

Satellite-like W Elements: repetitive, transcribed, and putative mobile genetic factors with potential roles for biology and evolution of Schistosoma mansoni

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Abstract

34 A large portion of animal and plant genomes consists of non-coding DNA. This part includes tandemly 35 repeated sequences and gained attention because it offers exciting insights into genome biology. We 36 investigated satellite-DNA elements of the platyhelminth *Schistosoma mansoni*, a parasite with 37 remarkable biological features. *S. mansoni* lives in the vasculature of humans causing schistosomiasis, 38 a disease of worldwide importance. Schistosomes are the only trematodes that have evolved separate 39 sexes, and the sexual maturation of the female depends on constant pairing with the male. The 40 schistosome karyotype comprises eight chromosome pairs, males are homogametic (ZZ), females 41 heterogametic (ZW). Part of the repetitive DNA of *S. mansoni* are W-elements (WEs), originally 42 discovered as female-specific satellite DNAs in the heterochromatic block of the W-chromosome. 43 Based on new genome and transcriptome data, we performed a reanalysis of the W-element families 44 (WEFs). Besides a new classification of 19 WEFs, we provide first evidence for stage-, sex-, pairing-, 45 gonad-, and strain-specific/preferential transcription of WEs as well as their mobile nature, deduced 46 from autosomal copies of full-length and partial WEs. Structural analyses suggested roles as sources of 47 non-coding RNA like hammerhead ribozymes (HHRs), for which we obtained functional evidence. 48 Finally, the variable WEF occurrence in different schistosome species revealed remarkable divergence. 49 From these results we propose that WEs potentially exert enduring influence on the biology of *S. mansoni*. Their variable occurrence in different strains, isolates, and species suggests that 51 schistosome WEs may represent genetic factors taking effect on variability and evolution of the family 52 Schistosomatidae.

Running Title: W-elements of *S. mansoni*

 Key Words: *Schistosoma mansoni*, genome evolution, W-element, mobile genetic element, non-56 coding RNA, ribozyme.

Significance Statement

59 Previous studies described W-elements (WE) as repeated, non-coding satellite-DNA of the large 60 heterochromatic part of the female-specific W-chromosome of *S. mansoni* with unknown function. We 61 challenge this view by analysing all W-elements families (WEF), their structures, WEF-dependent 62 transcript profiles (including stage-, sex-, pairing-, gonad-, and strain-specific/preferential expression), 63 and autosomal occurrence, which indicates their mobile nature. Furthermore, we predicted roles of 64 WEs as carriers of genetic information such as non-coding RNA, for which obtained biochemical 65 evidence. Analysing different schistosome strains, isolates and even species finally showed the variable 66 existence of WEF. These finding suggest that W elements might play roles for the biology of *S. mansoni* 67 and might represent one of the driving forces in the evolution of the family Schistosomatidae.

69 Schistosomes are parasitic plathyhelminths and cause schistosomiasis (bilharzia). Listed as neglected 70 tropical disease (NTD) by the WHO, schistosomiasis ranks close to malaria in terms of parasite-induced 71 human morbidity and mortality (Hotez and Kamatha 2009; Colley at al. 2014). The life cycle of the 72 parasite is complex with a fresh-water snail of the genus *Biomphalaria* as intermediate host, producing 73 human-dwelling larvae (cercariae) that develop in the vertebrate host into adults, pair and produce 74 eggs that are excreted with the faeces and hatch snail-infecting miracidia when in contact with water. 75 Schistosomes are evolutionary unique as they are the only digenean parasites that have evolved 76 separate sexes (Moné and Boissier 2004). Heteromorphic sex chromosomes determine the sex of 77 schistosomes, with ZZ in the males and ZW in the females. Earlier studies from us and others has shown 78 that the females-specific region of the W chromosome is essentially composed of repetitive DNA 79 sequences (W-Elements, WE) arranged in large satellite blocks (Lepesant et al. 2012a; Lepesant et al. 80 2012b). WE sequences are abundant on the W chromosome, but may occasionally be transmitted to 81 autosomes, shown for the female W1 repeat sequence (Grevelding 1999). In most species with Y or W 82 sex chromosomes, it is found that: (i) repetitive sequences accumulate on these chromosomes, (ii) 83 large regions are heterochromatic, and (iii) these chromosomes deteriorate or are completely absent 84 in an extreme case. Among the accepted evolutionary theories is that the accumulation of repetitive 85 sequences on one of sex chromosomes has facilitated recombination suppression between the 86 heterochromosomes thus protecting sexually beneficial loci (Ohno 1967). Another hypothesis is that 87 chromosome rearrangements, sequence accumulation, and amplification may have occurred near the 88 sex-determining locus as a result of suppression of recombination (Charlesworth 1991; Marais and N. 89 Galtier 2003). Heterochromatization of the W chromosome in schistosomes has long been known and 90 has even been used as a marker for sex identification at the cercaria stage, where male and female 91 phenotypes are indistinguishable (Grossman et al. 1980; Grossman et al. 1981; Liberatos & Short 92 1983). Our earlier results (Lepesant et al. 2012a) showed that the repetitive sequences located in the 93 heterochromatic region of the W chromosome carry a euchromatic signature in the miracidia stage 94 (presence of H3K9ac and H3K4me3), which is gradually lost during development into adults. In most 95 species, the structural change of the chromatin is a highly organised process, and the observed 96 heterochromatin/euchromatin cycle of W-specific repeats suggests functional importance. Full or 97 partial euchromatisation could not only allow transcription of functional WE but may also open space 98 for mobilisation of these elements. The WEs W1 and W2 were originally found in Puerto Rican isolates 99 of *Schistosoma mansoni* (Webster et al. 1989; Drew and Brindley 1995; Spotila et al 1987). Southern 100 blot analysis demonstrated their female-specific occurrence, and i*n situ* hybridization localized W1 and 101 W2 in the heterochromatic region of the W-chromosome (Hirai et al. 1989; Spotila et al. 1989). 102 According to their repetitive nature, both elements were classified as satellite-like DNA (satDNA).

103 Subsequent studies in the Liberian strain and further strains of *S*. *mansoni* demonstrated W1 and W2 104 occurrence in both sexes of nearly all investigated strains, including another isolate from Puerto Rico 105 (Grevelding 1995; Quack et al. 1998). In contrast to the polymorphic occurrence of W1 and W2, 106 another family of repetitive elements, called D9 (Spotila et al. 1989), repeatedly occurred in the 107 investigated schistosome strains (Quack et al. 1998). Molecular analyses of clonal populations 108 obtained from crossing experiments with characterized parental generations, including males with and 109 without W1 and W2, showed the variable emergence of both WE among 10 generations of male 110 progeny - even when the parental male exhibited no W1 and W2 (Grevelding 1999). These data 111 indicated a meiotic level of (illegitimate) recombination and suggested a Z-chromosomal or autosomal 112 existence of W1 and W2 in the male progeny of these crosses. However, diversity in W1/W2 113 abundance and presence occurred also among siblings of single offspring generations. This pointed to 114 an additional process generating variable copy numbers of WEs in the genome. Indeed, the analysis of 115 clonal cercariae, generated by monomiracidial snail infections, demonstrated differences in W1 and 116 W2 copy numbers within clonal cercariae obtained from the same snails but at different time points 117 post infection (Grevelding 1999). This was unexpected since clonal cercariae were considered to be 118 genetically identical (Jourdane and Theron 1980; Jones and Kusel 1989). Additionally, the genetic 119 heterogeneity found in individuals of the same clonal cercarial population led to the hypothesis that 120 mitotic recombination may contribute to variable WE copy numbers in males, because only asexual 121 but no sexual reproduction processes take place in the intermediate host (Grevelding 1999). Using an *in vitro* technique that allowed the generation of defined clonal daughter sporocysts originating from 123 a single mother finally confirmed that W1 copy numbers can vary among daughter sporocysts 124 generated by one defined mother (Bayne and Grevelding 1993). These results clearly pointed to the 125 possibility of mitotic recombination or transposition in the intermediate host. The underlying 126 mechanisms of WE variability remained obscure.

127 A microarray study with RNA of female cercariae provided first evidence for W1 and W2 transcripts 128 (Fitzpatrick et al 2008). The authors hypothesized that these transcripts may be associated to germ-129 line protection in female schistosomes such as interfering with retrotransposable element activity, as 130 previously proposed for repeat elements in *Drosophila* (Pélisson et al. 2007). In 2012, a comprehensive 131 sequencing analysis to *de-novo* assemble *S. mansoni* repeat elements based on version 5 (V5) of the 132 genome (Berriman et al. 2009) predicted 36 WEFs (Lepesant et al. 2012b).

133 In addition to their peculiar evolutionary position as the only dioeciously living trematodes, another 134 unique feature of schistosome biology is the essentiality of a constant pairing contact for the sexual 135 maturation of the female. Pairing induces mitotic activity and differentiation processes in the female 136 that finally lead to the development of the female gonads, ovary and vitellarium (Popiel and Basch 137 1984; Den Hollander and Erasmus 1985; Kunz 2001; Grevelding 2004). This is a prerequisite for egg

138 production and closely associated with the pathology of schistosomiasis since eggs, which fail to reach 139 the gut lumen, migrate via the blood stream to liver and spleen. Here, these eggs lodge in the tissues 140 causing granuloma formation, inflammatory processes, and fibrosis (Olveda et al. 2014). The sexual 141 maturation status of a female is reversible. Upon separation, egg production stops and females de-142 differentiate to an immature status. Upon repairing, differentiation of the gonads and egg production 143 start again (Clough 1981). Although the underlying processes have not been completely understood, 144 recent transcriptomics approaches have highlighted a complex scenario of male-female interaction. A 145 comparative RNA-Seq analysis of paired and unpaired adult *S. mansoni* and their gonads showed the 146 occurrence of >7,000 gene transcripts in the gonads of both sexes, of which 243 (testes) and 3,600 147 (ovaries) were pairing-dependently transcribed. High numbers of differentially expressed genes in the 148 ovary were expected because of the pairing-induced sexual maturation of females (Erasmus 1973; 149 Shaw 1987; Kunz 2001; Neves et al., 2005; Beckman et al., 2010). Among others, evidence was 150 obtained for the participation of neuronal processes, guided by GPCRs (G protein-coupled receptors) 151 and neuropeptides, in male-associated processes of the male-female interaction (Hahnel et al. 2018; 152 Lu et al. 2019). In addition, kinase signaling seem to dominate processes in females leading to gonad 153 differentiation and the maintenance of the sexual maturation status (Grevelding et al. 2018).

154 In this study, we challenge the classical view that repetitive DNA on the sex chromosomes is simply a 155 by-product of heterochromatization and provide further evidence for their functional importance. We 156 made use of genome sequencing updates in combination with recently obtained transcriptome data 157 sets to re-analyse WEFs, their structures, their chromosomal occurrence, their physical relationships, 158 and their developmentally regulated and strain-associated transcriptional activities. From the obtained 159 results we propose a hypothesis for their functional roles in schistosome biology and evolution.

 Results

There are 19 W-Element Families in *S. mansoni*

163 To get a new overview of WEFs in *S. mansoni*, we performed a local BLAST (Basic Local Alignment 164 Search Tool) search of the published WEF (Lepesant et al. 2012b), which were based on version 5 (V5) 165 of the genome, against version 7 (V7; PRJEA36577, Puerto Rican strain; https://parasite.wormbase.org; Howe et al. 2017). Except for W32, we found all 36 examined WEF 167 with a high percent identity on W-scaffolds, which cover DNA sequences, which are likely derived 168 from/correspond to the female-specific sex chromosome W but have not been exactly assembled yet. 169 We detected differences in DNA-sequence similarity among individual WEs of a single WEF. For 170 instance, the ten most significant hits of W6 elements (monomer repeat length: 310 bp) showed no 171 mismatch and correspond 100%, whereas the ten most significant hits of W23 elements (monomer 172 repeat length: 125 bp) showed deletions and mismatches resulting in 76-100% identity

173 (Supplementary Figure 1). W1, W8, W10, W13, W17, W18, W20, W22, W31, W34, and W35 exclusively 174 matched to W-scaffolds (Table 1). Some WEs, or partial versions thereof, also occurred on autosomes. 175 BLAST analyses revealed that some WEs of a single WEF clustered in single chromosomal regions, 176 whereas other WEFs occurred as separate clusters in different chromosomal regions. For WEF 26 177 (W26.2), we detected clusters of different total lengths in two yet undefined regions of W, provisionally 178 designated W003 and W010 in V7 (Table 1). Although WEs of all 36 examined WEFs aligned to V7, 179 repeat units of W9, W15, W19, and W32 showed no clustering of multiple, aligned repeats. Instead, 180 we found a wide distribution of mostly partial fragments of these WEs on sex chromosomes and 181 autosomes (data not shown). Because these WEs presented no multiple repeat character, we excluded 182 them from further analysis.

 Tab. 1: Based on genome version V7, a number of 19 WEF (WE V7) has been newly defined (first column, No. 1 - 19). Each WEF consists of one or more of those repeats that were previously found as individual WEs in version 5 of the genome (WE V5; Lepesant et al. 2012a). In some cases (No. 9, 16 and 19), representing WEF (W11.2, W26.2 and W36.2, respectively) WEs were found on two different scaffolds each associated with the W chromosome and thus split into two subfamilies each. Furthermore, information of the length of WE monomers

 within WEFs is given as well as copy numbers (floating points indicate partial sequences), scaffolds with start and stop positions, and the total lengths of WEFs of the array. In some cases, the individual lengths of a WE monomer within a unit varied. For instance, a monomer of WEF 2.2 (No. 2) consists of W2 and W3 elements, which showed length variations between 709 to 711 bp. WEF 2.2 occurred "up to" 34.1 times, which means that the length variant 711 bp occurred 34 times whereas the 709 bp variant in a lower amount (Supplementary Figure 2).

197 Next, we applied dot plot analyses to determine the structures of WEFs and the total lengths of WE 198 monomers within the respective clusters (Figure 1). In relation to individual monomer repeat units, 199 length variations from 82 bp (W32) to 1,132 bp (W4) occurred in V5 (Supplementary Figure 2). 200 Furthermore, we found that some WEFs analysed in V7 consist of sequences previously defined as 201 separate repeat units in V5.. For example, we found W27 and W29, originally described as monomer 202 repeat units of 110 bp and 97 bp, respectively (Lepesant et al. 2012a), to be part of the same repeat 203 unit (Figure 1). According to V7, the W27/W29 monomers are separated by spacer sequences of 134 204 by and 62 bp, respectively, which together with the W27/W29 monomers form a new monomer of a 205 total length of 403 bp (Supplementary Figure 2 H). This 403 bp monomer represents a single repeat 206 unit of the newly named W27.2 family. This designation relates to the former nomenclature used for 207 these satellite-like repeat elements in schistosome research (Lepesant et al. 2012a). W27.2 consists of 208 about 100 copies of highly similar monomer repeat units that define this WE family (Figure 1 and 209 Supplementary Figure 2). We made similar findings for the majority of WEs/WEFs.

Figure 1. The New Definition of WEF W27.2

 Figure 1: Showcase for the new definition of WEFs in *S. mansoni*. **A**, Result of the dotplot analysis for WE W29 in V7. The regular stripe pattern indicates a tandem repeat structure of this element without noticeable inversions or deletions. **B**, close-up of a small part of A (see blue square in A, upper left corner) showing a length of 403 bp for this WE unit. **C**, a further close-up showing that W29 is closely associated to W27 , which finally led to the 217 new designation WEF W27.2 (Table 1).

218 Therefore, with respect to the uninterrupted repetitive patterns of WEs within respective 219 chromosome regions as well as small distances or overlaps of different WEs within a genome locus, we

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220 integrated some of the formerly described 36 WEF (Lepesant et al. 2012a), which resulted in newly 221 defined 19 WEFs (Table 1 and Supplementary Figure 2 A and B). These 19 WEFs vary in their copy 222 numbers from 3 (W24.2) to 450 (W36.2) times at one or several chromosomal locations of the V7 223 genome assembly (Table 1). These numbers may underestimate the actual copy-numbers of the WEF 224 in the genome since large satellite WEF-containing blocks are absent from the assembly. 10

225 **Some WEs Are Also Present On Autosomes** 12 13

226 Former studies reported on the presence of WEs in male *S. mansoni* (Grevelding 1995; Quack et al. 227 1998). These findings suggested the presence of WE on Z and/or on autosomes. To find evidence for 228 one or both possibilities, we took WE monomers of the newly defined WEFs and WE-transcript 229 sequences detected in males for BLAST analyses against V7 in the NCBI database, which allowed 230 assigning hits to individual chromosomes. For 4 out of 19 WEFs (W1.2, W7.2, W8.2, W10.2), we found 231 no autosomal localization. Represented by either full-length or partial WE sequences, 15 WEFs were 232 distributed among all 7 autosomes (Table 2 and Supplementary Figure 3A). 14

26 27

11

233

234 **Table 2. WEFs on Autosomes**

235 Tab. 2: Summary of the BLAST analyses of WEs against genome version V7 of *S. mansoni* in the NCBI database. 236 Of the 19 newly defined WEFs, representatives of 15 WEF were found to be distributed among all 7 autosomes, 237 whereas W7.2 and W13.2 were found on 4 autosomes. WEs, their original length (bp), their copy numbers on 238 autosomes, and minimal and maximal lengths (bp) of the WE parts are listed. Next, the numbers of full-length 54 55 56 57 58 59 60

241 Next, we analysed the distribution of single-size elements on autosomes and found heterogeneous 242 patterns. In most cases, we detected size distributions patterns typical for individual WEF. The majority 243 of autosomal W5.2 copies were comparably small, between 30-120 bp, with a copy-number bias for 244 56 bp long variants on chromosome 6 and another bias for 119 bp long variants on chromosome 1. 245 Copy-number variants of W11.2 peaked in 241-244 bp long sequences with a clear bias of 412 bp-sized 246 copies on chromosome 1, which contained also most of the dominating 81-88 bp variants of W25.2. 247 W27.2 copies exhibited the largest distribution of different-sized variants across all chromosomes, 248 whereas 150-165 bp long variants dominated the W36.2 family with a bias of 405 copies of 157 bp on 249 chromosome 1. The majority of the longest size variants across all WEF were found on chromosome 1. 250 Among the few exceptions are W12.2 copies with the dominating size variant of 34 bp on 251 chromosomes 5 (Supplementary Figure 3B).

252 For some of the parental WEFs of those partial, autosomal WEs, we identified sequence similarities to 253 known mobile genetic elements (Supplementary Figure 4). W2.2 showed 65% sequence identity over 254 a stretch of 607 bp to the LTR retrotransposon Saci-1 of *S. mansoni*, which is 5,980 bp in length 255 (DeMarco et al. 2004). Open reading frame (ORF) analysis indicated that this sequence stretch covered 256 the complete protease-coding part of Saci-1. Within WEF W4.2 (1,206 bp) a short but significant 257 sequence homology of 44 bp (89% identity) occurred to the LTR retrotransposon Boudicca (5,858 bp) 258 (Copeland et al. 2003). A 120 bp fragment of W5.2 (1,104 bp) showed 96% identity to the non-LTR 259 retrotransposon Perere-2 (4,544 bp) (DeMarco et al. 2005). This fragment covered part of the reverse 260 transcriptase gene. In W11.2_ZW (1,294 bp), a partial sequence of 150 bp showed 84% identity to the 261 non-LTR retrotransposon Perere-3 (DeMarco et al. 2005). Finally, in W16.2_ZW (1,294 bp) a partial 262 sequence of 317 bp showed 81% identity to the DNA transposon Curupira-1 (4,878 bp) (Jacinto et al. 263 2011). An analysis of potential ORFs indicated partial sequence homologies of W2.2 to *gag* (Group 264 antigen) and *pol* (a reverse transcriptase), and of W5.2 to endonuclease-reverse transcriptase and *pol* 265 (data not shown). Genes like *gag, pol,* and endonuclease-reverse transcriptase are parts of mobile 266 genetic elements such as retrotransposons or retroviruses. However, we did not find a complete ORF 267 for a transposase or an endonuclease-reverse transcriptase in one of the investigated WEFs. The 268 exception is W36.2_W001 (335 bp), which showed strong sequence similarity to the SMalpha family 269 of SINE-like retrotransposons as reported in an independent study (Ferbeyre et al. 1998). Furthermore, 270 a focused structural analysis on one element showed direct repeat sequences as part of a monomer 271 of WEF W25.2. In this case, duplicate sequence stretches were identified flanking this WE at the 272 presumptive target site. The duplicated sequences differed from the W25.2 sequence and could have 273 originated from target site duplication (TSD) (Supplementary fig 5; data not shown).

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 WE Transcripts Occur in All Investigated Strains, Life stages, Sexes, and the Gonads of *S. mansoni* 276 To get a first overview of WEF transcript occurrence in the different biological samples we performed 277 a sample-distance matrix analysis. By pairwise comparisons, this approach provided information about 278 WEF transcript amounts based on the summation of all reads of transcribed WEs - independent of the 279 composition of each WEF that contributed to the WE transcript pool of each sample. These samples 280 included miracidia, cercariae, sporocysts, female and male schistosomula, paired and unpaired males 281 and females, as well as testes and ovaries of paired and unpaired females and males, respectively, and 282 also samples of other strains, depending on availability of sequencing data. We selected data sources 283 with at least two biological replicates for the individual life stages, both sexes, and the gonads 284 (Supplementary Table 1) and normalized the data using DESeq2 prior to further analysis. When 285 available, we also included replicates.

286 The result indicated remarkable differences in WE transcript amounts among the investigated samples. 287 Furthermore, we observed clustering of samples with similar or dissimilar levels of the total amount 288 of WE transcripts (Supplementary figs. 6 and 7). In the Liberian strain, miracidia (Mir_1, Mir_3, Mir_6) 289 showed high deviations of WE transcripts compared to other stages but these levels differed from 290 miracidia of the Puerto Rican strain (Mir). We detected similar deviations for cercariae of the Puerto 291 Rican strain (Cer1-3) and the Liberian strain (CerM1-CerM3; CerF1-CerF3). Generally, schistosomula 292 samples (SomF/M) and samples from males and testes (sM1-sM3; bM1-sM3; sT1-sT3, bT1-bT3) 293 seemed to be homogeneous with respect to transcript amounts. Bigger differences occurred between 294 unpaired females (sF1-sF3), which revealed an overall higher WE transcript level compared to paired 295 females (bF1-bF3). Finally, we found differences also among biological replicates as exemplified by 296 samples from females and ovaries (bF1-bF3; bO1-bO3; sO1-sO2), and even among replicates as 297 observed for schistosomula (SomM/SomF samples). In summary, this first overview indicated a high 298 degree of variability in overall WE transcript amounts between life stages, strains, and sexes, but also 299 between biological replicates.

WEF Expression Levels Differ Among and Within Strains, Life Stages, Sexes, Pairing-Status and Gonads of *S. mansoni*

304 Next, we performed differential expression analysis to investigate WEF expression profiles across 305 strains, different life stages (from miracidia to adults), sex-, gonad-, and/or pairing-dependent 306 expression. Again, we discovered remarkable differences (Figure 2 and Supplementary figs. 8 and 9). 307 Strain-dependent expression occurred, among others, for W7.2, with transcripts in schistosomula of 308 the Puerto Rican strain but not in schistosomula of the Guadeloupean strain. We found strain-309 dependent expression differences also between the Guadeloupean and Liberian strains. For example, 310 W11.2 expression in males of the Guadeloupean strain was higher than the respective levels of males

311 of the Liberian strain. Also with respect to schistosomula samples, we discovered differences between 312 strains, here Guadeloupean and Puerto Rican. This applied also to miracidia samples from the Liberian 313 and Puerto Rican strains, although here only one biological replicate was available for analysis. 314 Furthermore, differences in stage-dependent expression patterns occurred, within and among 315 strains. Within the Liberian strain, for example, W13.2 appeared to be expressed in miracidia and 316 paired females but not in sporocysts and males, respectively. In contrast, there was no W13.2 317 expression in females of the Guadeloupean strain. In the latter strain, no W13.2 transcripts occurred 318 in schistosomula in contrast to schistosomula of the Puerto Rican strain, which expressed W13.2. We 319 identified comparable differences for WEF expression comparing cercariae of both strains.

Figure 2. WE Transcript Profiles Across Different *S. mansoni* **Strains, Life Stages, Sexes, and Gonads**

 Figure 2: Heatmap generated by Deseq2 analysis showing the hierarchical clustering of transcript profiles of WEs of all 19 WEFs in the following life stages: Mir, miracidia; Cer, cercariae; (Sm)Spo(r), sporocysts; Cer(M/F), cercariae (male/female); Som(F/M), schistosomula (female/male); AdM, adult paired males; sF, unpaired (single- sex) females, bF, paired (bisex) females; sM, unpaired (single-sex) males; bM, paired (bisex) males; sO, ovaries of unpaired females; bO, ovaries of paired females; sT, testes of unpaired males; bT, testes of paired males. When available, biological and technical replicates were included. The first number behind a sample abbreviation indicates the number of the biological replicate. The second number indicates the technical replicate. For example, SomF1.1 indicates the first biological and first technical replicate of a female schistosomula, sample. SomF1.2 is the second technical replicate of this schistosomula sample. Samples without numbers had no replicate (Supplementary Table 1). Furthermore, biological symbols indicate female and male samples. In cases without symbol, the sample origin was mixed-sex. The horizontal line at the top of this figure shows a color code for the different schistosome strains, which were the basis for generating RNA-Seq data (Supplementary Table 1). We used strains from Guadeloupe (beige), Liberia (purple), and Puerto Rico (grey). The dendrogram at the outer left side indicates relationships between appropriate WEs/WEFs as labelled at the outer right side. The

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 color code indicates various levels of expression (from dark blue = no transcripts (0) to deep red = high transcript level (25) in the form of log2-transformed normalized counts of all data sets used.

340 Furthermore, we found sex- and gonad-dependent expression patterns such as for W13.2 but also for 341 W31.2. In these and other cases, expression levels were high in paired females and even higher in their 342 ovaries. No W13.2 or W31.2 expression occurred in males and testes, a finding which applied to the 343 majority of WE. In case of W31.2, an additional finding was the high expression level in miracidia and 344 in ovaries, independent of the pairing status. Sex- and pairing-dependent expression occurred, among 345 others, for W11.2 and W13.2 with transcripts in paired females but not in unpaired ones or in males. 346 Also within biological replicates, independent of the strain, we identified in part differences in 347 expression levels of some WEFs. For example, the expression level of W31.2 varied within three 348 biological replicates of cercariae from the Puerto Rican strain. Also in the Liberian strain, WEF 31.2 349 expression varied among three biological replicates of miracidia, sporocysts, unpaired and paired 350 females and their ovaries, respectively.

351 Finally, we observed the most persistent profile in these analyses for W36.2_W001, which appeared 352 to be transcribed in all strains, life stages, sexes, and gonads. Overall expression levels of W36.2_W001 353 were higher in larval compared to adult stages, independent of the strain.

Evidence for Non-Coding RNAs in WEFs

356 Since WEF transcripts occurred, and since we detected nearly no continuous ORFs indicating protein-357 coding information, we next investigated whether WEFs may contain ncRNAs. These RNAs encode no 358 proteins, but as regulatory RNAs they can directly influence cellular processes (Mattick and Makunin 359 2006; Hombach and Kretz 2016). To search for ncRNAs, we analysed the 19 WEFs using 360 StructRNAFinder, which predicts and annotates RNA families in transcripts or genome sequences 361 (Arias-Carrasco et al. 2018).

362 For sequence parts of WEF W1.2, W5.2, W7.2, W8.2, W11.2_ZW, and W12.2, StructRNAFinder 363 predicted similarities to micro RNA (miRNA) (Supplementary Table 2; Supplementary Figure 10). 364 According to the output of sequence similarities and structural predictions, some seemed more likely 365 than others (Supplementary Figure 11). This class of short ncRNAs is processed from stem-loop regions 366 of longer RNA transcripts and can influence post-transcriptional processes during gene expression 367 (Bartel 2018). Transcripts of WEF possibly encoding miRNAs showed varying transcript amounts in life-368 cycle stages, strains, sex and tissue. For example, miRNA candidates mir-785 and mir-891 appeared to 369 form stable, miRNA-like hairpin structures (Supplementary Figure 11). Transcripts of mir-785 370 sequence-containing W12.2 occurred in a strain-influenced (lower expression levels in the 371 Guadeloupean strain compared to the other two strains; Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 8) as well 372 as stage-restricted and sex/gonad-influenced manner (high expression levels only in miracidia, paired

373 females and ovaries compared to males and testes of the Liberian strain; Supplementary Figure 9). For 374 mir-891 sequence-containing W8.2, we found sex-, gonad-, strain-, and stage-influenced patterns 375 (Figure 2). Interestingly, in the Guadeloupean strain a clear sex-biased expression level of W8.2 376 occurred. We detected W8.2 transcripts in female cercariae, female schistosomula and adult females, 377 whereas no W8.2 transcripts occurred in the male-sample counterparts of this strain (Supplementary 378 Figure 8). Among other possibilities, these observations suggest roles for W12.2 and W8.2 in sex-379 related processes.

380 For sequence parts of WEFs W2.2, W5.2, W11.2_ZW, W22.2, W24.2, and W26.2_W003, 381 StructRNAFinder predicted similarities to small nucleolar RNAs (snoRNAs) (Supplementary Table 3). 382 Together with associated proteins, snoRNAs form ribonucleoprotein complexes directing the post-383 transcriptional modification of target RNAs (Lui and Lowe 2013). WEFs potentially encoding snoRNAs 384 showed varying transcript amounts in different strains, life-cycle stages, sexes, and tissues. Among 385 these is a candidate for SNORD59. It is potentially encoded by WEF W2.2, which contains the snoRNA 386 C/D family-specific C-box (UGAUGA) and D-box (CUGA) motifs (Galardi et al. 2002) within the SNORD59 387 region of W2.2 (Supplementary Figure 12). The W2.2 expression level was higher in cercariae and 388 schistosomula of the Puerto Rican strain compared to the Guadeloupean strain (Supplementary 389 Figure 8). In the Liberian strain, W2.2 showed preferential expression in miracidia, paired females, and 390 ovaries (Supplementary Figure 9). Expression levels of WEFs containing snoRNA candidates TB11Cs2H1 391 (W26.2_W003) and GlsR19 (W36.2_W001) in adults of the Guadeloupean strain exceeded those from 392 adults of the Liberian strain (Figure 2). In the latter strain, W26.2 W003 and W36.2 W001 expression 393 dominated in miracidia compared to other samples (Supplementary Figure 9). Within the sequence of 394 W22.2, different snoRNA candidates were predicted, sR11, snoZ178, and SCARNA7 (Supplementary 395 Table 3 and Supplementary Figures 10 and 11). W22.2 appeared expressed at higher levels in miracidia 396 and schistosomula of the Puerto Rican strain compared to the Guadeloupean strain. In the Liberian 397 strain, W22.2 expression is higher in miracidia than in other samples (Supplementary Figure 9).

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398 In case of W5.2 and W11.2 ZW, StructRNAFinder predicted sequence parts for both miRNA and 399 snoRNA, which partly overlapped (Supplementary figs. 10 and 11). W5.2 and W11.2_ZW expression 400 levels appeared to be higher in the Puerto Rican strain compared to the Guadeloupean and Liberian 401 strains (Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 8). However, compared to W11.2_ZW showing constant 402 expression among all samples of the Liberian strain, W5.2 expression was higher in miracidia and 403 sporocysts than all other stages and tissues of this strain (Supplementary Figure 9).

404 At this stage of the analysis, however, it is unclear whether these predictions of miRNA and snoRNA 405 correspond to biologically relevant ncRNAs. In addition, we found four WEF that contain sequences 406 reminiscent of the HHR class of ribozymes. These are catalytic RNAs and defined as ncRNA molecules 407 that can catalyse chemical reactions (Lilley 2019; see next section).

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 Figure 3: Clustal-based alignment of the WEF W36.2, W25.2, W26.2 and W27.2 compared to the SMalpha family of SINE-like retrotransposons (Ferbeyre et al. 1998), which contain the HHR sequence. The chosen examples show sequence similarity to the highly conserved core sequences CUGANGA and GAAA (grey background), but also deviations occurred (marked in yellow) (Ruffner et al. 1990; Perreault et al. 2011).

487 Varying sequence similarity for HHRs occurred within these WEF (Figure 4 and Supplementary 488 Figure 13), which we also observed for W-chromosomal and autosomal copies of these WEF showing 489 incomplete or altered HHR consensus sequences with deletions, insertions, and point mutations. As 490 shown before, mutations in the CUGANGA and GAAA consensus motifs can lead to inactivity of HHRs 491 or diminished cleavage speeds (Ruffner et al. 1990).

492 Previous studies already confirmed the activity of the SMalpha-encoded type I HHR, represented by 493 W36.2_W001 (Ferbeyre et al. 1998; Canny et al. 2004). Prior to experimental validation of activities of 494 predicted HHRs of other WEFs, we analysed the appropriate sequences for intact three-stem junctions 495 and perfect conservation in the CUGANGA and GAAA sequence motifs to exclude presumably inactive 496 HHRs (Supplementary Table 4) (Ruffner et al. 1990). To investigate additional HHRs for their self-497 cleavage activity *in vitro*, we selected predicted candidates from different WEs (Figure 4). Because of 498 the high similarity between all candidates (Supplementary Figure 13), we selected only five 499 representatives. These candidates descend from WEF copies on autosomes and represent variants of 500 W25.2 and W36.2 (Figure 4C and Supplementary Table 4). Although the HHR core mainly comprised 501 the three-stem junction with its conserved CUGANGA and GAAA sequences (Figure 4A), additional 502 interactions outside the catalytic core increased ribozyme cleavage speed and structural stability

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503 (Khvorova et al. 2003; Uhlenbeck et al. 2003; Martick et al. 2006; Perreault et al. 2011). Therefore, we 504 extended predicted HHR sequences by 11-13 nucleotides, which naturally occur at the 5'- and 3'-ends 505 of the motifs.

506 Our analysis confirmed the activity of HHR candidates 1-3, which cleave into the expected 5'- and 3'- 507 subfragments (Figure 4D). Due to the imprecise run-off transcription of the T7 RNA polymerase, we 508 observed additional bands for the 3'-cleavage fragment (Chamberlin et al. 1973). Candidate 4 contains 509 a mutation in the catalytic core (CUGANAA), and candidate 5 has a deletion at the cleavage site. Both 510 alterations likely rendered these candidates inactive based on detailed studies on the effect of 511 mutations to the HHR core on cleavage (Ruffner et al. 1990). In summary, we confirm all predictions in 512 this co-transcriptional cleavage assay.

Figure 4. Active Hammerhead Ribozymes are Part of Autosomal WEs

 Figure 4: HHR candidates as part of WEs were selected for functional analysis. **A**, Consensus sequence and secondary structure of the HHR type I catalytic core. The stems are labeled I-III, and highly conserved nucleotides are shown in red. **B**, Consensus sequence and secondary structure of HHR candidates found as part of WEs. Only those HHR candidates that contain all conserved sequence and structural features were included into this

Page 17 of 44

 consensus (Supplementary Table 4 and Supplementary Figure 13). R2R was used to draw the model (Weinberg et al. 2011). **C**, Alignment of HHR sequences from selected candidates tested for self-cleavage activity *in vitro*. The stems are highlighted, and mutations in highly conserved regions shown in red (i.e. Candidate 4-W36_333). At the cleavage site (arrow), candidate 5 W25_415_3 has a deletion and served as control. **D**, Co-transcriptional cleavage analysis of selected HHR candidates. Full-length transcript (FL), 5′- (5′-clv), and 3′-cleavage (3′-clv) fragments are indicated by arrows. "T1" indicates partial digestion after G nucleotides by RNase T1 and "–OH" partial alkaline hydrolysis. Samples were separated by 20% PAGE.

WEFs Vary Among Different Schistosome Species

529 Previous studies discussed the existence of WEFs and mobile genetic elements such as 530 retrotransposons in different schistosome species. In their original article on W1 elements in *S. mansoni*, now WEF W1.2, Webster et al. (1989) reported the absence of W1 from *S. matthei, S. haematobium, S. japonicum, S. douthitti*, and *Fasciola hepatica* based on Southern blot results in the 533 pre-genomic era. Furthermore, the SMalpha family (represented by W36.2), based on PCR data 534 originally assumed by Ferbeyre et al. (2000) to be present in *S. haematobium* and *S. douthitti* but 535 absent from *S. japonicum*, was later found in this species in high copy numbers and with the HHR core 536 motif (Laha et al. 2000). Based on genome data for schistosomes (Howe et al. 2017), we searched for 537 WEFs in *S. rodhaini*, which belongs to the same clade as *S. mansoni*, and in *S. haematobium* and *S. japonicum*, which represent different clades, respectively (Lawton et al. 2011).

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539 BLASTn analysis showed the presence of the majority of WEFs in the other species. Compared to *S. mansoni*, however, lengths and structures of the elements varied. Most of the WEFs found in the 541 other species revealed reduced sizes (Supplementary Table 5). One example is W11.2 ZW, which in *S. mansoni* has a length of 1,294 bp, whereas in *S. japonicum* its size is 251 bp, in *S. haematobium* 543 375 bp, and in *S. rodhaini* 275 bp, respectively. Partial versions of five WEF, W2.2_709, W4.2, and 544 W7.2, occurred in all investigated species except *S. japonicum*. In *S. rodhaini*, a nearly complete version 545 of WEF W31.2 exists, which is absent from *S. japonicum* and *S. haematobium*. Remarkably, full-length 546 and partial versions of WEF W8.2 and W10.2 exclusively occurred in *S. mansoni*. Only for WEF W36.2, 547 size differences of the repeat units were lower among the different species. For W36.2 W005 and 548 W36_W001, we found slightly larger unit sizes in *S. rodhaini* (347 bp and 337 bp, respectively) 549 compared to *S. mansoni* (332 bp and 335 bp, respectively) (Supplementary Table 5).

550 To investigate whether the size variations structurally affected regions with hypothesized regulatory 551 functions, we performed alignment analyses using the best BLASTn hits focusing on selected WEFs that 552 contain regions potentially coding for regulatory RNAs, W1.2 (mir-279, mir-2587), W5.2 (mir-598, 553 sR36), W11.2_ZW (mir-232; DdR16), and W22.2 (SCARNA7, sR11, snoZ178). This analysis indicated a 554 mosaic pattern with respect to the presence and integrity of these parts of the WEF sequences that 555 potentially code for regulatory RNAs. Whereas the part of W1.2 coding for the miRNAs mir-279 and

556 mir-2587 was completely present in all investigated species, other *S. mansoni* miRNAs or snoRNAs 557 were either absent or only partially preserved, or the W1.2 sequence was completely present in one 558 or two further species (Figure 5).

561
562 Figure 5: Diagram of structural differences of selected WEF in *S. mansoni*, *S. rodhaini*, *S. japonicum*, and *S. haematobium* that potentially encode regulatory RNAs. **A**, W1.2 (blue) harbours coding sequences for miRNAs mir-2587 (green) and mir-279 (grey). Compared to *S. mansoni*, best W1.2 hits upon BLASTn analysis showed shorter orthologs in *S. rodhaini*, *S. haematobium*, and *S. japonicum*. Although shorter, these orthologous sequences preserved full-length mir-279 and mir-2587. **B**, W5.2 (blue) harbours coding sequences for mir-598 (green) and snoRNA sR36 (grey). We found none of these regulatory RNAs in orthologous sequences of *S. rodhaini* and *S. haematobium*. In *S. japonicum*, a partial mir-2587 sequence occurs, however, not flanked by W5.2 sequence areas. In this case, we cannot exclude a false positive hit. **C**, W11.2_ZW harbours overlapping coding sequences for mir-232 (green) and DdR16 (grey), which is part of the mir-232 sequence. This overlapping RNA- coding part appears to be completely preserved in *S. haematobium*, although the flanking W11.2_ZW sequence areas are shorter compared to *S. mansoni*. In *S. rodhaini* and *S. japonicum*, we detected smaller W11.2_ZW elements without RNA-coding parts. **D**, W22.2 harbours sR11 (green) and overlapping coding sequences for SCARNA7 (grey) and snoZ178 (red), which is part of the SCARNA7 sequence (red/grey area). Only shorter W22.2 elements occur in the other schistosome species. In *S. rodhaini*, a small W22.2 variant exists containing fragments of the sR11 and SCARNA7 sequence. In *S. japonicum*, a big part of the overlapping RNA-coding region occurs with a small part of sR11 and a shortened SCARNA7 part, but a completely preserved snoZ178 part. We made a similar finding for *S. haematobium*, here the SCARNA7 (grey) part was slightly shorter compared to the *S. japonicum* counterpart. The sequences were obtained from data deposited on WormBase ParaSite (version 15, October 2020; https://parasite.wormbase.org), BioProject numbers: [PRJEA36577](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJEA36577) (*S. mansoni*), *S. rodhaini* (PRJEB526 -

583 For the HHR-containing WEF, species comparison showed a different picture. Looking again for best 584 hits, we detected orthologs of three of four WEFs (W25.2, W27.2, W36.2) in all examined schistosome 585 species, with *S. mansoni* showing the longest size variants. In nearly all cases, the integrity of the HHR 586 motifs was fully preserved. The exception was W26.2, of which only a small part without HHR motif 587 appeared to be conserved in *S. japonicum* (Figure 6). When we searched for the HHR sequence of 588 W26.2 in the *S. japonicum* genome by BLASTn, we found no hit (data not shown).

 Figure 6: Diagram of structural differences of WEF W25.2, W26.2, W27.2, W36.2 in *S. mansoni*, *S. rodhaini*, *S. japonicum*, and *S. haematobium* that potentially encode type 1 HHR1 (scaffold information is given). The ribozyme parts of these sequences are highlighted in green. Compared to *S. mansoni*, BLASTn analysis showed shorter orthologs for all four WEFs in *S. rodhaini*, *S. haematobium*, and *S. japonicum*. Except for W26.2 in *S. japonicum*, the ribozyme motif was highly conserved among the selected species. The sequences were obtained from data deposited on WormBase ParaSite (version 15, October 2020; https://parasite.wormbase.org), BioProject numbers: PRJEA36577 (*S. mansoni*), *S. rodhaini* (PRJEB526 - Republic of Burundi), PRJNA520774 (HuSjv2, *S. japonicum)*, and PRJNA78265 (*S. haematobium*). Scaffold numbers are given.

Discussion

602 The days of "junk DNA" are over. When the senior authors of this article studied genetics at their 603 respective universities, the common doctrine was that the non-protein coding part of eukaryotic 604 genomes consists of interspersed, "useless" sequences, often organized in repetitive elements such as 605 satDNA. The latter might have accumulated during evolution, e.g. as a consequence of gene 606 duplication events to separate and individualise gene function (Britten and Kohne 1968; Comings 1972;

607 Ohno 1999). This view has fundamentally changed (Biscotti et al. 2015a), and our study is the first one 608 addressing this issue with structural, functional, and evolutionary aspects for the genome of a 609 multicellular parasite.

610 Using V7 of the *S. mansoni* genome we re-analysed WEFs, which previous studies described as 611 organized in 36 families of repetitive, non-protein coding DNA elements occurring on the W-612 chromosome (Lepesant et al. 2012b). From our results, we deduce 19 WEFs based on the fact that 613 many of the original 36 WEFs are fused together. These 19 WEFs exhibit a surprising diversity of 614 features. As expected for repetitive DNA, there is high sequence similarity but also variation among 615 the repeat units of each single WEF. Besides few partial WE sequences of some WEFs on the WZ 616 chromosomes, we found for 15 out of 19 WEF copies also on autosomes. Here, copy numbers 617 considerably varied as well as the lengths of WE units of the respective WEFs. The autosomal 618 occurrence possibly indicates the potential of element mobility. Indeed, in some WEF sequences we 619 found residues of features typical for mobile genetic elements such as retrotransposons or 620 retroviruses. Although we found no evidence of complete ORFs coding for a transposase, in an 621 exemplary case, we detected direct repeats and TSD, which are often, but not always, found at 622 integration sites of mobile genetic elements (Jensen et al. 1994; Han et al. 2014). Repetitive elements 623 such as satDNA have been discussed to originate from transposable elements (TEs). Both share sequence similarity and organization patterns, which suggests a mutual relationship between satDNA 625 and TEs. This probably influenced satDNA evolution and its roles on genome architecture and function (Meštrović et al. 2015; Satović et al. 2016). The mechanism of satDNA formation from TEs is unclear yet. However, structural elements such as palindromes, direct/inverted repeats, and the ability of stem-loop formation may be involved as well as illegitimate recombination events and deletions based on double-strand breaks and excision. These factors might drive rearrangements of TEs and the production of sequence parts as templates for further amplification to form tandemly organized satDNA clusters. This may apply to at least some of the WEs described here (W2.2, W4.2, W5.2, W11.2, and W16.2), which showed partial sequence homology to known mobile genetic elements. SatDNA monomers might be recognized by transposase-driven mechanisms acting on short DNA sequence 634 motifs of these DNA sequences, which are recognized by enzymes related to transposases (Meštrović 635 et al. 2015). As alternative to transposon-like cut and paste mechanisms, reintegration of repeat 636 elements may happen via circular DNA intermediates generated from tandem repeats, as shown in *Arabidopsis* (Woodhouse et al. 2010). Whether this or similar mechanisms may apply to the WEF of *S. mansoni* has still to be elucidated.

 Based on evidence for transcriptional activity and dynamic occurrence, recent years have unravelled novel roles for satDNA (Biscotti et al. 2015a). Among these is the establishment of heterochromatic states at centromeres and telomeres, which is indispensable for preserving chromosome integrity and

 genome stability. In *S. mansoni*, Lepesant et al. (2012a) reported WEF-associated transcript occurrence and chromatin status of repeats to be stage-specific. Open chromatin on the W-chromosome occurred in larval stages but not in the sexually dimorphic adult stage. Furthermore, the euchromatic character of histone modifications around the WE repeats on W decreased during the life cycle. When transcribed, repeat RNA appeared stage-specifically in the larval stages miracidium and cercaria. These authors concluded that WEFs may play roles in structural changes of the chromatin and sex-648 chromosome emergence in ZW systems (Lepesant et al. 2012a). Furthermore, heterochromatisation 649 was discussed as major factor for the differentiation of sex chromosomes in the schistosomatids and 650 also for schistosome speciation (Lawton et al. 2011).

651 Here, we provide conclusive evidence for WEF expression throughout schistosome development, from 652 the miracidium to the adult stages. Copy numbers considerably varied among the WEFs and depended 653 on the life-cycle stage, sex, pairing, and strain. In a Liberian strain of *S. mansoni*, genome instability of 654 the W1 element was hypothesized from the finding of gain or loss of W1 elements in the progeny of 655 crosses, or even during larval development within the snail host (Grevelding 1999). This pointed to 656 recombination processes during meiosis and/or mitosis. Our new results suggest that a mobile 657 character of WEF may account for this genome instability, which allows WEs to recombine within a 658 single generation. This could also explain the observed strain differences. Accordingly, some of the 659 results shown (Figure 2 and Supplementary figs. 6-9), may represent snapshots of the WEF setup within 660 the samples at the time they were available for analysis. Therefore, WE occurrence and copy numbers 661 may be a matter of change over time and generations, a view that is supported by the observed 662 variations among biological and technical replicates. As practical consequence, sex determination of 663 clonal cercarial populations based on PCR using WE-specific primers, as previously performed with 664 varying success (Gasser et al. 1991; Boissier et al. 2001; Chevalier et al. 2016), may eventually lead to 665 inconsistent results.

666 Our approach to assign putative roles to WEFs led to the StructRNAFinder-based prediction of different 667 classes of regulatory RNAs as parts of WE sequences. Due to their roles in gene regulation, miRNAs 668 have attracted attention (Bartel 2018). In mammals, X-chromosomal miRNA expanded by gene 669 duplication after the emergence of sex chromosomes, and hundreds of different miRNAs have been 670 identified shaping mRNA expression (Meunier et al. 2013). Many are conserved, which may also 671 applies to *S. mansoni* (http://www.mirbase.org/; Kozomara et al. 2019). As example, mir-181, in our 672 study predicted as putative part of W8.2, may represent a miRNA family for which multiple roles in 673 immune cell development, hematopoiesis, cell death pathways, cancer, and drug resistance have been 674 reported in humans (Weng et al. 2015; Braicu et al. 2019). Species comparison indicated W8.2 in *S. mansoni* but not in the closely related species *S. rodhaini* and *S. japonicum* or *S. haematobium*. In *Drosophila*, mir-279, potential part of W1.2, influence neuron formation of the olfactory sensory

677 system (Hartl et al. 2011) and eye patterning interfering with EGFR pathways (Duan et al. 2018). Roles 678 for miRNAs have also been reported for parasites and host-parasite interaction (Zhao and Guo 2019; 679 Britton et al. 2020). Plant-parasitic nematodes induce feeding site formation in host cells, which 680 differentially express miRNAs upon infection (Jaubert-Possamai et al. 2019). In schistosomes, the 681 presence and conservation of genes involved in miRNA pathways and their role in *B*. *glabrata/S*. *mansoni* interaction has been discussed (Queiroz et al. 2017; Cardoso et al. 2020). 683 Furthermore, miRNAs of *S. mansoni* and *S. japonicum* may participate in male-female interaction, 684 sexual development, and pathological processes in the final host (Zhu et al. 2014; Cai et al. 2016; Yu et 685 al. 2019). In *S. haematobium*, a genome-wide analysis of small ncRNAs identified mir-785 expression 686 in both sexes, which corresponds to our findings. Furthermore, homology-based prediction indicated 687 a voltage-dependent anion-selective channel protein (MS3_05034) as potential target (Stroehlein et 688 al. 2018). Transcripts of the MS3_05034 ortholog of *S. mansoni*, Smp_091240, occur in males, females 689 and their gonads (Lu et al. 2016). *S. mansoni* mir-785 is also expressed in adults although with a sex 690 bias (females > males) including the gonads (ovary >> testes), and influenced by pairing (paired females 691 >> unpaired females).

692 Also, snoRNAs are widely distributed among eukaryotes and participate in the modification and 693 processing of ribosomal and small nuclear RNAs, splicing, rRNA acetylation, mRNA abundance and 694 translational efficiency (Lui and Lowe 2013; Bratkovič et al. 2020). SNORD59, a putative snoRNA in 695 W2.2, is a member of the C/D family directing site-specific 2'-O-methylation of substrate RNA such as 696 18S rRNA (Galardi et al. 2002). The conserved C/D family-specific C-box (UGAUGA) and D-box (CUGA) 697 motifs are present in W2.2-encoded SNORD59. Perfect matches occur in the 709 bp variants of W2.2, 698 whereas in the 711 bp variants a G/C mutation has been found at position 3 of the D-box motif 699 (Supplementary Figure 12). The 2′-O-methylation of the ribose moiety is important for the maturation 700 of almost all classes of RNAs and involves different snoRNP (ribonucleoprotein) complexes (Kiss-László 701 et al. 1996; Ojha et al. 2020). They contain nucleolar proteins (Nop), of which orthologs exist in *S. mansoni* such as Nop 56 (Smp_053470 and Smp_048660; https://parasite.wormbase.org). 703 Smp_053470 and Smp_048660 are most abundantly expressed in sporocysts and ovaries of paired 704 females (Lu et al. 2016; Lu et al. 2018; [http://schisto.xyz/,](http://schisto.xyz/) V7), which coincides with SNORD59 705 transcripts in these stages/tissues (Supplementary Table 3). SnoRNAs can be further processed into 706 smaller RNAs with different functionality including miRNAs (Scott and Ono 2011). In mammals, protein-707 coding genes exist that express both snoRNAs and miRNAs in single introns. The existence of eukaryotic 708 and archean members suggested that snoRNAs - in evolutionary terms - are more ancient compared 709 to miRNA (Dennis and Omer 2005). However, there is also evidence for recently evolved snoRNA and 710 miRNAs (Niwa and Slack 2007). This suggests that both RNA classes evolve dynamically and at fast 711 rates, which may also apply to the predicted *S. mansoni* snoRNA and miRNAs. Furthermore, many of

712 the most recently evolved snoRNA and miRNAs may be derived from TEs. Indeed, previous studies 713 showed TSDs at snoRT (human snoRNA-like retrogene) integration sites, which supports their mobile 714 character (Weber 2006; Lui and Lowe 2013). Our indicative findings of TSDs and intra-WE inverted 715 repeats flanking miRNA and snoRNA subunits of WEFs as well as their mobile character correspond to 716 these concepts. To prove whether the predictions of snoRNAs and miRNAs as parts of appropriate 717 WEFs have functional relevance will be subject of future studies. In this study, we focused on functional 718 evidence of type I HHRs, which are parts of some WEF. HHRs are widely distributed in the animal and 719 plant kingdoms, and they can be associated with repeated DNA (Perreault et al. 2011; Cervera et al. 720 2014; de la Peña et al. 2017; Lünse et al. 2017). Recent studies on the biology of genomic HHRs discuss 721 their potential roles in the propagation of retrotransposons, which are major components of 722 eukaryotic genomes including schistosomes (Venancio et al. 2010), and which contribute to genome 723 evolution shaping developmental processes and eukaryotic complexity (Mita et al. 2016). Remarkably, 724 our species analysis showed a high conservation of the ribozyme-like sequences in W25.2, 725 W26.2 W003, W27.2, and W36.2 W001 among the examined species with the exception of the 726 absence of the type 1 HHR in W26.2 in *S. japonicum*. To test whether WEF-encoded HHRs are 727 catalytically active, we selected predicted ribozyme sequences of autosomal WEs. Alignments showed 728 that some WEF-encoded HHR sequences harbour the canonical core sequences CUGANGA and GAAA. 729 Other HHRs, such as candidates 4 (W36 333 1) and 5 (W25 415 3), have mutations or deletions in 730 highly conserved nucleotides that likely lead to a reduction or loss of the cleavage activity (Ruffner et 731 al. 1990). Indeed, all HHR candidates conform to previously described minimal HHRs with an extremely 732 short stem III (Forster et al. 1987; Lünse et al. 2017). Although only weak similarity to SMalpha HHR 733 existed, it may be tempting to speculate about their functional role as part of SINE-like elements similar 734 to the ones already described (Ferbeyre et al. 1998). Furthermore, W25.2 showed higher expression 735 in the Puerto Rican and Guadeloupean strains compared to the Liberian strain. Thus, it may contribute 736 to strain-specific differences at the post-transcriptional level. Within the Liberian strain, W25.2 737 appeared to be expressed at a slightly higher level in the ovary of females compared to male testes or 738 the adults. This suggests a gonad-associated function in females, which awaits confirmation in 739 subsequent studies. These are needed to substantiate the expounded hypotheses and to assure that *S. mansoni* WEs elements are not just selfish DNA (Biscotti et al. 2015b, Thakur et al. 2021). 741 Creating variability and genome plasticity are hallmarks of parasites with different molecular principles 742 invented during evolution (Lanzer et al. 1995). In schistosomes, repetitive WEs may represent one of 743 these principles. Using the intermediate snail-host stage for asexual recombination (Grevelding 1999;

744 Bayne and Grevelding 2003) and the final-host stage for sexual recombination, schistosomes have 745 exceptional preconditions for rapid evolution driven by adaptation to new environments. Prerequisite

746 for asexual recombination of WEFs from the heterochromatin area of the W-chromosome is a biphasic

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747 chromatin stage, in which both euchromatic and heterochromatic states can be adopted. Indeed, this 748 has been confirmed for *S. mansoni* by showing that euchromatic histone modifications around WEs 749 dominate in the intermediate snail-host but decrease afterwards (Lepesant et al. 2012a). In *P. falciparum*, bistable chromatin has been discussed as a mechanism regulating variant gene 751 expression patterns within clonal populations (Llorà-Batlle et al. 2019). In nematodes, mobile genetic 752 elements contribute to genome plasticity in the absence of sexual reproduction (Castagnone-Sereno 753 et al. 2014). This fits to the general view of the impact of mobile genetic elements on genome evolution 754 and adaptation, which is important for organisms frequently facing new environments such as 755 parasites (Schrader and Schmitz 2019), particularly those with complex life cycles. The evolution of 756 repetitive DNA was also associated with reproductive isolation, founding new species, genome integrity, and karyotype evolution (Coghlan 2005; Biscotti et al. 2015a; Lower et al. 2018). Especially with respect to heterochromatic regions, remarkable diversity of karyotype patterns exist for different schistosome species leading to the definition of six clades correlating with the different geographical distribution as well as with the hypothesized Asian origin of schistosomes (Hirai et al. 2000; Lawton et al. 2011). Our comparison of WEFs in selected schistosome species of different clades provide a first hint for their potential contribution to karyotype variability, and thus speciation. This may include a varying repertoire of WEF-encoded regulatory RNAs, which differs between these species.

 Repetitive DNA discloses high sequence and copy number variability among and within species but 765 also in closely related organisms, which points to rapid evolution (Lower et al. 2018). This may involve 766 coevolution with regulatory RNAs as it was hypothesized for satellite repeats and long noncoding RNAs 767 (Lee et al. 2019) as well as the dual relationship between Alu repeats (short interspersed nuclear 768 elements of the human genome) and miRNAs. Duplication events involving Alu elements have 769 favoured the expansion of miRNA clusters and their expression (Lehnert et al. 2009).

770 From the data obtained in our study and against the background of recent literature, it is tempting to 771 speculate that more of the WE "junk-DNA" than expected might be functional and relevant. WEs of all 772 investigated WEFs exhibit a capricious incidence, , and they are transcribed in a stage-, sex-, pairing-, 773 gonad, and strain-specific or -preferential pattern. From exemplary findings of features typical for the 774 activity of mobile genetic elements, we hypothesize that W elements may have a mobile character. 775 Together with previous findings of intra-clonal recombination events of WEs (Grevelding 1999; Bayne 776 and Grevelding 2003), their presumptive role in sex chromosome emergence (Lepesant et al. 2012), 777 their putative capacity to express regulatory RNAs, we propose that W elements might influence the 778 biology of *S. mansoni*. Furthermore*,* based on the variable occurrence of WEFs in different schistosome 779 strains, isolates, and even species, we hypothesize that the W elements represent one of the sources 780 of heritable variability in the evolution of the family Schistosomatidae.

Materials and Methods

Ethics Approval

784 Experiments with hamsters to obtain *S. mansoni* material as basis for RNA-seq studies leading to the 785 bioinformatics data analysis were done in accordance with the European Convention for the Protection 786 of Vertebrate Animals Used for Experimental and Other Scientific Purposes (ETS No 123; revised 787 Appendix A) and had been approved by the Regional Council (Regierungspraesidium) Giessen (V54-19 788 c 20/15 c GI 18/10).

Mapping and Characterizing WEF (V5) Against Genome Version V7

791 WE repeat sequences, originally described as being organized in 36 families (Lepesant et al. 2012b), 792 were identified in the current genome version V7 of *S. mansoni* by local alignment searches via BLASTn 793 (BLAST+, v. 2.6.0) (Camacho et al. 2009) using a coverage cut-off of 66% and an identity cut-off of 80%. 794 In addition, all WEFs were also detected with Gepard (GEnome PAir - Rapid Dotter, v. 1.40) through 795 the representation of the repetitive patterns in dotplot graphics (Krumsiek et al. 2007). Dotplot 796 analysis (Gibbs et al. 1970) was performed and visualized as two-dimensional matrices with sequences 797 being compared along vertical and horizontal axes. In case of identity, individual cells within the matrix 798 are shaded black, thus matching sequence segments appear as diagonal lines across the matrix. We 799 also used Gepard to provide a graphical overview of existing patterns that are typical for mobile genetic 800 elements such as transposons.

Mapping and Counting of RNA-Seq Reads

803 First, we used the tool Trim Galore (<https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/index.html>), a 804 wrapper script to automate quality and adapter trimming as well as quality control, to remove the 805 adapters required for Illumina sequencing from the RNA-Seq reads. In order to detect WE transcripts, 806 RNA-Seq reads of different samples were aligned to a Multifasta file with all WE sequences using 807 Bowtie2 (version 2.3.4.3; Reporting Option: all alignments) (Langmead et al. 2009; Langmead and 808 Salzberg 2012). Using bedtools intersect (Quinlan and Hall 2010; version 2.27.1+galaxy1), RNA-Seq 809 reads were screened for overlaps with WEF sequences to produce the raw read counts. To this end, 810 we used the mapped reads of the Bowtie2 (bam file) analysis and a bed file containing length 811 information of all WEF (Table 1).

812 Additionally, we included RNA-Seq reads of all protein-coding genes in *S. mansoni* to increase the 813 library sizes for between-sample normalization. Such read counts were obtained as described before 814 (Lu et al. 2018). Briefly, the quality of raw RNA-seq reads was assessed using the FastQC tool [\(http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/](http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/)), and reads were aligned to *S. mansoni* 816 V7 genome (WormBase Parasite WBPS14) using STAR 2.7.2a [\(Dobin et al. 2013\)](https://paperpile.com/c/3sOyZG/ESzE) with the option *--*

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 alignIntronMin 10. Counts per gene were summarised with FeatureCounts v1.4.5-p1 [\(Liao et al. 2014\)](https://paperpile.com/c/3sOyZG/24Ow) 818 based on the exon feature, using the annotation from WormBase Parasite WBPS14 [\(https://parasite.wormbase.org/\)](https://parasite.wormbase.org/).

Open Reading Frame Analysis

822 We used the NCBI program "ORFfinder" (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/orffinder/) to detect 823 translatable sequence areas. For the analysis, we selected a minimum length of 30 nucleotides and 824 only the start codon "ATG". The amino acid sequences were examined by BLASTp (BLAST+, v.2.6.0; 825 Camacho et al. 2009) against UniProtKB/Swiss-Prot.

Differential Expression Analysis and Normalization

828 To determine quantitative changes in WE transcript levels between the RNA-Seq datasets we 829 performed differential expression analysis using raw reads in DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014). Throughout 830 the manuscript, expression is defined as occurrence or levels of transcripts. For normalization of the 831 data sets, we combined WE-specific read counts and read counts of protein-coding genes (Smp 832 identifiers). For generation of the heatmap of the count matrix and the sample-distance matrix, we 833 used R [\(https://www.r-project.org](https://www.r-project.org/), v3.6.3) package DESeq2 (v1.24.0) and pheatmap (v1.0.12), applying log2 transformation of normalized counts of WEs using the *normTransform* and *rlogTransformation* 835 function, respectively.

Identification of WEs on Autosomes

838 We used Blast+ (v.2.6.0; Camacho et al. 2009) to identify highly similar sequences of WEs on 839 autosomes, applying the megablast task and a 0.001 E-value cut-off. We only extracted sequences if 840 the alignment covered more than 80% of the query sequence, and if the overall alignment percentage 841 (OAP; percent identity of the alignment multiplied by the coverage divided by 100) was higher than 842 60. Exceptions of this rule were made in case fragmented autosomal W elements were small; fragment 843 sizes below 25 bp were not considered. Using the sequence alignment tool MAFFT (v7.471; <https://mafft.cbrc.jp/alignment/server/>), we calculated sequence homologies (Kuraku et al. 2013; 845 Katoh et al. 2019). As input, we used the Fasta sequences and chose "Adjust direction according to the 846 first sequence". Clustal-formatted alignments were produced as results. To find patterns of WE mobile 847 activity, such as potential transposition events, we used MITE Tracker, an open source program that 848 provides positional information on inverted-repeat sequences and target site duplications (TSD) 849 (Crescente et al. 2018).

Functional Prediction

853 For the prediction of sequences coding functional RNA, we used StructRNAfinder, an integrative tool 854 allowing the identification, functional annotation, and taxonomic allocation of sequences to RNA 855 families by secondary structure inference 856 (https://structrnafinder.integrativebioinformatics.me/run.html) (Arias-Carrasco et al. 2018). 857 StructRNAfinder displays sequence consensus alignments for RNA families, according to Rfam 858 database (RNA families, data base version 14.2, Kalvari et al. 2018; https://rfam.xfam.org), but also provides a taxonomic overview for each assigned functional RNA. As input, we generated FASTA files 860 with complete RNAs from the Bowtie2 output by using the tool "bedtools MergeBED" (Galaxy Version 861 2.27.1) (Quinlan and Hall 2010) to merge overlapping and adjacent regions. We chose the option 862 cmsearch and an E-value of 0.01. In the output options, we selected "report only best hit per 863 sequence".

Determination of Ribozyme Activity During *in vitro* **Transcription**

866 We produced transcription templates containing the T7 promoter sequence by extension of partly 867 complementary oligonucleotides (Supplementary Table 6) using the Phusion DNA Polymerase 868 (ThermoScientificTM). We purified templates by phenol/chloroform extraction and ethanol 869 precipitation. For *in vitro* transcription, 1 µg purified template, 1x transcription buffer, 3% DMSO, 4 870 mM NTPs, 0.013 U thermostable inorganic pyrophosphatase (NEB), and 25 ng of T7 RNA polymerase 871 (laboratory preparation) were combined in a 30 μ l reaction and incubated at 37°C for 2 h. The 872 1x transcription buffer contained 80 mM HEPES-KOH (pH 7.5), 24 mM MgCl₂, 2 mM Spermidine, and 873 40 mM DTT. Labelling of HHR candidates during transcription occurred by the addition of $\alpha^{32}P$]-CTP. 874 We stopped reactions by adding RNA loading-dye composed of 2.5 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.6), 20% 875 formamide, 0.06% bromophenol, and 0.06% xylene cyanol. A cleavage-deficient, elongated variant of 876 W25_415_3 (154 nt) was gel-purified after *in vitro* transcription, dephosphorylated using the antarctic 877 phosphatase (NEB**)** and labelled at its 5'-end using the T4 polynucleotidyl kinase (NEB) and [γ³²P]-ATP. 878 Following another gel-purification, we used the 5'-labeled RNA to create a size standard by alkaline 879 hydrolysis and RNase T1 digestion. For experimental validation and product visualisation, we separated 880 the size standard and internally labelled ribozyme cleavage products by denaturing 20% 881 polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) and detected the bands with an Amersham Typhoon Imager 882 (GE Healthcare).

Data Availability

885 All sequencing data used for analysis in this study are available at ENA (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena>). 886 These data originated from published and yet unpublished studies covering adult and larval

887 schistosomes (Grevelding 1995; Protasio et al. 2012; Wang et al. 2013; Lu et al. 2016; Picard et al. 2016; 888 Lu et al. 2017; https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena). Sample types, strains, replicates, accession numbers and 889 references are listed in Supplementary Table 1. Further sequence information, as indicated in the text, 890 was obtained from WormBase ParaSite (version 15, October 2020; https://parasite.wormbase.org), 891 BioProject numbers: [PRJEA36577](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJEA36577) (*S. mansoni*), *S. rodhaini* (PRJEB526 - Republic of Burundi), 892 PRJNA520774 (HuSjv2, *S. japonicum)*, and PRJNA78265 (*S. haematobium*).

Author Contributions

895 M.S. and C.C. performed the bioinformatics analyses supported by advice and help from Z.L., J.B., and 896 A.G. J.O. and C.E.W. planned and performed the biochemical experiments with ribozymes and analysed 897 the data. C.G.G., C.G., and C.E.W. wrote the manuscript. C.G.G. and C.G. designed the study and 898 provided funding (FUGI). C.E.W. provided funds (DFG) for the ribozyme part.

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WE Transcript Profiles Across Different S. mansoni Strains, Life Stages, Sexes, and Gonads

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Active Hammerhead Ribozymes are Part of Autosomal WEs

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Page 41 of 44
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