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## **Temporal and spatial niche partitioning in a retrotransposon community of the**

## *Drosophila melanogaster* **genome**

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## **Abstract**

 Transposable elements (TEs) are genetic parasites that can potentially threaten the stability of the genomes they colonize. Nonetheless, TEs persist within genomes and are rarely fully eliminated, diverse TE species coexisting in various copy numbers. The TE replication strategies that enable host organisms to tolerate and accommodate the extensive diversity of TEs, while minimizing harm to the host and avoiding mutual competition among TEs, remain poorly understood. Here, by studying the spontaneous or experimental mobilization of four *Drosophila* LTR RetroTransposable Elements (LTR-RTEs), we reveal that, each of them preferentially targets open chromatin regions characterized by specific epigenetic features. Among these, gtwin and ZAM are expressed in distinct cell types within female somatic gonadal tissues and inserted into the distinct accessible chromatin landscapes of the corresponding stages of embryogenesis. These findings suggest that individual LTR-RTEs exploit unique biological niches, enabling their coexistence within the tightly regulated ecosystem of the same host genome.

## **Keywords**

Transposable elements, retrotransposons, genome, chromatin, epigenetics, infection, germline

## **Introduction**

 Proper development of multicellular organisms relies on the temporally and spatially regulated expression of genes encoded by the genome. However, not every DNA sequence, even if it can be expressed within a genome, contributes to the fitness of the organism. Some sequences, such as transposable elements (TEs) exhibit a self-serving behavior due to their ability to take advantage of the host proteins to favor their expression and transposition in various locations within the host genome. Thus, they can be considered as genomic parasites (1). This capacity to move within the genome can generate harmful mutations such as disruptions of coding sequences, impairment of gene regulation and chromosomal rearrangements by ectopic recombination (2), which may ultimately jeopardize the integrity of the host genome. This is particularly relevant considering that maintenance of TEs in a host organism throughout generations, requires that they reach the germline, the carrier of the heritable host genetic information. In this context, the key question is to determine how each TE has been able to tune up its replication cycle in order to prevent extinction of either the host or the TE (3). On the other hand, during evolution, several defense mechanisms have been developed by the host to keep replicative transposition rates at low levels allowing proper balance between host survival and TE maintenance. Some of the mechanisms affecting the level of TE transposition, involve, in the germline and surrounding somatic cells, a specific class of small regulatory RNAs known as Piwi-interacting RNAs (piRNAs), which, when associated with PIWI proteins, a subclass of Argonaute proteins, can hybridize with nascent or cytoplasmic TE transcripts. This specific targeting by the host defense machinery leads to the silencing of TEs, either transcriptionally (TGS) or post-44 transcriptionally (PTGS), respectively  $(4-7)$ .

 We assume that present-day TE landscapes likely result from evolution of a series of host-TE interactions, including transposition repression, that, together, prevented extinction of either the host or the TE (3, 8). On the TE-host side, we hypothesize that the coexistence of numerous TE species within the same host genome was made possible by the evolution of specific features in the replication cycle of each species, which has allowed them to persist without harming the host and/or competing with each other.

 As much as 20% of the *Drosophila melanogaster* genomic sequences derive from different classes of TEs (9). Within the same class, comparative analyses of conserved TE-encoding proteins have allowed their distribution into specific clades, each segregated into distinct species. For instance, comparative analyses of the conserved reverse transcriptase domain of Long Terminal Repeat-RetroTransposable Elements (LTR-RTEs), a class replicating via an RNA intermediate and representing about 10 % of the *Drosophila melanogaster* genome (9), revealed a distribution into three clades: Copia, BEL and Gypsy (10, 11). LTR-RTEs of the Copia and BEL clades encode a single open reading frame (ORF) and are represented by a few

 species. The much more expanded Gypsy clade, on the other hand, displays a stronger heterogeneity in coding sequence with LTR-RTE species encoding one, two or three ORFs (10, 11). Several studies, using various *Drosophila* strains, have revealed that the Gypsy clade species are not only genetically diversified but have also adopted distinct niches of expression. While some species within this clade are expressed in germline cells, like most TEs, the majority are specifically expressed in the somatic cells surrounding the germline (12). This unique replication strategy is linked to the acquisition, by their common ancestor, of an ORF encoding a viral-like envelope protein which enables these elements to infect the germline (10, 12). By uncoupling the site of expression (tolerant, differentiated gonadal somatic cells) from the site of integration (germline), this replication cycle is likely less harmful for the host germline, providing a possible explanation for the evolutionary success of this clade. Moreover, the high diversity existing between the gonadal somatic cell types that are potential sources of viral-like particles able to infect the germline, has been fully exploited for the wide evolutionary diversification of this clade. Indeed, each type of ovarian somatic cell seems to be adapted as a specific niche for the expression of a particular LTR-RTE species (12). This expression niche partitioning probably provided diverse unique environments where species can thrive without having to compete with each other.

 Similarly, the integration of TEs in eukaryotic genomes seems not random, indicating that several host-TE interactions have certainly been developed to allow such genome partitioning of TE insertions. Pioneering studies in the budding yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* have revealed how co-optation of distinct endogenous proteins as TE cofactors have notably driven insertion niche partitioning for several LTR-RTEs species. Indeed, it appears that the LTR-RTE Ty5 benefits from the interaction of its integrase with the heterochromatin protein Sir4 to preferentially integrate in subtelomeric regions. On the other hand, two distinct LTR-RTEs Ty1 and Ty3 rather integrate in non-essential multicopy genes transcribed by RNA PolIII such as tRNAs genes (13). Note, although they share the same global insertion environment, each of these elements has its own insertion site preference that is mainly dependent on the interaction of its 81 integrase with specific cellular cofactors (13).

 More recent data in *Drosophila melanogaster* suggest that TEs, which belong to distinct classes and differ by their transposition mechanism, generally share insertion preference for open chromatin regions (14, 15), 84 but display distinct insertion patterns. For example, the DNA transposon P-element favors integration of its 85 DNA in replication origins (14, 16), while RTEs integrate their cDNAs either near the promoters and exons 86 of active genes, for all LTR-RTEs species, or toward the telomere, for the non-LTR-RTE I-element (14). Whether integration preferences may also vary between the different species of the same LTR class and/or are influenced by specific cellular contexts are still open questions.

 Studying LTR-RTE ecology regarding not only the interactions between a TE species and its host but also between members of the whole community of TE species having colonized the same host, is therefore expected to provide further insights into the ways they have successfully invaded all present-day eukaryotic genomes.

 To investigate to what extent the active LTR-RTE species present in a same organism may differ in their replication cycles, we used a *Drosophila melanogaster* strain that we had previously constructed to impair the Piwi-mediated LTR-RTE repression specifically in the somatic tissue of the gonads (Supplementary 96 Figure S1) (17). This strain contains a traffic-jam-Gal $4/Ga180<sup>ts</sup>$  inducible driver which activates, at permissive temperature, the expression of a short RNA hairpin targeting Piwi (sh-piwi) in the gonadal somatic cells. This somatic knockdown (sKD) alleviates LTR-RTE repression in these cells without causing sterility (17). When females of this strain are transferred for 5 days from the 20°C non-permissive to the 25°C permissive temperature, they display a partial depletion of the Piwi protein in their ovarian somatic cells (piwi-sKD), leading to an accumulation of LTR-RTE transcripts in these cells. *De novo* germline insertions of two LTR-RTEs from the Gypsy clade, ZAM and gtwin, were detected in short-read genomic libraries from embryos sequenced two generations (F2) after piwi-sKD (Supplementary Figure S1) (17). As a proof of concept, we also demonstrated that this strain is a powerful tool for studying the accumulation of *de novo* germline insertions of at least ZAM and gtwin LTR-RTEs. At that time, it was illustrated by the increase in their copy number, approximately estimated by genomic PCR, following the application of piwi-sKD through successive generations up to generation 72.

 In the present study, by performing long-read sequencing of genomic DNA obtained from F2 male flies after 11, 31 and 73 generations of piwi-sKD, we were able to: (1) verify the increased numbers of new insertions for ZAM and gtwin across successive generations and also document new insertions for three other LTR-RTEs species, namely roo, copia and rover; (2) map enough new germinal insertions of four of these LTR-RTE species to reveal differences in their landing site preferences, particularly for distinct epigenetic marks associated with open chromatin. Furthermore, we highlighted that gtwin and ZAM replication cycles exhibit differences not only in their expression patterns but also in the timing of their integration into the different accessible chromatin landscapes of the developing embryonic germline, which could explain some of their site preferences. Our findings emphasize how, over the course of evolution, the diversity of the cell identities that different LTR-RTE species exploit for both expression and integration has facilitated their colonization of specific niches, enabling their coexistence within this ecosystem.

## **Materials and methods**

#### *Drosophila* **genotypes**

 As previously described (Supplementary Figure S1) (17), all flies used to determine LTR-RTE 123 mobilization and integration, shared the genotype of the founder G0 strain : *w*; tj-Gal4; tubP-Gal80<sup>*ts*</sup>, sh- *piwi*. The polymorphism of this strain had been partially reduced by isolating a single pair of parents, and 125 the strain was thereafter stably maintained at  $20^{\circ}$ C as a large population (more than 500 progenitors at each of the 100 successive generations of the G0F100 population). An independent subset of the G0 population was bred using more than 500 flies per generation, the temperature being raised at each generation from 128 20°C to 25°C for a 5-day period during the adult stage (Figure 1A). At the 11<sup>th</sup> (G11), 31<sup>th</sup> (G31) and 73<sup>rd</sup> 129 (G73) generation, a large subset of GnF1 progenitors (approximately 500 flies, from the n<sup>th</sup> generation of interest) of the treated population was isolated and maintained *en masse* at 20°C, the non-permissive temperature for piwi-sKD. A strain harboring the genotype: *w* ; *vas::EGFP* was also used (18). The *piwi-AID-GFP* strain was a generous gift of G. Hannon (19).

### **Oxford Nanopore Technology (ONT) Sequencing Data Analysis**

 As previously described (20), genomic DNA was extracted from 100 GnF2 males (Figure 1A), and long- read sequencing data were analyzed using the TrEMOLO software (v2.2) (21) with some modifications. To detect newly integrated transposable elements, we employed the OUTSIDER TE detection module with, 137 as a reference, the Dmel R6.32 reference genome from FlyBase (v.104). Settings parameters for size and identity were set at 80%. The LTR-RTE database was extracted from the collection of reference TEs from Bergman's laboratory [\(https://github.com/bergmanlab/transposons\)](https://github.com/bergmanlab/transposons). The quality of the reads is presented in Supplementary Table S1. According to (21), the sequencing depths of all libraries (except for that of the non polymorphic G0 strain) were estimated to be similar enough, to spare us from downsampling the largest ones (Supplementary Table S1). Frequency estimation was conducted using the TE analysis module of TrEMOLO (v2.5) and reads identified as clipped reads by TrEMOLO were excluded from the frequency calculation.

## **Annotation of false positive new insertions**

 The G0F100 library and the other libraries were respectively established with two populations that independently evolved from a shared G0 ancestor strain. Consequently, any insertion found in both the G0F100 and any other library was attributed to the G0 parental genome. This allowed us to annotate as false negative pre-existing insertions those that were likely missed in the low quality G0 parental library,

- characterized by low coverage and shorter reads. All annotations were performed on the Dmel\_R6.32 reference genome from FlyBase (v.104).
- **Annotation of newly integrated LTR-RTEs in piRNA clusters**
- The piRNA clusters were annotated on the Dmel\_R6.32 reference genome using the published databas[e](https://www.smallrnagroup.uni-mainz.de/piRNAclusterDB/data/FASTA/Drosophila_melanogaster.piRNAclusters.gtf) [https://www.smallrnagroup.uni-](https://www.smallrnagroup.uni-mainz.de/piRNAclusterDB/data/FASTA/Drosophila_melanogaster.piRNAclusters.gtf)
- [mainz.de/piRNAclusterDB/data/FASTA/Drosophila\\_melanogaster.piRNAclusters.gtf\)](https://www.smallrnagroup.uni-mainz.de/piRNAclusterDB/data/FASTA/Drosophila_melanogaster.piRNAclusters.gtf). Then a
- comparison between piRNA cluster coordinates and the LTR-RTE coordinates was used to determine the
- presence of new insertion in piRNA clusters.
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## **Small RNA purification and sequencing**

 Small RNAs from ovaries collected at permissive (25°C) and non-permissive (20°C) temperature, for Piwi- sKD, were isolated using TraPR ion exchange spin columns (Lexogen, Catalog Nr.128.08). The libraries were performed by MGX-Biocampus Montpellier plateform using the NEBNext® Small RNA Library Prep Set for Illumina® from NEB. The sequencing was performed on flow cell SP paired-end 28-90nt on NOVASEQ 6000 apparatus by MGX. Raw reads were trimmed from their 3′ linkers and loaded on a homemade pipeline available at [\(https://bitbucket.org/blaiseli/pirna-pipeline\)](https://bitbucket.org/blaiseli/pirna-pipeline) previously used (17). Briefly, trimmed reads (18–30nts in size) were mapped with Bowtie2 (22) using mismatch-tolerant settings to the *Drosophila melanogaster* genome (release 5; dm3) complemented with canonical TEs (*Drosophila*  consensus TE sequences taken from https:// github.com/cbergman/transposons). Reads were annotated based on their mapping coordinates. Small RNAs mapping on piRNA clusters (23), ovary siRNA clusters (24), TEs or 3′UTR of coding genes (ftp://ftp.flybase.net/), and not to rRNAs or miRNAs were defined. Candidate piRNAs were a subset of the above defined reads with a size between 23 and 30 nucleotides. Candidate piRNAs were mapped again on canonical TE sequences. Data were normalized using the total of piRNA reads.

## **Single-molecule inexpensive RNA fluorescence** *in situ* **hybridization (smiRNA-FISH) probe preparation**

 39-48 probes of 20 nucleotides targeting specifically ZAM, gtwin, roo or copia transcripts were designed using Oligostan script (25). Primary probes were produced in 96-well plates. For convenience, the oligonucleotides are delivered in Tris-EDTA pH 8.0 (TE) buffer, at final concentration of 100μM. An equimolar mixture of the different primary probes was prepared and diluted 5 times in TE buffer to obtain a final concentration of 0.833μM for each individual probe. Fluorescent labeled FLAP-X (5'-Cy3/CACT GAG TCC AGC TCG AAA CTT AGG AGG/Cy3-3' or FLAP-Y (5′-Cy3/AA TGC ATG TCG ACG AGG

TCC GAG TGT AA/Cy3-3′) were delivered lyophilized and resuspended in TE buffer at final concentration

- of 100μM. The reverse complement of each of these respective sequences was added at the 3'end of each
- specific probe (Supplementary Table S7). Annealing between specific probes and their respective FLAP
- was performed as previously described (25) and then diluted in hybridization buffer.
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## **smiFISH in ovaries and embryos**

 Ovaries were dissected in PBS1X and fixed during 20 minutes in PBS-Triton 0,3% (PBS-Tr) containing 4% formaldehyde. After several washes in PBS-Tr, ovaries were immersed in 100% methanol by successive baths in a PBS-Tr solution containing an increasing percentage of methanol. At this stage, ovaries can be kept in methanol at -20°C for several weeks. Embryos were collected and dechorionated in 2.6% bleach. They were rinsed extensively with water and fixed in 1:1 volume of fixative solution (4%Formaldehyde, KCl 60mM, Nacl 150mM, spermidine 0,5mM, Spermine 0,15mM, EDTA 2mM, EGTA 0,5mM, PIPES 15mM) and heptane for 25min at room temperature with agitation. Upon removal of the aqueous phase, an equal volume of 100% methanol was added before a vortexing for 1 min. Devitellinized embryos were collected from the methanol phase and then washed 3 times with 100% methanol. At this stage, embryos can be kept in methanol at -20°C for several weeks. Fixed embryos or ovaries were first washed twice in 50% methanol/50% ethanol for 5 minutes, rinsed twice in 100% ethanol and then washed two times in 100% ethanol for 5 minutes. They were incubated in blocking buffer (PBS 1X, tween 0,1%, RNAsin, BSA 202 0,2mg/mL in nuclease-free H<sub>2</sub>O) for 1 hour (a wash every 15 minutes) and once in wash buffer (SSC 2X, 203 deionized formamide 10%, H2O in nuclease-free H<sub>2</sub>O) before the O/N incubation at  $37^{\circ}$ C at 350 rpm with smiFISH probes (Supplementary Table 6) and either an anti-Rat Vasa antibody (DHSB, 1:120) or a Guinea Pig traffic jam antibody (gift from D. Godt (26), Toronto, 1: 120) diluted in the hybridization buffer (10% deionized formamide, 2X SSC, 100mg tRNA, 5% dextran sulfate, 2mM VRC (NEB), 0,2mg/mL BSA). Subsequently, embryos/ovaries were washed with a wash buffer twice for 1 hour at 37°C and once for 1 hour at room temperature. Embryos were transferred in PBS, 0,1% Tween (PBT), 10% donkey serum and either Donkey anti Rat Alexa 488 (Molecular probes) or Donkey anti Guinea Pig Alexa 594 (Molecular probes) was added at 1:500 dilution. After several washes in PBT and DAPI staining, embryos/ovaries were mounted in ProLong Gold Antifade mounting medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific). smiFISH coupled with vasa immunostaining was imaged with LSM 880 with SR Airyscan module (Zeiss) using 40X/1.4 N.A objective. Airyscan processing was performed using 2D Zen Black v3.2 (Zeiss) prior to analysis. smiFISH coupled with traffic jam immunostaining was imaged with Leica SP8 confocal microscope equipped with 40X/1.4 N.A objectives. Image acquisition was done with the following settings: 2048x2048 pixels or 1024x1024 pixels, 16-bit depth.

#### **Immunofluorescence on** *Drosophila* **embryos**

 We performed double immunostaining on fixed embryos, from a cross between females of the G73 population and males expressing Piwi coupled to GFP (19), with a mouse anti-traffic jam antibody (M. Siomi, NIG-Fly) and a rabbit anti-GFP antibody (Abcam, ab290). Fixed embryos stored in 100% methanol 222 were successively incubated during 15 min in 90/10, 70/30, 50/50 and 30/70 percent methanol/PBT. They were permeabilized with PBS-Tr for 30 min and blocked in a PBS-Tr solution containing 10% NDS (Normal Donkey Serum) for 1 hour. Embryos were incubated overnight at 4°C on a rotating wheel with PBSTr-10% NDS containing the two primary antibodies diluted 1:500. After several washes in PBS-Tr, embryos were incubated during 45 min at room temperature with PBS-Tr-10%NDS containing an anti- mouse-Cy5 (Jackson laboratories,715.175.150) diluted 1:500 and an anti-rabbit Alexa 488 (Molecular probes) diluted 1:800. After several washes in PBS-Tr, DNA was counterstained with DAPI, and embryos were mounted in Prolong Antifade medium (Molecular Probes). Immunostaining was imaged with LSM 880 with SR Airyscan module (Zeiss) using 40X/1.4 N.A objective. Airyscan processing was performed using 2D Zen Black v3.2 (Zeiss) prior to analysis. Image acquisition was done with the following settings: 2000x2000 pixels, 16-bit depth.

### **Clustering**

 Raw data from ModENCODE Chip-seq experiments (27) performed on 14-16h embryos (Supplementary Table S6) were analyzed to generate BigWig files using deepTools (v3.5.4.post1) bamcoverage package with default parameters, excluding regions (-bl) identified as blacklisted in dm6 (27). bigwigAverage from deepTools (v3.5.4.post1) package was then used to average duplicates. Then, the bigwigCompare package from deepTools (v3.5.4.post1) was used to obtain the log2 ratio BigWig file between the Chip-seq averaged BigWig and the Input average BigWig. From this, the enrichment signal of the histone modifications H3K4me3, H3K9ac, H3K36me3, H3K27ac, H3K4me1, H3K36me1, H3K27me3, H3K9me2 and H3K9me3 on 5kb windows were computed across the *Drosophila melanogaster* genome (BDGP6.46) using the computeMatrix Package from deepTools (v3.5.4.post1) with scale-regions mode and the the (-- averageTypeBins) option with a 50 bp interval. The clustering was performed to generate 8 clusters using the plotHeatMap package from deepTools (v3.5.4.post1) using the option (--kmeans).

## **Distribution of LTR-RTEs insertions relative to genomic features and chromatin states**

 Using the chromosomal gene and exons annotations of *Drosophila melanogaster* genome (BDGP6.46) available on Ensembl Biomart (28) except for the Y chromosome, we partitioned the genome in three mutually exclusive regions corresponding to exons, introns and intergenic regions. Exons were already annotated in a bed file (28). Introns were defined as genomic regions that are present in the gene bed file

 and which are not in the exon bed file. Intergenic regions are defined as genomic regions that do not overlap with the gene bed file. Using this partition and our annotations of LTR-RTEs insertion sites, we then determined the number of copia, roo, gtwin and ZAM insertions occurring in these three categories of genomic regions (Supplementary Table S5). To determine whether a specific structure (Intergenic, Intron and Exon) is enriched or depleted for insertions of each considered LTR-RTE, bilateral binomial statistical tests were performed. To do so, the size of each structure relative to the genome was computed using bedtools genomecov (29) default parameters, defining the relative size of intergenic regions (pig=0.314359), introns (pin=0.418317) and exons (pex=0.267325) (Supplementary Table S5). Null hypothesis corresponds to the probability for each LTR-RTE species to be inserted in each defined structure due to its proportion in the genome. We used the Benjamini-Hochberg step up procedure to control the false discovery rate (FDR), which is defined as the expected value of the proportion of erroneous rejection of the null hypothesis when conducting multiple comparisons.

 Chromatin state annotations previously published (30) based on dm3 genome version were transformed to the latest version (Dmel\_R6.32) using liftOver tool (31). As for genomic features, the genomic proportion of each chromatin state or identified cluster was computed using bedtools genomecov (29) default parameters (Supplementary Table S5). Significant enrichment or depletion of LTR-RTE insertions in the different chromatin states and clusters were calculated using bilateral binomial statistical test considering the null hypothesis as the probability of insertion in a given state for each LTR-RTE species to be equal to the relative size of this state within the genome. As in the previous part, we used the Benjamini-Hochberg step up procedure to control the false discovery rate (FDR).

#### **Analysis of ATAC-seq and ChIP-seq available datasets**

 Raw data from published ATAC-seq and ChIP-seq experiments (Supplementary Table S6) were analyzed to generate BigWig files using deepTools (v3.5.4.post1) bamcoverage package with default parameters, excluding regions (-bl) identified as blacklisted in dm6 (27). BigWig files were first used with the ComputeMatrix package with reference-point mode from deepTools to filter and sort regions based on their scores in order to compute signal distributions centered on the LTR-RTE insertion sites in a region spanning 2kb upstream and downstream of the insertion. The mean number of reads across the 4kb window was calculated using the (--averageTypeBins) option from ComputeMatrix, with a 50bp interval. On the other hand, BigWig files were converted into BedGraph format using the UCSC tool bigWigToBedGraph (32). macs2 (v2.2.7.1) bdgpeakcall package (33) was used to perform a peak calling to generate bedfiles with the following parameters: (--cutoff) manually set; (--min-length) 60 and (--max-gap) 150. For the transcription factors ChIP-seq (Supplementary Table S6), a consensus bed file was created by keeping only overlapping 285 regions from the different replicates using bedtools intersect  $(v2.27.1)$  (29). Random profile was generated

- using 100 random profiles each corresponding to an average profile obtained from 100 random positions
- (4kb window). We used ComputeMatrix with reference-point mode from deepTools as described above.
- PlotProfile with the (--outFileNameData) option was used to obtain each distribution of the average read
- number for the 100\*100 randomly selected positions generated bed files. Finally, the mean number of read
- matrix was computed and used with deepTools plotProfile for visualization.
- 

## **Statistical analysis of available sci-ATAC-seq datasets**

- BigWig files normalized by Counts Per Million (CPM) from the sci-ATAC-seq atlas previously published (34) were analyzed based on two criteria: they must represent an identified cell type and cover at least 70% of genomic data. ComputeMatrix package was used to assess the average chromatin accessibility around the 210 insertions of gtwin and the 101 insertions of ZAM as previously described. To determine the number of gtwin insertions shared between the first four clusters found in the 0-2 hour window of embryonic development, bed files were created as described before and visualized with a Venn Diagram.
- To analyze globally chromatin accessibility throughout the 8 time windows of embryonic development, sci-ATAC-seq signals (200 bp window) centered around ZAM or gtwin insertions were averaged for each defined cluster of each time window. The same technique was applied to 100 randomly selected regions of a 200 bp window. Ratios between the average sci-ATAC-seq ZAM (or gtwin) signals and random ones result in a single data per cluster in a defined time window. Data corresponding to the same time window were used to generate boxplots and statistical analysis.
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## **Isolation of embryonic cells and cell sorting by flow cytometry**

 The embryonic cells were isolated as previously described (35). Briefly, overnight laid embryos from *vas*::EGFP line (18) were collected at 25°C and dechorionated in 2.6% bleach. Dechorionated embryos (i.e 400 mg) were transferred in a 7 mL Tenbroeck tissue grinder WHEATON™ filled with 6 mL of Schneider's insect medium for homogenization with 2 slow strokes before a 700g centrifugation for 10 minutes at 4°C. The pellet was resuspended in 4 mL of PBS 1X containing 0.1% of Trypsin-EDTA and incubated at room temperature for 20 minutes. The addition of 4 mL of ice-cold PBS 1X containing 20% fetal bovine serum is sufficient to stop Trypsin reaction before a 700g centrifugation for 10 minutes at 4°C. Pellet containing separated embryonic cells was resuspended in Schneider's insect medium (2mL) and filtered in a 40µm 315 mesh before the addition of 1 mL of Schneider's insect medium. A final filtration in a 20µm mesh was performed before cell sorting by flow cytometry. Embryonic cellular samples were analyzed using a 4- Laser-V16-B14-R8YG10 Aurora spectral cell sorter (Cytek, Biosciences, USA) to sort GFP-positive Primordial germ cells (PGC) from GFP negative somatic cells through a measurement of complete fluorescence spectrum of individual cells. GFP signal was determined by a 488 nm excitation line and

320 detected in its full spectrum emission with B1 as peak channel (498nm-518nm). 2.5 x  $10^5$  events were recorded per sample and analyzed using the SpectroFlo software version 1.2.1 (Cytek, Biosciences USA). To define and sort the target cell populations (GFP-positive cells), three successive steps of gating were applied. First, cells were gated using the two physical parameters FSC and SSC excluding dead cells and debris. Second, doublets were excluded by comparing the width versus the area of SSC and FSC. Finally, FSC dot plot and GFP signal reported as percentage in positive or negative cells were used to gate and sort 326 the two populations. Live cell sorting experiments were performed at  $4^{\circ}$ C with a 70 $\mu$ m nozzle that allows 327 sorting at high speed  $(2 \times 10^4$  events per second). Sorted cells were collected into PBS containing 20% of Fetal Bovine serum (FBS) prior to a final centrifugation at 700g at 4°C and a -80°C freezing in DMSO supplemented with FBS.

## **ATAC-Seq experiments and analysis**

 ATAC-Seq experiments were performed using the ATAC-Seq kit from Diagenode (catalogue no. C01080002). Input material was between 100,000 to 130,000 cryopreserved PGCs (GFP-positive) cells isolated from whole embryos. Tagmentated DNA was amplified by PCR using 13 cycles and the purified DNA libraries were sequenced (paired-end sequencing 150 bp, roughly 2 Gb per sample) by Novogene [\(https://en.novogene.com/\)](https://en.novogene.com/). ATAC-Seq were performed in duplicates, following Encode's standards [\(https://www.encodeproject.org/atac-seq/#standards\)](https://www.encodeproject.org/atac-seq/#standards). After initial quality checks of the sequencing data from the PGC (GFP positive cells) and the somatic cells (GFP negative cells) using FastQC (v0.12.1), the 339 adapters (CTGTCTCTTATACACATCTNNNNNNNN) were trimmed using cutadapt (v4.2). Cleared reads 340 were aligned to the *Drosophila* genome (Dmel R6.32 release) using bowtie2 (v2.5.1). Duplicate alignments were removed using the fixmate and markdup packages of samtools (v1.17). The read coverage normalized by RPKM (--normalizeUsing) were computed using bamCoverage package from deepTools (v3.5.4.post1) with default parameters, excluding regions (-bl) identified as blacklisted in dm6. Chromatin accessibility averages for the duplicates were calculated using the bigwigAverage tool from deepTools package (v3.5.4.post1) to generate an averaged bedgraph. The chromatin accessibility in a region spanning 2kb upstream and downstream of ZAM insertions and 100 random genomic positions were computed with the ComputeMatrix package from deepTools as described above. The mean signal obtained from the duplicate was then computed using Matlab (R2024). To perform a peak calling, the BigWig files were converted into BedGraph files using USCS tool bigWigToBedGraph (32). The peak calling was then computed using macs2 (v2.2.7.1) bdgpeakcall package (33) with the following parameters: (--cutoff) manually set; (--min- length) 60 and (--max-gap) 150. The bedtool subtract package (29) was used to identify the genomic regions that are only open in the PGC (GFP positive) cells using the bed file generated using the sequencing of the somatic cells (GFP negative). To determine the number of gtwin insertions shared between the first four

- clusters found in the 0-2 hour window of embryonic development and the PGC, bed files were created as described before and visualized with a Venn Diagram (Supplementary Table S8).
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### **Statistical analyses and visualization**

Statistics and data visualization were performed using the ggplot2 (v3.4.3) and eulerr (v7.0.2)

libraries[\(https://ggplot2.tidyverse.org\)](https://ggplot2.tidyverse.org/) on R (v4.3.1) [\(https://www.R-project.org/\)](https://www.r-project.org/) and Matlab (R2024).

- Cytoscape (v3.10.1) (36) was used to create a graph.
- 

## **Results**

#### **Four LTR-RTEs exhibit transcriptional and insertional activity across successive generations**

 Our previous qPCR analysis suggested a progressive genomic copy number increase of two LTR-RTEs, ZAM and gtwin, after 30, 41, and 72 successive generations of conditional piwi-sKD (i.e G30, G41, and G72)(17). For these experiments, genomic DNA was extracted from second filial generation (F2) embryos 367 laid by flies reared at a non-permissive temperature  $(20^{\circ}C)$ , which allows somatic Piwi expression, while their grandparents had been exposed to a permissive (25°C) that impairs Piwi expression (Supplementary Figure S1) (17). In the present study, we employed long-read genomic sequencing to provide a comprehensive analysis of LTR-RTE genomic insertions. Genomic DNA was extracted from 100 adult males of F2 progenies from the G11, G31, or G73 populations (Figure 1A; Supplementary Table S1). Additionally, we sequenced the genome of the original G0 strain, and a G0-derived strain that had been 373 maintained at 20°C for 100 generations (G0F100).

- To annotate LTR-RTE genomic insertions, we employed the TrEMOLO method, recently developed by our group (21). Comparisons of annotated insertions for G11, G31, G73, with the parental G0 strain revealed 280, 514, and 798 novel LTR-RTE insertions, respectively, spanning 43 distinct LTR-RTE species (Figure 1B; Supplementary Table S2). Notably, the number of genomic insertions of ZAM and gtwin increased significantly and constantly from G11 to G73 (Figure 1B), which is in line with our previous findings (17). The number of copia insertions also increased but at a slower rate compared to ZAM and gtwin. Insertions of roo and rover increased between G11 and G31 but remained relatively stable thereafter (Supplementary Table S2 ; Figure 1B). Interestingly, the number of insertions for copia*,* roo*,* and rover also increased in the G0F100 strain, which was continuously reared at 20°C. This observation suggests that these three species can transpose spontaneously in our strain, independently of the piwi-sKD treatment
- (Figure 1B).

 Some of these spontaneous insertions may have occurred during the development of F2 males raised at  $20^{\circ}$ C, possibly in their somatic cells. The case of rover supports this hypothesis, as the frequency of new rover insertions remained consistently very low (Supplementary Table S3) and no evidence of vertical transmission was observed. Indeed, unlike certain copia and roo insertions, which were shared between small samples of sequenced genomes and likely represent germline-inherited insertions, no single rover insertion was detected at the same genomic position in at least two samples (Supplementary Table S4). Based on these data, we concluded that ZAM, gtwin, roo, and copia, produced new germinal insertions that were vertically transmitted to the analyzed males.

 To confirm the induced derepression of ZAM and gtwin and the spontaneous expression of copia and roo under piwi-sKD conditions, we analyzed the impact of piwi-sKD on piRNA levels in fly samples. We hypothesized that under permissive conditions for piwi-sKD, not only would Piwi levels decrease, as previously shown (17), but the levels of antisense piRNAs targeting the induced species (ZAM and gtwin) would also be reduced, while those targeting the non-induced species (copia and roo) would remain unaffected. To test this, we performed small RNA sequencing to compare antisense piRNA levels against 399 these four species in G0F100 ovaries under permissive  $25^{\circ}$ C and non-permissive  $20^{\circ}$ C conditions. We observed that the levels of copia and roo piRNAs were slighty increased after Piwi depletion for unknown reasons. In contrast, the levels of ZAM and gtwin piRNAs were drastically reduced by 5- and 6-fold, respectively (Figure 1C).

 We next conducted single molecule inexpensive fluorescent *in situ* RNA hybridization (smiRNA-FISH) to examine LTR-RTE expression levels in the ovaries at 20°C and 25°C (Figure 1D). Interestingly, our analysis revealed that roo and copia transcripts were detected in the ovaries regardless of temperature (Figure 1D). The roo transcripts accumulated in the oocyte cytoplasm at both temperatures, as it has been previously observed for transcripts of the LINE-RTE I-element (37, 38). The copia transcripts were detected in the nuclei of the follicle cells. Contrary to roo and copia, ZAM and gtwin are clearly not expressed in the 409 ovaries at 20 $\degree$ C but start to express in the follicle cells of the ovaries at 25 $\degree$ C when Piwi is depleted (Figure 410 1D). ZAM expression is restricted to the posterior follicle cells as previously reported (12, 39), whereas gtwin seems to have a broader expression pattern throughout the follicle epithelium (Figure 1D). Overall, our approach enabled us to accumulate a substantial number of new germline insertions for four actively transposing LTR-RTEs (ZAM, gtwin, roo, and copia) and to observe that each appears to occupy a distinct expression niche within the ovary.

#### **Distinct chromatin niches for genomic insertions of four LTR-RTEs**

We next investigated potential biases in the genomic insertion sites of the four LTR-RTEs. For this analysis,

we selected the G73 sequence dataset due to its higher number of insertions compared to other datasets.

 Since we worked with large populations of flies harboring polymorphic LTR-RTEs insertions, selection could have favored the survival of individuals with beneficial insertions, potentially at the expense of those with neutral or deleterious ones. To test for evidence of positive selection, we first estimated the frequency of each new insertion in the G73 population using our lond read-sequencing data. Our analysis revealed 423 that most insertions were segregating at low frequencies in the population (Supplementary Figure S2A). The few insertions detected at high frequencies warrant further study. We then focused on another possible signature of positive selection: the integration of LTR-RTE into piRNA clusters. Indeed, among the new insertions, those occurring in piRNA clusters are of particular interest, as these regions are known to act as sources of piRNAs (4, 40). Such insertions are expected to influence the piRNA population, favoring the production of piRNAs that silence the expression of the corresponding TE. However, as shown in Supplementary Figure S2B, none of the 17 new insertions identified in annotated piRNA clusters appeared significantly more frequent than the others (Supplementary Figure S2C).

 Moreover, purifying selection is also known to be stronger against insertions into genes, and even more into coding sequences, than into intergenic regions. To determine the distribution of newly integrated LTR- RTEs, we partitioned the *D. melanogaster* genome into intergenic, intronic, and exonic regions, and 434 quantified the number of LTR-RTE insertions within each category (Figure 2A). As a reference, "expected" values correspond to the proportional sizes of these three genomic bins (Supplementary Table S5). The number of LTR-RTE insertions in the G73 dataset was then distributed according to these proportions. For example, the "observed" number of intronic insertions for gtwin slightly but significantly exceeded the "expected" values, whereas the "observed" number of exonic insertions for gtwin were correspondingly lower than the "expected" values. Similar trends were observed for the other three LTR-RTEs. Interestingly, the levels of this exonic depletion were always much lower than those previously noticed for older germline insertions that had been subjected to long periods of purifying selection in natural populations (41). Instead, the observed patterns in our G73 dataset were more reminiscent of those of recent insertions that would not have yet been eliminated by purifying selection (14).

 Given the observation that natural selection does not appear to have significantly influenced the distribution of LTR-RTEs in our G73 population, we decided to investigate whether specific chromatin landscapes could define the localization of each of the four LTR-RTEs within the genome. Using chromatin immunoprecipitation sequencing (ChIP-seq) dataset from *Drosophila* embryos at 14–16 hours post-egg- laying (AEL) provided by ModEncode (Supplementary Table S6), we classified the genome into clusters. This classification was conducted across 5 kb genomic windows, following previously established methods in S2 cells (30). As a result, eight distinct clusters were identified, each defined by unique epigenetic profiles (Figure 2B). The distribution of the four LTR-RTE insertions in the G73 genome was analyzed in relation to the proportion of the genome occupied by each chromatin cluster (Supplementary Table S5). Genomic

 insertions of all four LTR-RTEs were detected across all clusters; however, significant enrichment was observed in clusters 1–4 (Figure 2C). These clusters are characterized by histone marks commonly associated with open chromatin, including H3K4me1, H3K9ac, and H3K27ac. Notably, each LTR-RTE exhibited a distinct distribution pattern. Gtwin showed pronounced enrichment in clusters 1 and 3, while copia displayed marked enrichment in cluster 3. In contrast, roo and ZAM displayed a weak preference for cluster 4. This chromatin niches partitioning was confirmed by analyzing the chromatin states defined in S2 cells (30) (Supplmentary Figure S3).

#### **Gtwin and ZAM exhibit distinct timing of genomic insertion during embryogenesis**

 To investigate the timing of the LTR-RTE genomic insertions during development, we focused on the sequences of events from oogenesis to embryogenesis. Oocytes undergo meiosis, and arrest at metaphase I during the final stages of oogenesis. Upon ovulation, the oocytes are released into the oviduct, where they become activated (42) (Figure 3A). This activation involves the resumption of meiosis, fertilization, and the initiation of embryogenesis. Previous studies have shown that gypsy/mdg4, an infectious, enveloped LTR-RTE belonging to the Gypsy clade, is expressed in follicular cells during oogenesis. However, its insertion into the germline genome occurs later, during embryogenesis (43). This was further supported by the rescue of the *ovoD1* mutant phenotype, which was linked to the insertion of gypsy/mdg4 into the paternal allele of *ovoD1* (44). Given these prior findings, and the facts that both gtwin and ZAM are enveloped similar to gypsy/mdg4, we hypothesized that integration of gtwin and ZAM may also occur during embryogenesis. To test this hypothesis, we sought to determine the specific stage of embryonic development during which gtwin and ZAM insertions occur. To this end, we reanalyzed single-cell ATAC- seq (sci-ATAC-seq) data from embryos spanning 0 to 16 hours AEL (34). We calculated the average chromatin accessibility within a 200 bp window centered on the gtwin or ZAM insertion sites, normalizing these values to signals from 100 randomly selected genomic regions. Our analysis revealed significant enrichment of gtwin insertion sites in open chromatin across all studied time windows, including the 14-16 h AEL window (Figure 3B), which is consistent with our previous analysis performed on 14-16h whole embryos (Figures 2B and 2C). This analysis further demonstrates that gtwin insertions are also enriched in open chromatin as early as the 0-2 h AEL window (Figure 3B). During this early stage, the embryo consists of undifferentiated syncytial nuclei, with only primordial germ cells (PGCs) beginning to cellularize and specify (Figure 3A). For ZAM insertion sites, chromatin accessibility was consistently lower than that of gtwin across all time windows. However, accessibility gradually increased throughout embryogenesis, with a marked enrichment observed during the 10-16 h AEL window (Figure 3B). At this stage, PGCs are identified (Figure 3A), suggesting that ZAM integration may occur in PGCs. To investigate this possibility, we performed ATAC-seq experiments on purified PGCs. Using a *Drosophila* strain expressing GFP-Vasa

 (39), we separated GFP-positive PGCs and GFP-negative somatic cells from overnight egg collection by fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) (40). ATAC-seq was performed in duplicate for both cell types. We then analyzed the averaged ATAC-seq signals within a 4 kb window centered on 101 ZAM insertion sites and compared these profiles to 100 randomly selected 4 kb genomic regions in the same cell types. As expected, the averaged ATAC-seq profiles showed a distinct peak centered on the ZAM insertion site, with the signal being more pronounced in PGCs than in somatic cells (Figure 3C). This observation indicates that ZAM insertion sites are associated with open chromatin in PGCs compared to somatic cells. Taken together, these findings suggest that gtwin and ZAM genomic insertions occur at distinct, but not mutually exclusive, stages of embryogenesis.

 Additionally, we investigated whether the number of ZAM and gtwin insertions into open chromatin regions in early embryos (AEL 0-2 hr) and PGCs deviated significantly from the expected values. The expected values were calculated based on the relative size of open chromatin regions identified in the two experiments described above, compared to the whole genome (Supplementary Table S8). Insertions were then classified into three categories: embryo-specific open chromatins, PGC-specific open chromatins, and regions shared by both (Figure 3D). Gtwin insertions were found to be significantly enriched in embryo- specific and shared open chromatin regions (Figure 3D, left), while the ZAM insertions were predominantly located in PGC-specific open chromatin regions (Figure 3D, right). To refine this analysis, we isolated the PGC-specific chromatin accessibility profile (ATAC-seq PGC unique) by subtracting the ATAC-seq signal of GFP-negative somatic cells from the PGC signal of late embryos (Supplementary Table S8). This revealed that a subset of ZAM insertions were specific to late embryonic PGCs, whereas gtwin insertions were more enriched in the earlier developmental window (Figure 3D, right panel). These findings indicate a distinct distribution of ZAM and gtwin insertions within open chromatin during embryogenesis.

## **Gtwin preferentially inserts into the open chromatin before cellularization**

 To better understand the timing of gtwin insertion during germline specification, we analyzed the sci- ATAC-seq data of 0-2 hours embryos (34). In this early time window, the data revealed four distinct groups of nuclei, each characterized by unique chromatin accessibility landscapes. We calculated the average chromatin accessibility within a 4 kb window surrounding the gtwin insertion sites belonging to each cluster. Across all clusters, gtwin insertion sites were predominantly localized within open chromatin regions. In contrast, as anticipated, ZAM insertion sites were not enriched in open chromatin at this stage (Figure 4A). Peak-calling identified 76 gtwin insertions in at least one of these clusters, with 25 of them significantly enriched in all four clusters (Figure 4B). These findings suggest that most gtwin insertions occur early in embryogenesis, likely before the differentiation of nuclear clusters and likely before germ  cell specification (45). The early open chromatin state in which gtwin insertions are observed is characterized by low nucleosome occupancy and minimum higher-order chromatin structure, features typically associated with pioneer transcription factor binding. Pioneer factors can overcome nucleosome barriers and establish accessibility of cis-regulatory elements to transcription factors at a crucial step for cellular differentiation (46, 47). To identify whether specific pioneer factors are associated with gtwin insertions, we analyzed ChIP-seq data from stage 5 embryos for four known pioneer factors; GAGA Factor (GAF), Opa, Chromatin-linked Adaptor for MSL proteins (CLAMP), and Zelda (48–50). Among the 84 gtwin insertions located in open chromatin regions of stage 5 embryos, 69 were bound by at least one of these pioneer factors. However, no single factor predominated, with GAF, Opa, CLAMP, and Zelda binding sites corresponding to 32, 24, 6, and 7, respectively. These results suggest that chromatin accessibility, rather than the specific binding of pioneer factors, is the key determinant of gtwin insertion site selection during early embryogenesis.

## **Late ZAM insertion sites correlate with late ZAM embryonic expression**

 Two hypotheses could explain the late germline genomic insertion of ZAM. The first hypothesis is that the germ cells infected by ZAM particles during oogenesis remain dormant during early embryogenesis. The second hypothesis postulates the expression of a "second-wave" of ZAM, potentially facilitated by the permissive 25°C temperature at which piwi-sKD is possible. To test this possibility, we combined ZAM smiFISH and germline-specific vasa immunostaining on late embryos. High expression of ZAM was observed in the gonads of embryos laid at 25°C but not at 20°C (Figure 5A). At these late stages of embryogenesis, the PGCs have migrated away from the midgut toward the adjacent mesoderm and have become associated with somatic gonadal precursors (SGPs) (45, 51) that express traffic jam (tj) (52). As expected, ZAM expression was specifically detected in the tj*-*positive cells at 25°C (Figure 5B). Additionally, zygotically expressed Piwi levels were lower at 25°C compared to 20°C, as anticipated (Figure 5C). Overall, these analyses show that ZAM is expressed in tj-positive SGPs cells in embryogenesis and is sensitive to Piwi depletion. Collectively, these results suggest that ZAM insertion sites correlate with a specific chromatin accessibility landscape in late PGCs. We propose that somatic ZAM expression leads to PGC infection, with ZAM invading open genomic regions in late-stage PGCs.

## **Discussion**

 Transposable elements may alternate rapid bursts of activity and prolonged phases of repression during which their replication within the host genome is limited (53). The interactions observed today between TEs and their host genomes, as well as among TEs themselves, likely reflect the outcomes of extensive co evolution. This process has enabled the coexistence of several TE species within the same genome while minimizing detrimental impacts on the host. In an attempt to describe the diversity of these interactions, we took advantage of a particular *Drosophila melanogaster* laboratory strain (17) to simultaneously impair the repression of several LTR-RTEs. We observed the efficient germline transposition of four active elements (roo, copia, gtwin and ZAM). This approach revealed the existence of two distinct categories of LTR-RTEs: ZAM and gtwin, on one hand, whose transposition is induced by the depletion of Piwi in gonadal somatic tissues (Piwi-sKD), and roo and copia, on the other hand, whose activity is independent of this treatment and which transpose spontaneously, even in the presence of Piwi. We found that they all displayed distinct characteristics at various stages of their replication cycles, as follows.

 Regarding expression, we observed cell-type-specific patterns for all four elements. For example, roo transcripts were exclusively expressed in the germinal nurse cells, whereas ZAM, gtwin, and copia were transcribed in various somatic follicular epithelial cells. Specifically, ZAM was predominantly expressed at the posterior pole, gtwin was ubiquitously transcribed, and copia transcripts were expressed throughout the follicular epithelium but sequestered into nuclei. Additionally, ZAM displayed a second somatic expression window in the SGPs of late embryonic gonads, emphasizing its distinct temporal and spatial regulation. Concerning the integration step, our approach was based on characterization of the overall epigenetic specificity of their genomic insertion sites. While all four elements predominantly inserted into regions of open chromatin (clusters 1 to 4), each displayed distinct preferences for specific chromatin clusters associated with different histone modifications. Gtwin showed significant enrichment in clusters 1 and 3, which are associated with the histone modifications H3K4me3 in cluster 1 and H3K27ac and H3K4me1 in cluster 3. Copia was enriched in cluster 3, whereas roo and ZAM exhibited a preference for cluster 4, which is characterized by open chromatin but lacks a distinct enrichment for specific histone modifications (Figure 2C).

 Moreover, our data indicated that the preference for specific genomic insertion sites may follow the differentiation of the chromatin landscape of the cells that are invaded by gtwin and ZAM at different stages of the embryonic development. Indeed, for maternally deposited gtwin, a significant proportion of the insertions seemed to have occurred as soon as their landing sites had begun accessible, at the very beginning of embryogenesis. Conversely, consistent with the late embryonic wave of ZAM somatic expression, several ZAM insertions were located within different open chromatin regions that were accessible only in late embryonic germ cells. However, although the insertion of a LTR-RTE into closed chromatin is generally considered unlikely, it cannot be entirely ruled out. Therefore, we cannot exclude the possibility that some maternally deposited ZAM virus-like particles would have driven integration at early stages into close chromatin landing sites that would open later in the gonadic PGCs. Altogether, our findings disclosed  a novel level of LTR-RTE niche partitioning, linking temporal and spatial features of the integration step of the replication cycle.

#### **Further evidence for diversity of expression and integration niches**

 The diversity of ovarian expression patterns reported here (Figure 1D) has also been observed recently for 16 species of evolutionarily related LTR-RTEs (12). These different patterns in the onset of the replication cycles of this class, indicate that each LTR-RTE species has evolved specific host-TE interactions, hijacking tissue-specific transcription factors to adapt their proper expression niche to a specific cell type of the ovary. In our study, we identified a novel cell type in which ZAM is also expressed, the SGPs of late embryonic gonads. Future experiments will be necessary to determine whether the transcription factor called Pointed, which drives ZAM transcription in the posterior part of the ovarian follicular cells (54, 55), is also responsible for its expression in the SGPs.

- In our study, we also revealed a novel level of LTR-RTE niche partitioning, at the integration step of the replication cycle. It is well-documented that different TE species, belonging to various classes, exhibit diverse target site preferences due to distinct transposition mechanisms. For example, DNA transposons, like the P-element, manage to create new copies by integrating near the replication origins of the *Drosophila*  genome (14, 16), whereas retrotransposons Ty1 and Ty3 specifically insert into Pol III promoters of *S. cerevisiae* (13, 56). Recently, it has been suggested that LTR-RTEs are rather attracted by open chromatin of active genes, whereas LINE elements, such as the I-element, target AT-rich sites and tend to integrate near telomeres (14). These TE-specific host affinities have been described to depend on the enzymes driving their integration such as transposases and integrases. We found here that even LTR-RTEs of the same class, despite using the same integration mechanism, preferentially integrate into open chromatin domains harboring distinct chromatin features (Figure 2C). This finding suggests that each LTR-RTE species has evolved specific interactions between its integrase and host co-factors (DNA- and/or chromatin-binding proteins) providing different affinities for specific genetic and epigenetic marks.
- Note that, although specific for each LTR-RTE, their preferred epigenetic landscapes share a common feature, open chromatin, a permissive location for subsequent efficient transcription. These similarities might be considered as cases of concerted evolution by sharing general molecular mechanisms of targeting. A famous mechanism of decompacted chromatin targeting operates *via* the histone H4 tail that can no longer be targeted by HIV when embedded in closed chromatin (57, 58).
- Our data also suggest that the specific integration of LTR-RTEs into distinct epigenetically defined domains might, at least partly, result from different integration timings during development. Strikingly, gtwin and

 ZAM landing site landscapes correlated with chromatin accessibility data sets extracted from early and late stages of embryogenesis, respectively. The hypothesis, assuming replication cycles with different timings of integration, is supported by the second wave of ZAM expression observed later in embryonic gonads. An obvious difference between these two putative cellular integration niches concerns their ability to proliferate. It is indeed worth noting that, unlike early embryonic nuclei that are rapidly cycling, gonadic germ cells are no longer dividing. As it has been suggested for HIV, further experiments will be necessary to know whether gtwin and ZAM integrases have distinct abilities to be imported into non dividing nuclei.

## **A complex interplay of positive and negative selection forces, applied to TEs and their hosts, likely lead to niche partitioning.**

 By studying the simultaneous replication of four LTR-RTEs in the *Drosophila* germline, we observed distinct patterns suggesting that these LTR-RTEs occupy different ecological niches within the TE community. Here, we briefly speculate about the putative selective forces that might have led to host-TE and TE-TE coexistence *via* niche partitioning.

 First, we can notice that the four LTR-RTEs species are expressed in gonadal tissues, the only host compartment supporting vertical transmission of the new TE copies. On the contrary, replication in non- gonadal tissues is not only useless for the TE replication but could have been counter-selected by the host as a possible cause of diseases like cancer and aging-related decline (59, 60). A second type of selective pressure might have prevented toxic TE expression (60) in the germline stem cells, the immortal cell lineage of the gonad. That is probably why ZAM and gtwin are expressed in differentiated somatic gonadal cells, while roo, despite being a germline-specific TE, is expressed in nurse cells, which are differentiated germ cells destined to disappear at the end of oogenesis. Third, on one hand, the new TE copies need to be inserted into the germinal genome, but, on the other hand, the resulting DNA damage may be even more deleterious for the germline survival than the toxicity of the expression step. As a possible trade-off, integration is delayed until the DNA damage-tolerant embryonic stage of development (61), followed by larval stages where germ cell division may compensate for previous cell death (62). Fourth, further research is needed to characterize the putatively detrimental phenotypic effects of the TE insertions we studied and determine if their preferred integration sites correspond to safe havens within the host genome. Similarly, regarding TE-TE interactions, it is unknown whether the TE-specificity of these integration niches results 641 from detrimental fitness effects of competition between different TE species for common insertion sites. Finally, our non-overlapping TE expression patterns are in agreement with previous observations (12) suggesting that such a competition between somatic TEs might have led to expression niche partitioning.

 In conclusion, TE niche partitioning highlights the complex interplay of positive and negative selection forces applied to TEs and their hosts leading to their stable coexistence.

#### **Data availability**

 Long reads sequencing data previously published and presented in this study have been deposited at ENA (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena) under the accession numbers ERP122844 and PRJEB75331 respectively. The

source code of TrEMOLO as well as all the accessory codes are available at https://github.com/Drosophila

GenomeEvolution/TrEMOLO. The ATAC-seq, and small-RNA-seq raw data are available on GEO under

accession number: GSE274394.

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#### **Author contributions**

 Conception: S.C; A.P.; Computational analysis of NGS and genomics data, M.M.; M.V.; Statistics, D.G.; M.V.; Experiments C.G, M.L., B.M., M.V.; Methodology and analyses: B.M.; C.G.; A.P.; S.C.; Supervision, C.G.; S.C.; Visualization: B.M.; D.G.; M.V.; Writing: C.G.; A.P.; S.C.; Funding & infrastructure: S.C.

## **Declaration of interests**

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LTR-RTE

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Figure 1: Four LTR-RTEs integrate into the Drosophila germline after successive generations of somatic Piwi knockdown (A) Schematic representation of the temperature change from 20°C to 25°C applied to adult flies for 5 days at each generation to induce a transient somatic knockdown of Piwi (Piwi-sKD) followed by constant maintenance at 20<sup>6</sup>C until the next generation. G0F100 corresponds to a sub-population of the initial G0 parental strain that was constantly kept at 20°C for 100 generations. During the successive Piwi-sKDs, three large populations corresponding to the offsprings of flies at generations 11, 31 and 73 (G11F1, G31F1, G73F1) were isolated and kept at 20°C. The offsprings of these isolated populations (G11F2, G31F2 and G73F2) were raised at 20°C and were sequenced using Nanopore technology. Quantification of the new LTR-RTE insertions annotated in G11F2, G31F2, G73F2 and in the control population G0F100, as compared to the initial parental G0 strain. Total number of newly integrated LTR-RTEs is indicated for each generation in bold at the top of each chart. (C) Bar plots showing the fold change in antisense piRNA reads, normalized to the total piRNA reads, in Piwi-sKD ovaries (25°C) compared to control ovaries (20°C) for the four LTR-RTEs (gtwin, ZAM, copia, roo). (D) Representative images of stage 10 ovarian expression patterns obtained for gtwin, ZAM, copia and roo LTR-RTEs by smifISH (in red) at the non-permissive temperature, 20°C, or after 5 days at the permissive temperature, 25°C (Piwi-sKD). DNA was stained with 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; blue). Bar represents 50 µm.



Figure 2: Each LTR-RTE species has its own specific chromatin domain preferences for genomic integration (A) Bar plots showing the observed (filled bars) and expected (dashed bars) numbers of new LTR-RTE insertions in the intergenic, intronic and exonic regions of the genome. Expected values were calculated based on the proportional size of each genomic region (Supplementary Table S5) and the total number of new insertions identified for each LTR-RTE species. Statistical significance was assessed using binomial tests corrected with the Benjamini–Hochberg procedure to control the false discovery rate (FDR); p-values: \* < 0.05, \*\* < 0.005, \*\*\* < 0.001. (B) Heatmap illustrating genome-wide clustering of nine post-translational histone modifications based on ChIP-seq data from 14–16 h Drosophila embryos, segmented into non overlapping 5 kb genomic bins. This analysis identified 8 distinct clusters, each representing a defined proportion of the genome (indicated on the left). The intensity of ChIP-seq signal for each histone modification is displayed using a color gradient (shown at the bottom right) with red indicating an enrichment and blue indicating a depletion. (C) Bar plots displaying the observed (filled bars) and expected (dashed bars) numbers of LTR-RTE insertions for each species in each cluster, as defined in panel B. Expected values were calculated similarly as in panel A considering the genomic proportion of each chromatin cluster (Supplementary Table S5). Statistical significances (p-values) were calculated using binomial tests corrected by the Benjamini–Hochberg step up procedure to control the false discovery rate; p-value: \* < 0.05, \*\* < 0.005, \*\*\* < 0.001.



#### Figure 3: Differential timing of integration during embryogenesis

(A) Schematic representation of the last stage of oogenesis containing the arrested oocyte in metaphase I and the different stages of Drosophila embryonic development before hatching. Time after egg laying (AEL) is indicated at the bottom. Primordial Germ Cells (PGC) are in green. (B) Boxplots representing the temporal kinetics of the average chromatin accessibility around gtwin (red) and ZAM (orange) insertions, relative to random profiles. For each time window, the ratio of accessibility is defined as the average sci-ATAC-seq signal of the 200 bp windows centered on LTR-RTE insertions for each defined cluster (at each time window) divided by the average signal obtained for 100 randomly selected 200 bp windows in the same cluster. (C) Metaplots showing mean ATAC-seq signals within 4 kb windows centered on 101 ZAM insertion sites (yellow) and 100 random insertion sites (black). The signals are averaged from two replicates and normalized by coverage (RPKM: Reads Per Kilobase per Million mapped reads). The left panel shows data from PGCs, while the right panel displays data from somatic cells, both sorted out of overnight embryos. (D) Venn diagrams illustrating the distribution of observed (top) and expected (bottom) gtwin or ZAM insertions in the chromatin accessibility domains detected in 0–2h embryos (sci-ATAC-seq pooled data, in blue) and in primordial germ cells (PGCs) of late embryos (ATAC-seq, in green). The numbers are those of the insertions that are within stage-specific ATAC-seq peaks as well as those that are located in chromatin domains that are accessible at both stages of embryonic development (overlaps). The right panels (PGC unique) are missing those ATAC-seq PGC peaks that are also present in the somatic cells of the corresponding late embryos. The expected values are based on random distribution, adjusted to the size of each defined regions in the whole genome (Supplementary Table S8).

Significant enrichments in the observed insertions are indicated with asterisks. p-value: \* < 0.05, \*\* < 0.005, \*\*\* < 0.001.



#### Figure 4: gtwin preferentially inserts into the open chromatin before cellularization

(A) Metaplots depicting mean coverage of single-cell ATAC-seq (sci-ATAC-seq) in 4 kb windows centered on 210 gtwin (red), 101 ZAM (yellow) or 100 random insertion sites (black) in the 4 distinct groups of nulei previously identified in 0-2 h embryos (34). Values were normalized by Counts Per Million (CPM) unique mapped reads. (B) Venn diagram highlighting the distribution of the 76 gtwin insertions sites enriched in sci-ATAC-seq signal among the 4 clusters. The numbers represent the observed (top) and expected (bottom) count distribution of gtwin insertions in each cluster. The expected values (bottom) are based on random distribution, adjusted for the size of each subset. Significant enrichment or depletion of the insertions observed in two subsets is marked with asterisk. p-value: \* < 0.05. (C) Overlap of pioneer-factor-rich and sci-ATAC-seq-rich gtwin insertion sites in stage 5 embryos. The size of each circle is scaled by the number of gtwin insertions that are enriched for accessible chromatin (blue), GAF (pink), Zelda (green), Clamp (orange) and Opa (yellow). The number indicated in the edges corresponds to the number of gtwin insertions possessing both features. Expected values were calculated according to the proportion of ChIP-seq signal of the protein of interest and the total number of new gtwin insertions. P-values were calculated using binomial tests corrected by Benjamini–Hochberg step up procedure to control the false discovery rate; p-value: \* < 0.05, \*\* < 0.005, \*\*\* < 0.001.





Figure 5: Chromatin accessibility of ZAM insertion sites correlates with ZAM late embryonic expression (A) Vasa immunostaining combined with ZAM smiFISH on 12- to 16-h whole-mount G73 embryos at 20°C (upper panel) and 25°C (lower panel). The right panel shows higher magnification of embryonic gonads. Anti-vasa antibody (green) labelled the primordial germ cells (PGCs) of the gonads. ZAM transcripts labelled in red are detected in cells surrounding vasa-positive cells at 25°C (lower panels). DNA is labelled with 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; blue). (B) Traffic jam immunostaining combined with ZAM smiFISH of gonadal cells of 12- to 16-h G73 embryos at 20°C (upper panel), 25°C (lower panel). The SPGs labelled in green are tj-positive cells.

ZAM transcripts labelled in red are detected in tj-positive cells at 25°C (lower panel). DNA is labelled with 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; blue). (C) Immunostaining of gonadal cells from 12-16 h embryos laid by G73 females crossed with males expressing a GFP-tagged version of Piwi, at 20°C (upper panel) or 25°C (lower panel). Traffic jam (red) and GFP (Piwi, green) antibodies revealed the zygotic expression of Piwi in tj-positive cells at 20°C. A decrease in Piwi zygotic expression was observed at 25°C, consistent with the activation of the thermo-inducible RNAi system targeting Piwi.



Piwi-mediated repression (repression)

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Supplementary Figure S1: Genetic model. Schematic representation of our working model and the previous data published in Barckmann et al, 2018. Lower panel: Piwi-dependent repression of LTR-RTEs at 20°C. Upper panel: Transient Piwi knock-down, by temperature change from 20°C to 25°C applied to adult flies for 5 days, allowing LTR-RTE transcriptional derepression in somatic ovarian cells (purple), completion of the LTR-RTE replication cycle, including the production of viral parti-cles that infect the germline (oocyte, blue). The embryos are then maintained at 20°C for the rest of development. The eggs laid by the G1F1 were sequenced using short-reads to detect newly integrated LTR-RTE in the germline.



**Supplementary Figure S2**: New LTR-RTE insertions are not positively selected in G73 generation (A) Metaplots depicting the frequency of each new LTR-RTE insertion according to its positioning along each chromosome. Chromosomes 2 and 3 are separated in two metaplots corresponding the left and right arms of these chromosomes. Each family of LTR-RTEs is represented with a color code indicated on the top right-hand side. (B) Table indicating the numbers of LTR-RTE insertions in the different piRNA clusters. (C) Frequency of each LTR-RTE insertion found in piRNA clusters.

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**Supplementary Figure S3**: Each LTR-RTE species has its own specific chromatin states preferences for genomic integration

Barplots depicting the observed (filled bars) and expected (dashed bars) numbers of LTR-RTEs insertions across the nine described chromatin states in S2 cells (14). Chromatin states are clustered with typical post-translational histone marks associated with each chromatin state. Expected values were calculated according to the size of each chromatin state in the genome and the total number of new insertions obtained for the indicated LTR-RTEs. Statistical significances (p-values) were calculated using binomial tests corrected by Benjamini–Hochberg step up procedure to control the false discovery rate; p-value:  $* < 0.05$ ,  $** < 0.005$ ,  $** < 0.001$ 



All lengths are expressed in bases. Quality is expressed in standard Phred scale.

**Supplementary Table S1:** Sequencing data statistics



**Supplementary Table S2**: Annotation of newly integrated LTR-RTEs in the different generations compared to G0 parental genome.



**Supplementary Table S3**: Distribution of the rover, roo and copia new insertions according to their sequencing frequencies in the G11, G31 and G73 populations



\* Shared insertions (that were detected in at least two different generations) were very likely vertically transmitted.

**Supplementary Table S4** : Evidence for the existence of copia and roo germinal insertions.



**Supplementary Table S5**: Distribution of the copia, roo, gtwin and ZAM new insertions according to the genomic or chromatin features of their landing sites. "Obs" and "Exp" refer to the observed and expected numbers of LTR-RTE insertions for each genomic and chromatin features. Adjusted p-values "P.adj" were calculated using binomial tests corrected by Benjamini–Hochberg step up procedure to control the false discovery rate.



## **In bold : transcription factor profiles in bigWig format on the dm6 directly available.**



## REFERENCE TABLE web link



# **Supplementary Table S6 : Key Resources Table**











**Supplementary Table S7:** List of primers used for smiFISH experiments



**Supplementary Table S8**: Distribution of gtwin and ZAM new insertions based on chromatin accessibility in 0-2h embryos (sci-ATAC-seq) and PGC of late embryos (ATAC-seq) at their respective landing sites. « Obs » and « Exp » refer to the observed and expected numbers of LTR-RTE insertions for each genomic and chromatin feature. Adjusted p-values ("P.adj") were calculated using binomial tests corrected with the Benjamini–Hochberg step-up procedure to control the false discovery rate.