Identification of transcription termination defects at DNA

hypomethylated transcription termination sites in DNA

methyltransferase 3a-deficient vertebrates

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Abstract

CpG methylation in genomic DNA is well known as a repressive epigenetic

marker in eukaryotic transcription, and DNA methylation of the promoter regions is

correlated with silencing of gene expression.　In contrast to the promoter regions,

the function of DNA methylation during transcription termination remains to be

elucidated.　A recent study has revealed that mouse DNA methyltransferase 3a

(Dnmt3a) mainly functions in *de novo* methylation in the promoter and gene body

regions (including transcription termination sites (TTSs)) during development.　To

investigate the relationship between DNA methylation overlapping the TTSs and

transcription termination, we employed two strategies: informatic analysis using

already deposited datasets of *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ mouse cells and the zebrafish model system.

Bioinformatic analysis using methylome and transcriptome data showed that

hypomethylated differentially methylated regions overlapping the TTSs were

associated with increased read counts and chimeric transcripts downstream of TTSs

in *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ Agouti-related protein neurons, but not in *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ embryonic stem

cells and mouse embryonic fibroblasts.　We experimentally detected increased read-

through and chimeric transcripts downstream of hypomethylated TTSs in zebrafish

maternal-zygotic *dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant.　This study is the first to identify transcription

termination defects in DNA hypomethylated TTSs in *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ vertebrates.

Introduction

Transcription by RNA polymerase II (pol II), synthesis process of mRNA from

DNA, consists of three biological processes: initiation, elongation, and termination.   In

higher eukaryotes, two transcription processes (initiation and elongation) and their

epigenetic regulation, including DNA methylation and histone modifications, have been

extensively studied (LEE AND YOUNG 2000; JONES 2012; GATES *et al.* 2017; CHEN *et al.*

2018).   In transcription termination, it is also well known that most protein-coding

genes in eukaryotes possess a polyadenylation signal (PAS) located at the end of the 3'-

UTR, and a cleavage and polyadenylation (CPA) complex is assembled around the PAS

sequence of nascent pre-mRNA, which directs pol II transcription termination

(PROUDFOOT 2016; EATON AND WEST 2020).   However, in contrast to transcription

initiation and elongation, the epigenetic regulation of transcription termination has

remained largely unstudied to date.

In eukaryotes ranging from plants to humans, DNA methylation, one of epigenetic

regulations, is well characterized as a repressive epigenetic marker and mainly occurs at

CpG dinucleotides (LI AND ZHANG 2014; SCHÜBELER 2015; LUO *et al.* 2018).

Advances in sequencing technology have resulted in genomic methylation profiling at

single-base resolution revealing that the global DNA methylation (5-methylcytosine,

5mC) is seen in mammals, except for short CpG-rich regions known as CpG islands (LI

AND ZHANG 2014; SCHÜBELER 2015; LUO *et al.* 2018).   Studies of methylome

profiling have shown that DNA methylation patterns dynamically change during

development and disease and that these patterns are linked to gene expression in

mammals (SMITH AND MEISSNER 2013; GREENBERG AND BOURC'HIS 2019).   Genome-

wide methylome analysis revealed that the DNA methylation levels around the

promoter regions, including the transcription start site (TSS), are negatively correlated

with gene expression (BALL et al. 2009; RAUCH et al. 2009).   Conversely, DNA

methylation levels in the gene bodies are positively correlated with gene expression

(KULIS et al. 2013; TEISSANDIER AND BOURC'HIS 2017).   Although two possible

mechanisms, regulation of splicing and prevention of cryptic promoters, have been

proposed for methylation function in the gene body (KULIS et al. 2013; TEISSANDIER

AND BOURC'HIS 2017), the significance of DNA methylation around transcription

termination sites (TTSs; cleavage/polyadenylation sites) remains unresolved.

The DNA methylation patterns are well known to be established by the DNA

methyltransferases (Dnmts), which are categorized into two types in mammals:

maintenance Dnmt (Dnmt1) and de novo Dnmts (Dnmt3a and Dnmt3b) (LI et al. 1992;

OKANO et al. 1999; LI AND ZHANG 2014).   Knock-out mice of both Dnmt3a and

Dnmt3b, which die at embryonic day 9.5, fail to start de novo methylation after

implantation (OKANO et al. 1999), and genetic mutation of Dnmt3a or Dnmt3b leads to

various human diseases (GREENBERG AND BOURC'HIS 2019), suggesting the critical role

of DNA methylation in development and homeostasis in mammals through the

regulation of gene expression.   A very recent study using mouse embryonic fibroblasts

(MEFs) with genetic ablation of *de novo* Dnmts reported that Dnmt3a functions in *de*

novo methylation at both TSS regions (TSS ± 1000 bp) and gene bodies (from TSS

regions to TTS) of the Polycomb group (PcG) target developmental genes, whereas

Dnmt3b mainly functions in X-chromosome methylation (YAGI *et al*. 2020).   These

results indicate that although the enzymatic functions of both proteins are redundant,

genomic target regions are distinct in mammals.   Although mammalian Dnmt3a

mutant phenotypes and target regions have been reported, the role of methylation during

transcription termination by Dnmt3a has not yet been reported.

In the present study, we used bioinformatic analysis and a zebrafish model animal

system to explore the function of Dnmt3a-mediated hypomethylation at the TTSs.   The

bioinformatic analysis showed that hypomethylated differentially methylated regions

(hypoDMRs) overlapping the TTSs were associated with increased read counts and

chimeric transcripts downstream of TTSs in *Dnmt3a*^{-/-} Agouti-related protein neurons, but

not in *Dnmt3a*^{-/-} embryonic stem cells (ESCs) and mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs).

Based on bioinformatic analysis, to experimentally confirm the transcription termination

defects in *Dnmt3a*^{-/-} vertebrates, we generated zebrafish maternal-zygotic *dnmt3aa*^{-/-}

(MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-}) mutants and identified an increase in both read-through and chimeric

transcripts in the hypoDMRs overlapping the TTSs in MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant.   Taken

together, in *Dnmt3a*-deficient vertebrates, we identified transcription termination defects

in DNA hypomethylated TTSs.

Materials and methods

Zebrafish experiments, ethic statement, and generation of MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant

fish using CRISPR/Cas9 system

Adult zebrafish and zebrafish larvae were maintained as previously described

(WESTERFIELD 1993). All zebrafish experiments were approved from the Hiroshima

University Animal Research Committee (Permit Number: F18-2-7).

Genome editing using the CRISPR/Cas9 system was performed as previously

described (ANSAI AND KINOSHITA 2014). Briefly, the pDR274 vector (Addgene

Plasmid 42250) was digested with *Bsa*I, and then annealed oligonucleotides for

sgRNAs were cloned into the pDR274 vector. The sequences of the oligonucleotides

for sgRNAs are listed in Supplementary Table S1. The sgRNA expression vectors

were digested by *Dra*I, and the sgRNAs were synthesized using the MAXIscript™ T7

Kit (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific). The synthesized sgRNAs were purified

using the mirVana™ miRNA Isolation Kit (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific). In

addition, the Cas9 expression vector (Addgene Plasmid 51815) was linearized by *Not*I

and *Cas9* mRNA was synthesized using the mMESSAGE mMACHINE™ SP6 Kit

(Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific). A mixture of three types of sgRNAs for the

zebrafish *dnmt3aa* gene and *Cas9* mRNA of appropriate concentrations was injected at

the one-cell stage. To identify the mutations, the target site of the CRISPR/Cas9

system on *dnmt3aa* gene was amplified using TaKaRa Ex Taq® (Takara Bio) with the

primers listed in Supplementary Table S2.   The amplicons were purified using the

QIAquick PCR Purificatie Kit (QIAGEN) and then sequenced using the BigDye™

Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems, Thermo Fisher Scientific)

and primers listed in Supplementary Table S2.

The amputated fins of *dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant were digested overnight in lysis buffer

(100 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 50 mM EDTA pH 8, 0.5% SDS and 36 ug/ml

Proteinase K) at 55°C.   Proteinase K was inactivated at 98°C for 10 min.   A

heteroduplex mobility assay (HMA) was performed to detect the *dnmt3aa* mutation.

The target site of the CRISPR/Cas9 system on exon 1 of the *dnmt3aa* gene was

amplified using BIOTAQ™ DNA Polymerase (Meridian Bioscience); the primers used

are listed in Supplementary Table S2.   Amplicons were analyzed using polyacrylamide

gel electrophoresis.   MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutants were obtained by crossing *dnmt3aa*^{-/-}

adults.

Whole-genome bisulfite library preparation and sequencing of zebrafish samples

Zebrafish wild-type (WT) and MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant embryos at 2 days post-

fertilization (dpf) were digested with proteinase K and sodium dodecyl sulfate to extract

genomic DNA.   DNA samples were prepared by mixing zebrafish genomic DNA and

unmethylated lambda DNA (Promega) as spike control, at a ratio of 1000:1.   DNA

samples (100 ng) were subjected to bisulfite treatment using the EZ DNA Methylation-

Gold Kit (Zymo Research). Bisulfite-treated DNA samples (50 ng) were subjected to

10 cycles of PCR using random primers from the TruSeq DNA Methylation Kit

(Illumina) to add adapters. Libraries with adapters were sequenced on the HiSeq X

Five Sequencing System (Illumina) with 150 bp single-end reads. Bisulfite treatment,

library preparation, and sequencing were performed by Takara Bio Inc. (Shiga, Japan).

Whole-genome bisulfite sequencing (WGBS) data analysis of mouse dataset

The publicly available datasets used in this study were from the Gene Expression

Omnibus (GEO), and the accession numbers are GSE100957 (J1 mESCs) (GU *et al*.

2018), GSE111172 (MEFs) (YAGI *et al*. 2020), and GSE122405 (AgRPs) (MACKAY *et*

al. 2019). The FASTQ-format read sequences were trimmed of adaptors and low-

quality bases were filtered using Trim Galore (version 0.6.4)

(https://github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore) with Cutadapt (version 2.10) (MARTIN

2011) and FastQC (version 0.11.8)

(https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/). After trimming, the

reads were aligned to the mouse genome (mm10) using Bismark (version 0.20.0)

(KRUEGER AND ANDREWS 2011) and Bowtie (version 1.0.0) (LANGMEAD *et al*. 2009).

The aligned reads were followed by the removal of PCR duplicates using

deduplicate_bismark (version 0.20.0) (KRUEGER AND ANDREWS 2011), and methylation

calls were performed using bismark_methylation_extractor (version 0.20.0) (KRUEGER

AND ANDREWS 2011).   The reads from samples with multiple sequencing lanes were

merged using Samtools (version 1.9) (LI *et al*. 2009) after removing the PCR duplicates.

The methylation ratio of CpG sites with a coverage of over 5 reads in WT and *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$

was calculated from the methylation call data.   The methylation ratio was visualized

using Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV) (version 2.7.2) (ROBINSON *et al*. 2011).

WGBS data analysis of zebrafish datasets

The read sequences in FASTQ format were first trimmed by removing six bases

from random primers of TruSeq DNA Methylation Kit (Illumina) and the last 50 bases

of low-quality reads.   After trimming, the reads were aligned to the zebrafish genome

(danRer10) and lambda phage genome using Bismark (version 0.10.1) (KRUEGER AND

ANDREWS 2011) and Bowtie (version 1.0.0) (LANGMEAD *et al*. 2009).   Once aligned,

reads corresponding to PCR duplicates were removed and methylation calls were

performed.   The bisulfite conversion rates based on spike control for all samples were

over 99%, and the error rates were as follows: WT, 0.3% and MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant,

0.2%.   Statistically significant methylated cytosine sites were identified using a

binomial distribution with a false discovery rate ≤ 0.05, calculated by the Benjamini-

Hochberg (BH) method, and read depth ≥ 5.   Data analysis was performed by Takara

Bio, Inc. (Shiga, Japan) as previously described (LISTER *et al*. 2009).   WGBS data

were deposited in the GEO under accession number GSE178691.   The methylation

ratio of CpG sites with a coverage of over 5 reads in WT and MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant as

calculated from the methylation call data.   The methylation ratio was visualized using

the IGV (version 2.7.2) (R<small>OBINSON</small> *et al*. 2011).

Identification of differentially methylated regions (DMRs)

The methylation call data of mice and zebrafish were used to identify DMRs using

swDMR (version 1.0.0) (W<small>ANG</small> *et al*. 2015) with the followed settings: cytosine type,

CG; window, 500; step size, 50; points (lowest number of selected cytosine type in the

window), 3; coverage, 5; fold (methylation level difference), 1.5; diff (value of max-min

methylation level), 0.1; p-value, 0.05; fdr, 0.05.   Samples were compared using the

Fisher's test.   DMRs overlapped genomic positions (TSS, gene body, TTS, and

intergenic region) were determined using bedtools (version 2.28.0) (Q<small>UINLAN AND</small>

H<small>ALL</small> 2010) intersect.   The DMRs that overlap both TSS and TTS were included in the

DMRs that overlap TTS.   Heatmaps, violin plots, scatterplots with marginal

distribution, and horizontal bar graphs were generated from swDMR output using

Python and R scripts.

RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) library preparation and sequencing of zebrafish

samples

Tissue lysates were prepared from 30 pooled 2 dpf WT and MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant

by homogenization using TissueLyser LT (QIAGEN) with zirconia beads for 10 s at 50

Hz.   RNA was extracted from the lysate using the PureLink® RNA Mini Kit (Thermo

Fisher Scientific).   RNA quality of all samples was RNA Integrity Number (RIN) >

9.0, using the 4150 TapeStation System (Agilent).   Total RNA was treated using the

NEBNext® Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic Isolation Module (New England Biolabs) for

mRNA isolation.   Strand-specific RNA-seq libraries were constructed using the

NEBNext® Ultra™ Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina® (New England

Biolabs).   The libraries with adapters were sequenced on the Novaseq 6000 (Illumina)

with 2×150 bp paired-end reads.   RNA extraction, mRNA isolation, library

preparation, and sequencing were performed by Rhelixa Inc. (Tokyo, Japan).

RNA-seq data analysis for mouse and zebrafish datasets

The publicly available datasets of mice deposited in the GEO and the generated

datasets of zebrafish were used in this study.   Accession numbers are GSE100957 (J1

mESCs) (GU et al. 2018), GSE84165 (MEFs) (YAGI et al. 2017a; YAGI et al. 2019),

GSE111172 (MEFs) (YAGI et al. 2020), and GSE122405 (AgRPs) (MACKAY et al.

2019).   RNA-seq data of zebrafish were deposited in the GEO under accession number

GSE178691.   FASTQ files from samples with multiple sequencing lanes were merged.

The FASTQ-format sequence reads were trimmed of adaptors and low-quality bases

were filtered using Trim Galore (version 0.6.4)

(https://github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore) with Cutadapt (version 1.18 or 2.10)

(MARTIN 2011) and FastQC (version 0.11.8 or 0.11.9)

(https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/).   After trimming, the

reads were aligned to the mouse genome (mm10) and the zebrafish genome (danRer10)

using HISAT2 (version 2.1.0) (KIM *et al*. 2015).   Alignment of zebrafish datasets was

performed using the strand-specific option.   Aligned files (.bam) were sorted and

indexed using Samtools (version 1.9) (LI *et al*. 2009).   In addition, the strand-specific

aligned files of zebrafish were generated using Samtools (version 1.9) (LI *et al*. 2009).

Read coverage was normalized with 1 bin size by counts per million mapped reads

(CPM) using the bamCoverage tool from the DeepTools (version 3.3.2) (RAMÍREZ *et al*.

2016) and visualized using the IGV (version 2.7.2) (ROBINSON *et al*. 2011).   Splice

junction data of chimeric transcripts in the aligned files were inspected manually using

the IGV (version 2.7.2) (ROBINSON *et al*. 2011).

Calculation of expression level downstream of TTS from RNA-seq data

Quantification of expression levels was completed using StringTie (version 2.1.2)

(PERTEA *et al*. 2015) with NCBI RefSeq annotation.   The expression values of each

transcript were normalized to the transcripts per million (TPM).   Transcripts

expressed in WT and *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ mouse cells or MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant were extracted

from all transcripts (TPM > 0).   In addition, the transcripts expressed in both strains

and overlapped hypoDMRs across the TTS were extracted.

245  All reads that overlapped the exonic or intronic sequences in the aligned files

246 (.bam) were removed using bedtools (version 2.28.0) (QUINLAN AND HALL 2010)

247 intersect with the NCBI RefSeq annotation. In addition, the intergenic reads were

248 counted within 3 kb downstream of the TTS using bedtools (version 2.28.0) (QUINLAN

249 AND HALL 2010) multicov, except when the genomic region downstream of the TTS

250 was less than 3 kb. The expression level was calculated using the following equation

251 (TPM 3 kb):

252 TPM 3 kb = Number of reads aligned in 3kb downstream of TTS of each transcript ×

253 10^6 / Total number of reads aligned in 3kb downstream of TTS.

254 Normalized read counts were compared in WT and *Dnmt3a^{-/-}* mouse cells or

255 MZ*dnmt3aa^{-/-}* zebrafish mutants as a metagene analysis.

256  Box plots were generated using R scripts, and statistical significance was

257 determined using Brunner-Munzel test ($p \leq 0.05$).

259 **Calculation of expression level of chimeric transcripts from RNA-seq data**

260  Chimeric transcripts, which were aberrantly fused with exons of downstream genes

261 or intergenic DNA, were manually counted using IGV (ROBINSON *et al*. 2011). The

262 expression level was calculated as the counts per million (CPM) mapped reads.

263 Normalized read counts were compared in WT and *Dnmt3a^{-/-}* mouse cells or

264 MZ*dnmt3aa^{-/-}* zebrafish mutant as a metagene analysis. Transcripts whose expression

increased downstream of the TTS were used for metagene analysis.   Box plots were

generated using R scripts.   Statistical significance was determined using the Brunner-

Munzel test ($p \leq 0.05$).

RNA preparation, quantitative PCR (qPCR), and sequencing for identification of

read-through and chimeric transcripts of zebrafish samples

Total RNA was extracted using TRIzol (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific)

from six samples of 30 pooled 2 dpf WT and MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant, and the six

extracted total RNA samples were combined as one sample.   Total RNA (150 ug) was

treated using the *Oligotex*™ *-dT30<Super>* mRNA Purification Kit (Takara Bio).   The

purified poly(A)$^+$ RNA was reverse-transcribed with oligo(dT) primer and reverse

transcriptase XL (AMV) (Takara Bio).

qPCR was performed using the StepOne™ Real-Time PCR System and

PowerUp™ SYBR™ Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Thermo Fisher

Scientific).   Relative expression levels were calculated by the $\Delta\Delta$CT method, and

targets were normalized by the mean value of a control gene, *ubiquitin-conjugating*

enzyme E2A (ube2a).   The qPCR primers used are shown in Supplementary Table S3.

Bar charts were generated from the mean values and standard error (SE) data using R

scripts.   Statistical significance was determined using the t-test ($p \leq 0.05$).

Sequencing of chimeric transcript was performed using MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant.

The product of *im:7152937*-intergenic DNA (iD)- *meiosis-specific nuclear structural 1*

(*mns1*) chimeric transcript was amplified using BIOTAQ™ DNA Polymerase (Meridian

Bioscience) with the primers listed in Supplementary Table S4.   The amplicons were

purified using the QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (QIAGEN) after agarose gel

electrophoresis.   The purified product was subcloned using a TA-cloning Kit (Thermo

Fisher Scientific), and the plasmid DNA was sequenced using the BigDye™ Terminator

v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and primers

listed in Supplementary Table S4.

Results

Genomic characteristics of hypoDMRs overlapping the TTS in *Dnmt3a*-deficient mouse cells

To investigate the functional relevance between DNA methylation and

transcription termination, we searched datasets of *Dnmt3a*-deficient mammalian cells

that contain both methylome (WGBS) and transcriptome (RNA-seq) data.   Five

datasets of WGBS (human: one, mouse: four) and ten datasets of RNA-seq (human:

four, mouse: six) were obtained from GEO.   Four datasets (human: one, mouse: three)

contained both WGBS and RNA-seq, and among them we chose three types of mouse

datasets (J1 mESCs (GU *et al*. 2018); MEFs (YAGI *et al*. 2020); and Agouti-related

protein neurons, AgRPs (MACKAY *et al*. 2019)) because of the differences in their cell

differentiation states.   The outline of bioinformatics analysis and experimental design

was shown in Supplementary Figure S1.   We extracted the hypermethylated DMRs

(hyperDMRs) and hypoDMRs from these datasets and found that the number of

hypoDMRs in *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ J1 mESCs were approximately 57 and 181 times greater than

that of *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ MEFs and AgRPs, respectively (Supplementary Figure S2, A-C).

The hypoDMRs were categorized by genomic position (gene body, intergenic region,

and gene body & intergenic region) (Supplementary Figure S3).   The number of

hypoDMRs gradually decreased in the order of *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ J1 mESCs, MEFs, and

AgRPs, whereas their percentages of genomic positions were nearly the same among

these *Dnmt3a*-deficient cells (Supplementary Figure S3).   Next, we selected the

hypoDMRs overlapping TTSs in three types of *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ mouse cells (Figure 1, A and

B) and found that the number of hypoDMRs overlapping the TTSs in *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ MEFs

or AgRPs was less than 1% or 0.4% of that of *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ J1 mESCs, respectively (Figure

1C).   These data suggest that DNA methylation regulated by Dnmt3a may be

correlated with the differentiation state of mouse cells.   Two-dimensional (2D)

scatterplots with marginal distribution showed that the hypoDMRs overlapping the

TTSs were almost symmetrically distributed across the TTSs in the *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ J1 mESCs

and MEFs, whereas the distribution of hypoDMRs was slightly shifted upstream of the

TTSs in *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ AgRPs (Figure 1D).

HypoDMRs overlapping the TTSs are associated with an increased read counts

and chimeric transcripts downstream of TTSs in *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ AgRPs

To explore the effect of hypomethylation overlapping the TTSs on transcription

termination, we analyzed RNA-seq data from three different types of *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ mouse

cells.   Read counts aligned in 3 kbp downstream of TTSs were normalized by TPM (3

kb) in wild-type (WT) and *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ J1 mESCs, MEFs, and AgRPs.   Metagene

analysis showed that the read counts downstream of TTSs increased significantly in

Dnmt3a$^{-/-}$ AgRPs compared to those in WT cells (Figure 2, A-C and Supplementary

Figure S4A; *Ring Finger 157* (*Rnf157*) gene as an example of increased read counts),

and the higher expression downstream of TTSs was observed in more than half of the

genes with hypoDMRs in mutant cells (Figure 2D).   The centers of the hypoDMRs

which cause an increase in read counts downstream of TTSs were distributed close to

the TTSs in *Dnmt3a*^{-/-} AgRPs (Supplementary Figure S5, A, A', and B).   Conversely,

the read counts in *Dnmt3a*^{-/-} J1 mESCs and MEFs were unchanged compared to those in

WT cells (Figure 2, A and B).

We then analyzed the content of transcripts downstream of hypomethylated TTSs

in the *Dnmt3a*^{-/-} AgRPs, and found chimeric transcripts that were aberrantly fused with

exons of downstream genes or intergenic DNA (iD) in *Dnmt3a*^{-/-} AgRPs, as observed in

WT cells.   Frequency of chimeric transcripts (about 54.6%) increased significantly in

the *Dnmt3a*^{-/-} AgRPs compared to those in WT cells (Figure 2, E and F).   We showed

that splicing of the *Rnf157* as an example of chimeric transcripts in the *Dnmt3a*^{-/-}

AgRPs, and found aberrant transcripts that connect an *Rnf157* exon either to the

intergenic DNA or to *Unkempt family zinc finger* (*Unk*) gene (Supplementary Figure

S4B).   The centers of DMRs causing these chimeric transcripts were distributed close

to the TTS (Figure 2, G, G', and H).   In summary, the increase in the chimeric

transcripts in the *Dnmt3a*^{-/-} AgRPs clearly shows that transcription termination is

defective and that read-through occurs at hypomethylated TTSs.

Genomic characteristics of hypoDMRs overlapping the TTSs in MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-}

mutant

To explore the correlation between the transcription termination defects and DNA

methylation in an animal model, we examined the methylome and transcriptome

analysis using the zebrafish as a model.   Two zebrafish orthologs (*dnmt3aa* and

dnmt3ab) of mammalian Dnmt3a have been previously identified (TAKAYAMA *et al*.

2014), and the detailed expression profiles of *dnmt3aa* during development and

regeneration showed that *dnmt3aa* was maternally expressed and its expression was

observed in more organs than *dnmt3ab* (TAKAYAMA *et al*. 2014).   Therefore, we

attempted to generate the MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} knockout mutant by using CRISPR/Cas9

method (Figure 3A) and found that they were viable, fertile and showed no specific

phenotype at 2 dpf (Figure 3B).   Analyses of WGBS and RNA-seq were performed at

2 dpf, because most of the organs had already formed at this stage.   In MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-}

mutant, 43.6% DMRs were hypomethylated (Supplementary Figure S6) and the

hypoDMRs were categorized by genomic position (gene body, intergenic region, and

gene body & intergenic region) (Supplementary Figure S7).   We then selected the

hypoDMRs overlapping the TTSs, and 27 hypoDMRs were identified overlapping the

TTSs (Figure 3, C-E).   A 2D scatterplot with marginal distribution showed that the

hypoDMRs overlapping the TTSs were almost symmetrically distributed across the

TTSs in MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant (Figure 3, F and F'), as observed in *Dnmt3a*^{-/-} J1 mESCs

and MEFs.

Increases in both chimeric and read-through transcripts were identified in the

hypoDMRs overlapping TTSs in MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant

We also analyzed the RNA-seq data of MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant and the read counts

from genes containing hypoDMRs overlapping the TTSs, which were normalized in the

WT and mutant.   Metagene analysis showed that the read counts downstream of the

TTSs in MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant were unchanged compared to those in WT (Figure 4A).

The transcripts that showed an increase (30.3%) were almost symmetrically distributed

across the TTSs in the mutant (Figure 4B and Supplementary Figure S8).   Next, we

have extracted chimeric transcripts fused with exons of downstream genes and/or

intergenic DNA (iD).   Normalized read counts of the chimeric transcripts (30%) were

also unchanged in MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant compared to those in WT (Figure 4, C and D).

Three increased chimeric transcripts (*cytokine like 1* (*cytl1*), one; *im:7152937*, two)

were found in two different DMRs, which were close to TTSs (Figure 4, E, E', and F

and Supplementary Figure S9 and S10).

To further analyze the transcription termination defect caused by hypoDMRs

overlapping the TTSs, we examined the detailed expression downstream of and across

the TTSs of three genes that had shown high expression levels downstream of TTSs

(*cytl1*, *im:7152937*, and *potassium channel, subfamily K, member 1b* (*kcnk1b*)) by

RNA-seq.   The expression level of three transcripts (*cytl1*_doT, *im:7152937*_doT, and

*kcnk1b*_doT) in MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant had significantly increased downstream of the

TTSs compared to that in WT, as detected by qPCR (Figure 5, A and E).   We also

found a significant increase in the two transcripts (*im:7152937*_acT and *kcnk1b*_acT)

across the TTSs (Figure 5, B, F, and G), demonstrating that read-through occurs in these

genes.   In addition to read-through, chimeric transcripts (*im:7152937*-iD_cht and

im:7152937-iD-*meiosis-specific nuclear structural 1* (*mns1*)_cht) were detected in

im:7152937 gene (Supplementary Figure S10 and S11), and qPCR analysis showed that

the expression level of chimeric transcripts between *im:7152937* and iD or *mns1* had

increased significantly in MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant (Figure 5C, D, and H).   Taken

together, the read-through and chimeric transcripts of three genes in MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$

mutant, combined with the results from the *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ AgRPs analyses, clearly support

our idea that transcription termination is defective in hypomethylated TTSs.

Discussion

Unlike transcription initiation and elongation, the function of DNA methylation

during transcription termination remains unclear.   To investigate the DNA methylation

function overlapping the TTS, we analyzed the impact of hypomethylation on

transcription termination in *Dnmt3a*-deficient vertebrates.   We showed that read counts

downstream of TTS and number of chimeric transcripts with exons of downstream

genes or iD had increased significantly in the *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ AgRPs, but not in *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$

ESCs and MEFs.   Moreover, we identified increased read-through and chimeric

transcripts in MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ zebrafish mutant.   Taken together, we propose our model

that DNA hypomethylation of TTSs is associated with the transcription termination

defect in *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ vertebrates (*Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ AgRPs and MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ zebrafish mutant)

(Figure 6).

Our bioinformatic analyses showed that the number of hypoDMRs overlapping

TTSs in *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ J1 mESCs was much larger than that in *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ MEFs and AgRPs

(Figure 1C).   Previous studies have shown that mouse ESCs, such as J1 mESCs, which

are cultured in medium containing serum, are globally hypermethylated compared to

cells in mouse inner cell mass (YAGI *et al*. 2017b).   In other words, *Dnmt3a* knockout

J1 ESCs are thought to have a large number of hypoDMRs.   The number of

hypoDMRs overlapping TTSs in *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ J1 mESCs gradually decreased in the order

of *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ J1 mESCs, MEFs, and AgRPs (Figure 1C).   This result may be attributed

to the fact that Dnmt3a regulates genome-wide methylation in ES cells; nevertheless, its

role may be restricted as differentiation proceeds.

In this study, we used zebrafish mutant as an animal model because MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-}

mutant, unlike *Dnmt3a* knockout mice, are viable and fertile.   The MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-}

mutant line can be easily maintained and in this mutant maternal Dnmt3aa functions can

be excluded.   However, normalized read counts downstream of the TTSs and chimeric

transcripts were unchanged between WT and MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant (Figure 4).   There

are two possible explanations for these results: one possibility is that zebrafish *dnmt3ab*

may rescue the transcription termination defects in MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant.

Alternatively, it is hard to detect hypoDMRs overlapping TTSs in MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant,

because cells in the zebrafish body are more heterogeneous and vary greatly compared

to AgRPs.   Nevertheless, we have successfully detected the read-through and/or

chimeric transcripts of three genes (*cytl1*, *im:7152937*, and *kcnk1b*) in MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-}

mutant, suggesting that DNA methylation is involved in transcription termination in

zebrafish.

Although we have shown the significance of hypomethylation at the TTS region

for transcription termination in vertebrates, it is unclear how hypomethylation regulates

transcription termination.   Despite the relative lack of transcription termination

research, a unified allosteric/torpedo model has recently been proposed for the PAS-

dependent termination (EATON *et al*. 2020; EATON AND WEST 2020).   In this model,

the CPA complex recognizes and cleaves the nascent transcript when the pol II passes

through the PAS; thus, PAS is close to TTS (10-35 bp upstream of the TTS) (Figure 6)

(TIAN AND MANLEY 2017; NOURSE *et al*. 2020).   This cleavage by the CPA complex

results in pol II pausing via dephosphorylation of the Spt5 elongation factor by a protein

phosphatase 1 nuclear targeting subunit (PNUTS) (EATON AND WEST 2020).   As

paused pol II is dissociated from the DNA strand by the function of XRN2

exoribonuclease, which degrades RNA in a 5'→3' direction, the pol II pausing is

thought to be a critical step for the transcription termination (PROUDFOOT 2016; EATON

AND WEST 2020).   Although the CPA complex mainly binds to nascent pre-mRNA and

C-terminal domain (CTD) of pol II, it is possible that DNA hypomethylation of the TTS

or PAS genomic region may directly or indirectly suppress the CPA function, leading to

loss of pol II pausing.   It should be interesting to note that almost all hypoDMRs,

which cause chimeric transcripts or increased read counts downstream of the TTSs,

overlap with PAS in *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ AgRPs and MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant (Figure 2H, Figure 4F,

Supplementary Figure 5B, Supplementary Figure 8B).   In PAS-dependent termination,

there are two other mechanisms of pol II pausing: heterochromatin- and R-loop-

dependent pausing (PROUDFOOT 2016).   It has been reported previously that the

heterochromatin structure downstream of the TTS causes pol II pausing by acting as an

obstacle (PROUDFOOT 2016).   Therefore, hypomethylation in the TTS region may lead

to the suppression of heterochromatin formation downstream of TTS.   An alternative

possibility is R-loop-dependent pausing; R-loops are known as three-stranded

structures, which consist of RNA-DNA hybrids, and function in various nuclear

processes, such as transcription, DNA replication, and DNA repair (AL-HADID AND

YANG 2016; NIEHRS AND LUKE 2020).   As recent studies have shown that pol II

pausing is induced by R-loop formation at the TTS, it is worth analyzing the

relationship between R-loop formation and DNA methylation.   Future molecular

biological analyses regarding hypomethylation of the TTS region are needed to improve

our understanding of the molecular events underlying transcription termination.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest with the contents of this

article.

Figure 1. Characterization of hypoDMRs in three *Dnmt3a*-deficient mouse cells.

(A) Heatmaps of DNA methylation profiles of hypoDMRs overlapping TTSs

comparing WT with *Dnmt3a$^{-/-}$* mutants (J1 mESCs, MEFs, and AgRP).   Color scale

indicates DNA methylation ratio.   (B) Violin plots showing DNA methylation ratio of

the hypoDMRs overlapping the TTSs comparing WT with *Dnmt3a$^{-/-}$* mutants (J1

mESCs, MEFs, and AgRP).   (C) Pie charts depicting the number and percentage of

hypoDMRs overlapping the TSSs and TTSs in *Dnmt3a$^{-/-}$* J1 mESCs, MEFs, and AgRPs.

(D) 2D scatterplots with marginal distribution comparing hypoDMR length versus

distance from TTS in *Dnmt3a$^{-/-}$* J1 mESCs, MEFs, and AgRPs.   Dots represent the

center of hypoDMRs.

Figure 2. Metagene analysis of transcripts downstream of TTSs in three *Dnmt3a-*

deficient mouse cells.

(A-C) Box plots showing the normalized read counts in WT and *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ mutants (J1

mESCs, MEFs, and AgRPs).   Right graphs are enlarged views of the left ones,

respectively.   (D) A pie chart depicting the number and percentage of transcripts with

increased read counts (red) or decreased/unchanged read counts (white) in *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$

AgRPs.   (E) A box plot showed chimeric transcripts in WT and *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ AgRPs.

(F) A pie chart depicting the number and percentage of transcripts with increased

chimeric transcripts (red) or decreased/unchanged chimeric transcripts (white) in

Dnmt3a$^{-/-}$ AgRPs.   (G, G') 2D scatterplots with marginal distribution comparing

hypoDMR length versus distance from TTS in *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ AgRPs.   Grey and red dots

represent the center of hypoDMRs.   Red dots represent hypoDMRs, which lead to

increased chimeric transcripts.   A right graph (G') is an enlarged view of the left one

(G).   (H) A horizontal bar graph represents the distance from TTS of hypoDMRs,

which lead to increased chimeric transcripts, relative to TTS.   Red dots and bars

represent the center and range of hypoDMRs relative to TTS position, respectively.

Figure 3. Generation of MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ zebrafish mutant and characterization of

hypoDMRs.

(A) The *dnmt3aa* genomic DNA sequence and CRISPR/Cas9-mediated indel mutation,

with predicted amino acid sequences, in WT and MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant are shown.

The MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant has a 5-bp deletion which leads to a frame-shift at amino acid

13 position. Schematic diagram shows predicted protein products from the WT and the

mutant allele. It is speculated that the deletion mutation results in the production of a

truncated protein with additional sequences (red box) at the C-termini. Putative

functional domains (PWWP, cysteine-rich ATRX-Dnmt3-Dnmt3L (ADD), and

methyltransferase domains) in the WT protein are represented as grey colored boxes.

(B) Gross morphology of the MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant is identical to WT at 2 dpf. Scale

bar: 1 mm. (C) A heatmap of DNA methylation profiles of hypoDMRs overlapping

TTSs comparing WT with MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant. Color scale indicates DNA

methylation ratio. (D) A violin plot showing DNA methylation ratio of the

hypoDMRs overlapping the TTSs comparing WT with MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant. (E) A

pie chart depicting the number and percentage of hypoDMRs overlapping the TSSs and

TTSs in MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant. (F, F') 2D scatterplots with marginal distribution

comparing hypoDMR length versus distance from TTS in MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant. The

right graph (F') is an enlarged view of the left one (F). Grey dots represent the center

of hypoDMRs.

Figure 4. Metagene analysis of transcripts downstream of TTSs in MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-}

mutant.

(A) A box plot showing the normalized read counts in WT and MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant.

The right graph is an enlarged view of the left one.   (B) A pie chart depicting the

number and percentage of transcripts with increased read counts (red) or

decreased/unchanged read counts (white) in MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant.   (C) A box plot

showing chimeric transcripts in WT and MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant.   (D) A pie chart

depicting the number and percentage of transcripts with increased chimeric transcripts

(red) or decreased/unchanged chimeric transcripts (white) in MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant.   (E,

E') 2D scatterplots with marginal distribution comparing hypoDMR length versus

distance from TTS in MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant.   Grey and red dots represent the center of

hypoDMRs.   Red dots represent hypoDMRs, which lead to increased chimeric

transcripts.   The right graph (E') is an enlarged view of the left one (E).   (F) A

horizontal bar graph represents the distance from TTS of hypoDMRs, which lead to

increased chimeric transcripts, relative to TTS.   Red dots and bars represent the center

and range of hypoDMRs relative to TTS position, respectively.

Figure 5. Identification of read-through and chimeric transcripts in MZ*dnmt3aa*⁻/⁻

mutant.

(A-D) Scheme of primer pair positions to detect aberrant transcripts.   (E) qRT-PCR

analysis for transcripts downstream of TTS (*cytl1*_doT, *im:7152937*_doT, and *kcnk1b*_

doT) in *cytl1*, *im:7152937*, and *kcnk1b* genes.   (F, G) qRT-PCR analysis for transcripts

across the TTSs (*im:7152937*_acT and *kcnk1b*_acT) in *im:7152937* (F) and *kcnk1b* (G)

genes.   (H) qRT-PCR analysis for chimeric transcripts between exons in *im:7152937*

and iD/exon1 in *mns1* (*im:7152937*-iD_cht and *im:7152937-mns1*_cht).   All qRT-PCR

data are presented as means ± SE.   The mean expression level of WT is defined as 1.

Figure 6. A proposed model of transcription termination.

579 **Supplementary Figure S1. Flow chart of bioinformatics analysis and experimental**

580 **design.**

A

B

C

Supplementary Figure S2. Characterization of hyperDMRs and hypoDMRs in

three *Dnmt3a*-deficient mouse cells.

(A) Pie charts depicting number and percentage of the hyperDMRs and hypoDMRs

comparing WT with *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ mutants (J1 mESCs, MEFs, and AgRPs). (B) Heatmaps

of DNA methylation profiles of the DMRs comparing WT with *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ mutants (J1

mESCs, MEFs, and AgRPs). Color scale indicates DNA methylation ratio.

HypoDMRs are shown by vertical black bars. (C) Violin plots showing DNA

methylation ratio of the hypoDMRs comparing WT with *Dnmt3a*$^{-/-}$ mutants (J1 mESCs,

MEFs, and AgRPs).

Supplementary Figure S3. Genomic position of hypoDMRs in three *Dnmt3a*

deficient mouse cells.

Pie charts depicting number and percentage of genomic position (gene body, intergenic

region, and gene body & intergenic region) of the hypoDMRs comparing WT with

Dnmt3a^{-/-} mutants (J1 mESCs, MEFs, and AgRP).

A

B

Supplementary Figure S4. Transcription termination defects of _Rnf157_ gene in

Dnmt3a^{-/-} **AgRPs.**

(A, B) Genome browser view for _Rnf157_ gene in _Dnmt3a^{-/-}_ AgRPs.   Normalized read

counts (A) and chimeric transcripts (B), as an example, are shown in this Figure.

Supplementary Figure S5. Distribution of hypoDMRs which lead to increased read

counts downstream of TTSs in *Dnmt3a⁻/⁻* AgRPs.

(A, A') 2D scatterplots with marginal distribution comparing hypoDMR length versus

distance from TTS in *Dnmt3a⁻/⁻* AgRPs.   Grey and yellow dots represent the center of

hypoDMRs.   Yellow dots represent the hypoDMRs which lead to increased read

counts downstream of TTSs.   A right graph (A') is an enlarged view of the left one

(A).   (B) A horizontal bar graph representing the distribution of hypoDMRs, which

lead to increased read counts, relative to TTS.   Yellow dots and bars represent the

center and range of hypoDMRs, respectively.

Supplementary Figure S6. Characterization of hyperDMRs and hypoDMRs in

MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant.

(A) A pie chart depicting number and percentage of the hyperDMRs and hypoDMRs

comparing WT with MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant.   (B) A heatmap of DNA methylation

profiles of the DMRs comparing WT with MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant.   (C) A violin plot

showing DNA methylation ratio of the hypomethylated DMRs comparing WT with

MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant.

Supplementary Figure S7. Genomic position of hypoDMRs in MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-}

mutant.

A pie chart depicting number and percentage of genomic position (gene body,

intergenic region, and gene body & intergenic region) of the hypoDMRs comparing WT

with MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant.

Supplementary Figure S8. Distribution of hypoDMRs which lead to increased read

counts downstream of TTSs in MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant.

(A, A') 2D scatterplots with marginal distribution comparing hypoDMR length versus

distance from TTS in MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant.   Grey and yellow dots represent the center

of hypoDMRs.   Yellow dots represent hypoDMRs which lead to increased read counts

downstream of TTSs.   A right graph (A') is an enlarged view of the left one (A).   (B)

A horizontal bar graph represents the distribution of hypoDMRs, which lead to

increased read counts, relative to TTS.   Yellow dots and bars represent the center and

range of hypoDMRs, respectively.

Supplementary Figure S9. Transcription termination defects of *cytl1* gene in

MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant.

Genome browser view for *cytl1* gene in MZ*dnmt3aa*^{-/-} mutant.   Chimeric transcripts, as

an example, are shown in this Figure.

Supplementary Figure S10. Transcription termination defects *im:7152937* in

MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant.

Genome browser view for *im:7152937* in MZ*dnmt3aa*$^{-/-}$ mutant.　Chimeric transcripts,

as an example, are shown in this Figure.

666 **Figure S11. A sequencing chromatogram of chimeric transcripts, *im:7152937*-iD-**

667 ***mns1*.**

669 **Supplementary Table S1**

sgRNA ID	oligonucleotide sequence (5' to 3')	gRNA target site (5' to 3')
No.1	TAGGACCCACACACACACAGCG AAACCGCTGTGTGTGTGTGGGT	GTCGCTGTGTGTGTGTGGGTGGG
No.2	TAGGACAGCGACCTAAGAGGGA AAACTCCCTCTTAGGTCGCTGT	ACACAGCGACCTAAGAGGGACGG
No.3	TAGGTTGGATATGGCATTGGAG AAACCTCCAATGCCATATCCAA	GCTCTCCAATGCCATATCCAAGG

673 **Supplementary Table S2**

primer sequence (5' to 3')	objective
Fw: GGTGACTTCACGGATACTACGTC Rv: CACATACCCACACATGCCGCTGT	target amplification for sequencing
GTTCAGAGCTGTACGTCTTCCTG	sequencing
Fw: TCAGCATCGAGTCATGTGATGCC Rv: CACATACCCACACATGCCGCTGT	genotyping (HMA)

676   **Supplementary Table S3**

target	primer position	primer sequence (5' to 3')	reference
cytl1	doT	**Fw:** ATCTGCATCTCCGTCTCATGAC **Rv:** AGAAATCCTCCAGTTCGCTCTG	
im:7152937	doT	**Fw:** AACAACGCGATGAAGGGATG **Rv:** GCGATCAGTTGACGTATTGACC	
kcnk1b	doT	**Fw:** TTAATGGCTGGTTCCATGCG **Rv:** CCACAAAGGCTCTAAATGCAAAC	
im:7152937	acT	**Fw:** CACATCTCTATTCACCATTGTGG **Rv:** ATGATCACTGTGGTGCATCG	
kcnk1b	acT	**Fw:** ACTTTAGCCGAGGGTCTTGAAG **Rv:** TCATCTCAATCGGCAAGTGC	
im:7152937–iD	cht	**Fw:** CACGGGCAGAGAAGTTGTG **Rv:** CGCTATCACCAGTTCGTCAA	
im:7152937–iD–*mns1* (exon 1)	cht	**Fw:** CACGGGCAGAGAAGTTGTG **Rv:** TAATACACGGCGCTCAGTTG	
ube2a	mRNA	**Fw:** TGACTGTTGACCCACCTTACAG **Rv:** CAAATAAAAGCAAGTAACCCCG	1

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680   **Supplementary Table S4**

target	primer sequence (5' to 3')	objective
im:7152937–iD–*mns1* (exon 1)	**Fw:** CACGGGCAGAGAAGTTGTG **Rv:** TAATACACGGCGCTCAGTTG	target amplification for sequencing
vector	GGAAACAGCTATGACCATGA	sequencing

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