the
speculation that TEs are retained within eukaryotic genomes because of their
potential contribution to "evolvability"(Fablet and Vieira, 2011). However, this
idea is still unproven, and a strong null hypothesis is that TEs are generally
detrimental and beneficial TE insertions appear overrepresented due to the
effects of natural selection in weeding out deleterious insertions(Simonti et al.,
2017)
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In the context of the uncertainty surrounding the contribution of TE mobility and
expression to organismal fitness, 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. Previous studies in single-
celled organisms and multicellular model organisms have used the MA approach

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 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 TE control 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. All three conditions 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 = 0.019; Figure 1B). Similarly, linear

regression analysis showed a significant negative correlation between increasing

population size and TE expression (Linear regression; henceforth LR p = 0.023

Figure 1B). 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). To test whether this effect also

occurred for TEs in our dataset, 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 $p < 1e^{-16}$ for both $N.10$ and $N.100$; Supplemental Figure 1A and B). 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 1C). 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 D,E). However, importantly, there was no correlation in

overall variance between TEs and genes in the same line (Supplemental Figure

1F), 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 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 (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 whilst Tc1 remained low in expression in the remainder (Figure 1E).

We next investigated the timecourse of TE desilencing during

propagation of the MA lines. We performed gene expression analysis by RNAseq

on 11 N.1 population size lines at 25 and 100 generations. Median total TE

expression showed a highly significant increase with increasing numbers of

generations (Jh p = 1.1e-9; Figure 1F). Linear regression analysis confirmed a

positive relationship between increased numbers of generations and increased

TE expression (LR p = 6.7e-8; Figure 1F). Different TEs showed different kinetics

of desilencing. Turmoil2 showed a positive relationship between increased

numbers of generations and increased expression (LR p = 3.9e-3) and a

monotonic increase in median expression (Jh p = 2.55e-3; Figure 1G).

Contrastingly, Tc1 desilencing did not show a positive linear relationship

between increased generations and increased expression (LR p = 0.13; Figure

1H) though there was a significant increase in median expression (Jh p = 4.22e-

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 2). 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 2) 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 = 1e-7; LR p=1e-3 Figure 3A). Within the *N*.1 lines, there was a weak

significant positive correlation between increased copy-number and increased

expression. In contrast, we found no significant correlation between copy-

number and expression in the *N*.10 or *N*.100 lines (Figure 3B). Moreover,

increased expression of specific TEs in individual MA lines was often

unaccompanied by increased copy-number (Figure 3C,D). We conclude that

increased TE copy number is not the primary cause of increased TE expression.

Alterations in small RNA levels are associated with TE expression changes

Since changes in TE copy number are unlikely to explain altered TE

expression, 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 *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 RNAseq

reads were targeted by piRNAs. TEs targeted by piRNAs showed a statistically

significant increase in total expression in *N*.1 lines (Jh p = 0.02; LR p = 0.033;

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>0.05). Moreover, we identified

on average 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).

There was also no change in the expression of piRNAs identified by CLIP(Shen et

al., 2018) to be directly binding to TEs (Figure 4D). 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 (Jh p=0.05, LR p=0.068; Figure 4E). 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

4F). Notably, these TEs were not significantly increased 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. Turmoil2 showed decreased small RNA levels in lines showing

increased Turmoil2 expression (Figure 4G). 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 determines relationship between 22G-RNA levels and TE

expression

We investigated what determines the different changes in 22G-RNAs at

different TE types. 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 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 = 0.056, LR $p=0.064$; 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,E,F). Thus
increased 22G-RNAs occur predominantly in TEs within repressed chromatin.

AT-rich sequences in TEs reduce 22G-RNA generation

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 influenced their expression under reduced
selection. High PATC density corresponded to reactivation of TEs (Jh p = 0.018,
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 =
0.018, LR p=0.011; 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 domain (Jh

p=0.018, LR =0.11) and classical heterochromatin domains (Jh p=0.055, LR

p=0.035) but not in active domains. In contrast there were no significant

changes in 22G-RNA levels in high PATC regions within these domains (Figure

6C,D). Thus generation of increased 22G-RNAs against TEs in MA lines is

promoted by both low PATC content and a repressive chromatin environment.

Epigenetic memory of piRNA silencing correlates to compensatory 22G-RNA

biogenesis

On the basis of these results we hypothesised that reactivation of TEs in

repressed chromatin regions may be restrained by a response whereby

increased 22G-RNAs are generated from TEs with low PATC content. In contrast,

loss of 22G-RNAs from TEs with higher PATC content can lead to their

reactivation in *N*.1 lines. The compensatory increase in 22G-RNAs is reminiscent

of recent results showing that silencing initiated by piRNAs can become

independent of the piRNA pathway due to the ability of 22G-RNAs to be

transmitted across generations(Ashe et al., 2012; Luteijn et al., 2012; Shirayama

et al., 2012). As a result, some genes and TEs show unchanged or even increased

levels of 22G-RNAs when piRNAs are removed whilst a functional 22G-

biogenesis machinery is still present(de Albuquerque et al., 2015; Phillips et al.,

2015). These 22G-RNAs can only be removed by mutating the 22G-RNA

biogenesis machinery. However, if the 22G-RNA biogenesis machinery is

subsequently reintroduced into a background lacking piRNAs, 22G-RNAs cannot

be made indicating that piRNAs are required to initiate their silencing(de

Albuquerque et al., 2015; Phillips et al., 2015). We used previously published

small RNA sequencing data from these studies to test whether epigenetic

memory of piRNA silencing might occur only in regulated domains and not active

domains. TEs in active domains showed significantly reduced 22G-RNAs when

prg-1 was deleted in the presence of 22G-RNA biogenesis factors (Wilcoxon

Paired Test, *p* = 6e-5) whilst TEs in repressed chromatin did not show an overall

reduction (Wilcoxon Paired Test, *p* = 0.84) (Figure 7A). Importantly however,

TEs in all chromatin types showed a significant reduction in 22G-RNAs when the

22G-RNA biogenesis machinery was reintroduced in the absence of piRNAs

(Figure 7B). This suggests that the changes we observed in 22G-RNAs in MA are

similar to changes in 22G-RNAs that occur as a result of loss of piRNAs in the

context of functional 22G-RNA biogenesis factors.

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 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

Whilst TEs pose a threat to genome integrity, expression of TEs has been

suggested to have positive roles in gene expression networks; indeed the ability

of transposable element polymorphisms to rewire expression of some genes has

led to speculation that eukaryotic genomes may even avoid complete silencing of

TEs in order to facilitate this activity(Jacques et al., 2013). Here, we showed that,

at least in *C. elegans*, TE expression drifts to higher, rather than lower expression

under conditions of reduced selection. This demonstrates that, in general, low

expression of TEs is under purifying selection. Of all the TEs showing changes in

expression in MA lines, the only one showing a trend towards decreased

expression in *N*.1 lines than *N*.10 or *N*.100 was a non-LTR retrotransposon,

Vingi-1 (Figure 1B); however, the expression of this element was actually lower

in the starting population than in the *N*.10 or *N*.100 lines thus the significance of

this observation is unclear. Whilst it is possible that increased expression of TEs

may become beneficial under certain conditions, such as fluctuating

environmental conditions or pathogen infection, our observations strongly

suggest that the expression of most TEs is largely detrimental and TE expression

is under purifying selection. Thus our research would support the proposal that

beneficial events of TEs within genomes represent the exception- "making the

best of a bad job"- rather than the rule. However, an important possibility that

remains to be tested is whether TE activation is beneficial under fluctuating

environmental conditions as opposed to the stable environment of laboratory

maintained MA lines.

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

the decline in fitness in N = 1 lines results primarily from a few mutations of

large effect(Estes et al., 2004; Halligan et al., 2003; Keightley and Cabellero,

1997). Similar results have been obtained in experimental evolution studies in

Drosophila 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). 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.

Previous theories on the effect of natural selection on TE polymorphisms

have focussed on the copy-number of TEs as the major potential fitness

penalty(Bartolomé et al., 2002; Charlesworth and Langley, 1986; Lee and

Langley, 2010, 2012; Pasyukova et al., 2004). However, we observed 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. As a corollary of this point, 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).

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 TEs

showing 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 affects piRNA-

mediated silencing in *C. elegans* (Figure 7C). 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. We show that this

also applies in a previously described experimental model where piRNAs are

removed without removing the 22G-RNA pathway(Phillips et al., 2015). 22G-

RNAs mapping to TEs within active domains are lost whereas those within

repressed regions are maintained. 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 mutation accumulation (MA) experimental

design. **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 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 <=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 Heatmap showing 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 Copy-number increases are weakly associated with increased TE

expression in MA lines. **A** Copy-number of TEs are increased with 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&D** Representative examples (Turmoil2

and non-LTR transposons) showing how copy-number changes in high or

expression lines. High expression lines are defined as being >1 standard

deviation away from the mean expression across all lines.

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

MA lines. **A&B** Comparison of change in TE expression for piRNA targeted and

non-piRNA targeted TEs. **C** Total piRNA levels in MA lines across different

population sizes. **D** Levels of piRNAs shown to directly bind to TEs by CLIP-seq,

across different population size MA lines. **E** Levels of 22G-RNAs mapping to all

TEs in MA lines at different population sizes. **F** Volcano plot showing the

gradient of change in 22G levels as estimated by a linear model against the p-

value for the linear model on the y axis. G 22G-RNAs mapping to Turmoil2 in

lines showing increased Turmoil2 expression compared to lines where Turmoil2

expression was not increased.

Figure 5 Chromatin environment controls alterations in piRNA mediated

silencing in MA lines. **A,B,C** Expression changes in TEs in Regulated

(H3K27me3), Classic Heterochromatin (H3K9me2) and Active (H3K36me3)

chromatin domains. *P*-values are Wilcoxon unpaired test. **D,E,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 changes in TEs in 4 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 active (H3K36me3) and regulated (H3K27me3) chromatin

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

A Alterations in 22G-RNAs in the absence of *prg-1* whilst 22G-RNA biogenesis

pathways are still active for TEs divided into Regulated, Classic Heterochromatin

and Active domains. **B** Alterations in 22G-RNAs in the absence of both *prg-1* and

22G-RNA biogenesis pathways for TEs from Regulated, Classic Heterochromatin

and Active domains. Boxplots in A and B as in Figure 1D.

C 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 1

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

population size; B Fano factor in individual protein-coding gene transcript levels

across all lines of the indicated population size. C Variance of TE transcript

levels in 1000 samples of 5 N.1 lines, 253 samples of 5 N.10 lines [the maximum]

and all 5 N.100 lines. D Total variance in transcript level differences between

each TE and its corresponding value in the starting population across lines of

different population size. D 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. E 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

population size to expression of TEs 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 expression of TEs. Bins with high to low GC content

left to right. B GC content does not affect 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 released

along with final publication and are available upon reasonable request to

psarkies@imperial.ac.uk

Methods

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 from populations of sizes N = 1, 10, and 100, 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, the and 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 discarted 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

Alignments to determe TE copy number changes in MA lines.

DNA sequencing was 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 readcount

mapping to each cds or TE was obtained using bedtools intersect –c.

Data integration

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

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

A

increased
22GRNAs

$\log_2$ prg1/wt

reduced
22GRNAs

p=0.84   p=0.81   p=5.7e−5

Regulated   classical   active
heterochromatin

B

increased
22GRNAs

$\log_2$ prg1 with no RNAi memory/wt

reduced
22GRNAs

8.6e−15   6.5e−7   2e−8

Regulated   classical   active
heterochromatin

C

Repressed chromatin, low PATC content

Active chromatin, high PATC content

low expression

piRNA targeted TE

preMA

H3K27me3 nucleosomes

G   G

low expression

H3K36me3 nucleosomes

G
G   G
G   G   22G-RNAs
G

Several generations
with reduced selection

less effective
chromatin-mediated
silencing

less effective
small RNA-mediated
silencing

high expression

G   G

G   G
G   G

22G-RNA pathway reacts

silence maintained

Ne.1 MAL

G
G   G
G   G
G

high expression

G   G
G   G

Figure 7

Supplemental Figure 1

Supplemental Figure 2

Supplemental Figure 3

Figure S4