GLP is critical for oogenesis exhibiting a G9A-independent role in

transcriptional repression

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Abstract

GLP (EHMT1) functions as an H3K9me1 and H3K9me2 methyltransferase through its reportedly obligatory dimerization with G9A (EHMT2). Here, we investigated the role of GLP in oocyte and embryo development in comparison to G9A using oocyte-specific conditional knockout mouse models (*G9a* cKO, *Glp* cKO, *G9a-Glp* cDKO). Loss of GLP in oogenesis severely impairs oocyte maturation, fertilization and embryo development, resulting in lethality before embryonic day E12.5. In contrast, loss of G9A has a milder effect with a proportion of embryos producing viable offspring. The *Glp* cKO also showed loss of G9A protein and, hence, was phenotypically very similar to the *G9a-Glp* cDKO. H3K9me2 was equally depleted in all cKO genotypes, whereas H3K9me1 was decreased only in *Glp* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes. Furthermore, the transcriptome, DNA methylome and proteome were markedly more affected in *G9a-Glp* cDKO than *G9a* cKO oocytes, demonstrating that in the absence of GLP there are widespread epigenetic and gene expression changes in the oocyte independent of H3K9me2. Gene dysregulation with coupled changes in DNA methylation suggest localised loss of chromatin repression, resulting in upregulated protein expression. Together, our findings demonstrate that GLP can function independently of G9A in the oocyte and is required for oocyte developmental competence.

Keywords

Oocyte, epigenetics, histone modification, histone methyltransferase, H3K9 methylation, DNA methylation, GLP/EHMT1

Introduction

The mammalian germline is the context for widespread epigenetic reprogramming, in which the somatic epigenetic signature is erased and replaced by a germline signature that is distinct in sperm and oocyte. Prior to the onset of gametogenesis, primordial germ cells undergo complete erasure of epigenetic marks, such as DNA methylation (Guibert et al. 2012; Seisenberger et al. 2012) and histone-3 lysine-9 dimethylation (H3K9me2) (Seki et al. 2005). In the oocyte, reprogramming occurs postnatally during oocyte growth, resulting in a unique DNA methylation and histone modification landscape (Hanna et al. 2018a). As the oocyte does not divide during these processes, the oocyte can serve as a tractable system to study epigenetic regulation. Importantly, resetting of epigenetic marks is essential to support successful oogenesis, oocyte-to-embryo transition, as well as embryonic development (e.g. Kaneda et al. 2004; Andreu-Vieyra et al. 2010; Eymery et al. 2016; Kim et al. 2016; Xu et al. 2019).

G9A (EHMT2) and GLP (EHMT1) are best known as histone methyltransferases, although they modify non-histone targets as well. They preferentially function as heterodimers *in vivo* and comprise the main H3K9 mono- and di-methyltransferases in euchromatin (Tachibana et al. 2001; Peters et al. 2003; Rice et al. 2003; Tachibana et al. 2005; Tachibana et al. 2008). Both proteins contain a SET-domain, required for their catalytic activity as methyltransferases and heterodimer formation, as well as an ankyrin repeat domain that enables binding to H3K9me1 and H3K9me2 (Tachibana et al. 2001; Collins et al. 2008). They have been shown to be interdependent, as H3K9me1 and H3K9me2 levels are equally depleted in *G9a* KO and *Glp* KO embryonic stem cells (ESCs) (Tachibana et al. 2005). Moreover, *G9a* and *Glp* KO mouse models show very similar phenotypes with embryos displaying loss of H3K9me2, growth retardation and embryonic lethality between embryonic day (E)8.5 and E12.5 (Tachibana et al. 2002; Tachibana et al. 2005). As such, studies often do not distinguish between G9A and GLP, or solely consider G9A, resulting in limited knowledge of GLP function. However, recent

findings indicate that GLP can act independently of G9A, revealing a role for GLP in targeting

H3K27me2 to the paternal pronucleus in the zygote (Meng et al. 2020).

In the oocyte, loss of G9A impairs maturation and meiosis, with consequences for preimplantation

development, leading to partial embryonic lethality (Au Yeung et al. 2019). However, some embryos

lacking oocyte-derived G9A develop to term and result in healthy pups. The role of GLP in the oocyte

and its impact on embryo development remain unclear. To investigate the importance of maternal

GLP in the oocyte and embryo and compare its function to G9A, we used cKO mice for *G9a* and *Glp*,

as well as a *G9a-Glp* cDKO. We compared the progression of oogenesis and embryogenesis in each

cKO, and evaluated changes in H3K9 methylation, gene expression, DNA methylation and protein

abundance in cKO oocytes. Our findings demonstrate that GLP has a unique and essential function in

the oocyte.

76   Results

GLP and G9a function during oocyte maturation and meiosis

To analyse the function of GLP in oocytes and compare it to that of G9A, we generated three cKO

models. Mice carrying floxed alleles for *G9a* (*G9a* cKO) (Sampath et al. 2007), *Glp* (*Glp* cKO) (Schaefer

et al. 2009) or both *G9a* and *Glp* (*G9a-Glp* cDKO) were crossed with a *Zp3*-Cre driver, which is

expressed exclusively in growing oocytes after postnatal day 5 (Lan et al. 2004). During oocyte

maturation in the ovary, the germinal vesicle (GV) oocyte undergoes a change in chromatin

conformation from a non-surrounded nucleolus (NSN) to a surrounded nucleolus (SN) stage that

coincides with global transcriptional silencing. In control animals, immunofluorescence (IF) analysis

showed that G9A and GLP are detected throughout the nucleus of NSN oocytes, but were no longer

detectable by the mature SN stage (**Supplemental Fig. S1A,B**). In *G9a* cKO oocytes, G9A protein was

lost in NSN oocytes, while GLP remained detectable (**Fig. 1A**). In contrast, *Glp* cKO oocytes were

depleted for both G9A and GLP, similar to *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes, indicating that GLP is required for

G9A stability but not *vice versa*, as was previously shown in mouse ESCs (**Fig. 1A**) (Tachibana et al.

2005).

Loss of G9A has been shown to affect oocyte maturation and meiosis (Au Yeung et al. 2019). To assess

whether loss of GLP has additional effects on developmental capacity of the oocyte, we first analysed

the NSN-to-SN maturation rate by staining fully-grown GV oocytes with DAPI and staging them

according to chromatin conformation. In *Glp* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes from 12-week old

females the proportion of SN oocytes was significantly lower than in *G9a* cKO and control oocytes (**Fig.**

1B), indicating that loss of GLP has a stronger effect on oocyte maturation than loss of G9A alone.

To determine whether GLP is required for meiosis, we analysed spindle conformation and

chromosome alignment of ovulated metaphase II (MII) oocytes after hormonal stimulation. In all three

cKO models, an increase in abnormal chromatin configuration and spindle alignment was observed

compared to controls, although variation between mice was high and differences did not reach

statistical significance (**Fig. 1C**). Many meiotic abnormalities were observed, ranging from

chromosomes that were located together but not aligned ("aggregates"), chromosome alignments

where one or several chromosomes were misaligned, to chromosomes scattered throughout the

nucleus (**Supplemental Fig. S1C,D**). Spindle abnormalities included collapsed, mono- or multipolar

spindles (**Fig. 1C** and **Supplemental Fig. S1C**). Taken together, the results show that loss of G9A has

mild effects on oocyte maturation compared to the significant impairment caused by loss of GLP, while

effects on meiosis were similar.

Loss of maternal GLP but not G9A results in prenatal developmental arrest

To assess whether loss of GLP also compromises competence of oocytes, we examined developmental

progression of embryogenesis. E3.5 embryos were collected from cKO females naturally mated with

wildtype (WT) C57Bl/6Babr males and scored according to developmental stage. The majority of

embryos from control females had reached the blastocyst stage (**Fig. 1D**). In comparison, fewer

embryos derived from cKO oocytes progressed to blastocysts, with the proportion of maternal *G9a-*

Glp cDKO blastocysts significantly reduced, and the proportion of maternal *G9a-Glp* cDKO embryos

arrested at the 1-cell stage significantly increased.

To determine the stage of embryo arrest, embryos were collected from superovulated, naturally

mated cKO females at E1.5 and cultured *in vitro* for 3 days until day E4.5. Already at E1.5 a difference

was observed, all three cKO models having a higher proportion of unfertilized oocytes and 1-cell

embryos than controls. The *G9a-Glp* cDKO again showed the strongest phenotype, having significantly

fewer 2-cell embryos than controls (**Supplemental Fig. S2A**). Fertilized embryos (1- and 2-cell) were

selected for *in vitro* culture: none of the embryos from *Glp* cKO or *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes developed

to blastocysts, arresting at earlier stages (1 to 4-cell stage) by E3.5 (**Supplemental Fig. S2B,C**). In

contrast, 42.9% maternal *G9a* cKO embryos developed at least to morulae by E3.5 (**Supplemental Fig.**

S2B,C). However, this was significantly less than controls where 91.1% of embryos reached morula or

blastocyst stages by E3.5. These findings reveal that embryos derived from *G9a* cKO oocytes show

reduced survival through preimplantation development, whereas preimplantation developmental

competence of *Glp* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes was severely impaired.

A small percentage of embryos from *Glp* cKO oocytes did progress *in vivo* to blastocysts, therefore we

examined the implantation and development of embryos after natural mating. In line with findings

above, there were significantly fewer implanted embryos at E6.5 from *Glp* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO

oocytes than *G9a* cKO and controls (**Fig. 1E**). At E8.5, 3 maternal *Glp* cKO and 6 *G9a-Glp* cDKO embryos

were recovered: all were highly abnormal, with no clear tissue types or only extraembryonic tissue

(**Supplemental Fig. S2D,E**). In contrast, although some abnormalities (predominantly developmental

delay, but also abnormal morphology) were observed among E8.5 embryos from *G9a c*KO oocytes,

most appeared normal (**Supplemental Fig. S2D,E**). By E12.5, 55% (11/25) embryos from *G9a* cKO

oocytes were grossly abnormal or exhibited developmental delay (**Supplemental Fig. S2F,G**). In *G9a-*

Glp cDKO females, with one exception, all embryos had died and only resorption sites were observed

(**Supplemental Fig. S2F**).

Finally, we analysed the number of live pups born after mating cKO females with WT males: no pups

were born to *Glp* cKO or *G9a-Glp* cDKO females, but *G9a* cKO females did give birth to a mean of 3.46

healthy pups per litter, although litter size was significantly reduced compared to controls (**Fig. 1F**).

These results confirm previous findings in showing that although loss of G9A in the oocyte affects

developmental capacity of pre- and post-implantation embryos, some embryos develop normally

resulting in birth of healthy pups (Au Yeung et al. 2019). Our results show loss of GLP in the oocyte

severely impairs embryonic development and although a small proportion of embryos reach the

blastocyst stage and implant they die *in utero* between E8.5 and E12.5.

Differential effects of loss of GLP or G9A on H3K9 methylation

GLP and G9A are H3K9 methyltransferases required for establishment of H3K9me1 and H3K9me2 in

euchromatin (Tachibana et al. 2001; Tachibana et al. 2002; Tachibana et al. 2005). Therefore, we

examined H3K9 methylation in NSN-stage GV oocytes from cKO females (12 weeks) by IF. Consistent

with previous reports (Peters et al. 2003; Rice et al. 2003), H3K9me1 and H3K9me2 were localized

mainly in euchromatic chromatin of NSN oocytes, whereas H3K9me3 was enriched in heterochromatic

foci (**Fig. 2A**). Fluorescence intensity of H3K9me1 was significantly reduced in *Glp* cKO and *G9a-Glp*

cDKO oocytes compared to controls, but not in *G9a* cKO oocytes; in contrast, H3K9me2 decreased

significantly in all three cKOs (**Fig. 2A,B**). A small but significant loss of H3K9me3 was observed in *G9a-*

Glp cDKO oocytes (**Fig. 2A,B**). Rather than a direct effect, this may result from loss of H3K9me1, as the

H3K9me3 methyltransferase SUV39H requires H3K9me1 as a substrate (Pinheiro et al. 2012).

With H3K9me1 and H3K9me2 affected by loss of G9A and/or GLP, we sought to evaluate the genomic

localisation of these marks by ultra low-input native ChIP-seq (ULI-nChIP-seq) in WT GV oocytes from

15 and 25-day old females. We were able to obtain quality ChIP-seq libraries for H3K9me2 (**Fig. 2C**),

but not for H3K9me1. By quantifying 10kb running windows, we observed a reproducible H3K9me2

enrichment between replicates from d15 and d25 WT oocytes, with d25 showing greater enrichment

than d15 GV oocytes (**Fig. 2C, Supplemental Fig. S3A**). H3K9me2-enriched domains in d25 GV oocytes

were defined by merging consecutive 10kb windows with a $Log_2RPKM>2.5$ (34,192 or 12.5% of total

10kb windows; 12,514 domains; **Fig. 2C, Supplemental Fig. S3B; Supplemental Table S1**). To link

H3K9me2 enrichment to transcription levels, we used published data to define CpG-island (CGI) and

non-CGI promoters of low (FPKM<0.1), medium (FPKM 0.1-1.0) and high (FPKM>1.0) expressed genes

(Veselovska et al. 2015), and then compared the overlap of these promoters with H3K9me2-enriched

or random domains (**Supplemental Fig. S3C**). There was no difference in transcription level between

genes localised to H3K9me2-enriched domains or random domains, thus H3K9me2 does not appear

to act as a transcriptional repressor in oocytes.

We then assayed H3K9me2 in replicates of *G9a* cKO, *G9a-Glp* cDKO, and littermate control d25 GV

oocytes. Notably, H3K9me2 libraries from control oocytes were 4.94% of total chromatin, whereas

H3K9me2 libraries from *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes were only 0.58% and 0.33%, respectively

(**Fig. 2D**), confirming that H3K9me2 is almost completely absent from cKO oocytes. Principal

component analysis (PCA) of all biological replicates showed that *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO

H3K9me2 replicates clustered apart from control, d15 WT and d25 WT H3K9me2 replicates (**Fig. 2E**).

When comparing enrichment across H3K9me2-enriched domains (+/-5kb), *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp*

cDKO showed significant loss of H3K9me2 compared to controls, with enrichment comparable to that

in the IgG control (**Fig. 2F**). Furthermore, this effect was specific to H3K9me2-enriched domains, as

there was no observable difference in enrichment between cKOs and controls across a set of random

domains (**Fig. 2F**). There was a similar loss of H3K9me2 in *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes,

supporting the IF results that G9A and GLP are both required for H3K9me2 in oogenesis.

Dysregulation of proteins associated with meiosis, fertilization and oocyte function in *G9a-Glp* cDKO

oocytes

Beside their role as histone methyltransferases, G9A and GLP are known to methylate non-histone

proteins and, by doing so, can potentially modulate their function, localisation or stability. To assess

whether loss of GLP affects protein abundance in the oocyte, we performed low-input (200 oocytes)

quantitative whole-proteome mass spectrometry isobaric labelling analysis of control, *G9a* cKO and

G9a-Glp cDKO GV oocytes. In total, 21,358 peptides were detected at FDR<1% and 3,182 quantified

proteins (**Supplemental Table S2**). Gene ontology (GO) analysis showed enrichment for processes

involved in cellular localization and organization, as well as protein folding, metabolic processes and

fertilization (**Fig. 3A**). Furthermore, among the top 50 most abundant proteins, we detected oocyte-

specific proteins such as members of the subcortical maternal complex (PADI6, NLRP5, NLRP14, TLE6,

KHDC3, NLRP4F), the zona pellucida (ZP1, ZP2, ZP3), as well as proteins known to be highly abundant

in the oocyte (DNMT1, UHRF1).

Comparing *G9a-Glp* cDKO with control oocytes, we identified 187 proteins with a significant change

in abundance ($P<0.05$ and $Log_2FC>0.3$; **Fig. 3B-D, Supplemental Table S2**). In contrast, there were only

38 differentially abundant proteins in *G9a* cKO oocytes, of which 21 overlapped with those in *G9a-Glp*

cDKO oocytes. The majority of changing proteins increased in abundance in both *G9a* cKO (12 down,

26 up) and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes (12 down, 175 up; **Fig. 3B,C**). Although few proteins were identified

to have significant changes in abundance in *G9a* cKO oocytes, many proteins changing in *G9a-Glp*

cDKO oocytes displayed the same directional trend in *G9a* cKO oocytes (**Fig. 3B**).

We detected five known G9A/GLP targets (ACIN1, DNMT1, DNMT3A, MTAL and RUVBL2): none of

these were significantly regulated in cKO oocytes; this is not entirely unexpected as protein

methylation does not necessarily influence abundance, but rather may affect activity. GO analysis did

not detect any significant enrichment terms amongst the differentially abundant proteins. Even so,

we identified several proteins for which change in abundance may be related to the observed oocyte

phenotypes. Among these, two were meiotic factors according to the MGI Gene Ontology Browser

(CDC25B and SIRT1), while literature research linked a further seven (STAT3, TGON1, SET, IMPDH2,

DSTN, SKA3, ROCK1) to meiosis in the oocyte (**Supplemental Table S2**). Furthermore, proteins involved

in oocyte maturation (ERMP1) and fertilization (ASTL) showed significantly increased abundance, as

well as oocyte transcription factor HMGB3. Increased abundance of these proteins may underlie the

meiotic spindle abnormalities, impaired oocyte maturation and poor fertilization rates observed in

G9a-Glp cKO oocytes. In line with observations in oocyte and embryo development, as well as H3K9

methylation, the more severe effect in *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes suggests an additional role for GLP. The

similar but lesser, non-significant changes in protein abundance observed in *G9a* cKO oocytes suggests

that the function of GLP may be compensatory of G9A, rather than unique.

Loss of GLP results in local and distinct DNA methylation changes

G9A-mediated H3K9me2 has been linked to DNA methylation (Tachibana et al. 2008; Zeng et al. 2019),

although genome-wide analysis only detected local DNA methylation changes in *G9a* cKO oocytes and

G9a KO embryos (Auclair et al. 2016; Au Yeung et al. 2019). To examine whether loss of GLP affects

DNA methylation establishment in the oocyte, we first analysed global DNA methylation (5mC and

5hmC) by IF. In NSN oocytes, 5mC was observed throughout the nucleus in both euchromatic and

heterochromatic regions (**Fig. 4A**); 5hmC was enriched in heterochromatic foci but also present in

euchromatin (**Fig. 4A**). No changes in localization of 5mC or 5hmC were observed in cKO oocytes.

However, when assessing 5mC fluorescence intensity, there were significant decreases in the *Glp* cKO

and *G9a-Glp* cDKO compared to control oocytes, but not for *G9a* cKO oocytes (**Fig. 4B**). No significant

changes in 5hmC levels were observed in cKO oocytes, although 5hmC levels also appear reduced in

cKO oocytes. These data suggest that *de novo* DNA methylation may be impaired upon loss of GLP but

not G9A in oocytes.

We then explored changes in DNA methylation in greater resolution by whole-genome bisulphite

sequencing (BS-seq) of control, *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO GV oocytes. In contrast to decreased 5mC

seen by IF, BS-seq did not show significant global changes in DNA methylation (**Supplemental Fig.**

S4A). An explanation for this apparent discrepancy is that the genomic regions assessed by the two

methods differ: IF signal reports both euchromatic and heterochromatic fractions of the genome,

while BS-seq data is enriched in euchromatic and non-repetitive regions that can be uniquely mapped

and analysed. These differences highlight the value of using both methods to understand genome-

wide patterns of DNA methylation and may explain previous contradictory findings (Au Yeung et al.

2019; Zeng et al. 2019).

Although global DNA methylation levels as detected by BS-seq did not differ, local changes in DNA

methylation were analysed by binning the genome into consecutive windows of 100 CpG sites (100-

CpG windows). Differential methylation analysis identified 9,187 DMRs in *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes

(4.88% of all analysed 100-CpG windows), of which 4,184 (45.5%) were hypermethylated (mean

methylation difference: 35.1%) and 5,003 (54.5%) hypomethylated (mean methylation difference

25.6%) (**Fig. 4C; Supplemental Table S3**). Methylation was more affected in *G9a-Glp* cDKO than in *G9a*

cKO oocytes, with >7 times more DMRs identified: there were 1,252 DMRs (0.67% of all analysed 100

CpG windows) in the *G9a* cKO, of which 432 (34.5%) were hypermethylated (mean methylation

difference: 39.4%) and 820 (65.5%) hypomethylated (mean methylation difference: 33.8%)

(**Supplemental Fig. S4B**). Importantly, the majority of *G9a* cKO DMRs overlapped *G9a-Glp* cDKO DMRs

(**Supplemental Fig. 4C**). This indicates that while both G9A and GLP are required for normal DNA

methylation establishment in the oocyte, GLP can partially compensate for loss of G9A, but it does not

exclude the possibility that GLP has an additional G9A-independent role in DNA methylation.

To assess this possibility in more detail, we analysed the regions of the genome affected by DNA

methylation changes. While hypermethylated DMRs show similar overlap with genic and intergenic

regions, hypomethylated DMRs are enriched in genic regions (**Supplemental Fig. S4D**). This is

expected, as hypomethylated DMRs are found in regions that are methylated in control oocytes and

it is well established that DNA methylation localises to transcribed genes in oocytes (Veselovska et al.

2015). To assess whether DNA methylation changes correlate with underlying histone modifications,

we tested the overlap of DMRs with H3K9me2, H3K27me3 and H3K4me3 (**Fig. 4D**). The majority of

DMRs did not overlap regions with H3K9me2 and there was no clear distinction between hyper- and

hypomethylated DMRs, indicating that most DNA methylation changes in cKO oocytes are unlikely to

be a direct consequence of loss of H3K9me2. Interestingly, hypermethylated DMRs were strongly

enriched for H3K27me3, compared to hypomethylated DMRs. Importantly, this enrichment was not

seen for H3K4me3, although both are enriched in regions of the genome lacking DNA methylation.

Because H3K27me3 and DNA methylation are mutually exclusive, this result may indicate a localised

redistribution of the two marks in cKOs.

Since G9A and GLP can interact with UHRF1 (Kim et al. 2009; Ferry et al. 2017), we also investigated

the overlap of DMRs with regions that are hypomethylated in *Uhrf1* cKO oocytes (Maenohara et al.

2017). *Uhrf1* cKO oocytes show widespread hypomethylation, and we observed that both *G9a* cKO

and *G9a-Glp* cDKO hypomethylated DMRs strongly overlap with *Uhrf1* hypomethylated regions

compared to random and random methylated probes (**Fig. 4E**). These data support that loss of G9A

and GLP may disturb a subset of UHFR1-mediated methylation.

Between 21 and 38% of 100-CpG windows identified as DMRs cluster and form larger regions that, in

both genotypes, can span genes (**Fig. 4E**, **Supplemental Fig. S4E-G** and **Supplemental Table S3)**. In

total, there were 707 hypo- and 869 hyper-methylated domains in *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes, with fewer

in the *G9a* cKO (140 hypo- and 66 hyper-methylated domains). To see whether the additional changes

in the *G9a-Glp* cDKO are unique or whether similar (non-significant) trends are present in the *G9a*

cKO, we performed unsupervised cluster analysis of DNA methylation of the cDKO domains (**Fig. 4F**).

For both hypo- and hypermethylated domains, we identified domains common to both cKOs (523

hypo, 590 hyper) and domains unique to the *G9a-Glp* cDKO (229 hypo, 279 hyper; **Fig. 4F,G;**

Supplemental Fig. S4E-G). This indicates that the majority of effects seen in the *G9a-Glp* cDKO are also

present in the *G9a* cKO, although to a lower, often non-significant magnitude. Furthermore, there

appears to be a potentially unique role of GLP in oocyte DNA methylation, although this is likely to be

minor compared to its function compensatory to loss of G9A.

Transcriptome changes direct DNA methylation and protein changes in *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes

We evaluated gene expression changes by RNA-seq in *G9a-Glp* cDKO, *G9a* cKO and matched control

GV oocytes. Differential gene expression was determined by DESeq2 analysis followed by filtering for

genes with $Log_2FC>1.5$. The vast majority of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were upregulated

in the *G9a-Glp* cDKO. Again, *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes were more severely affected than *G9a* cKO

oocytes, with 330 DEGs (301 up, 29 down; **Fig. 5A, Supplemental Table S4**), in contrast to 79 DEGs in

G9a cKO oocytes (64 up, 15 down; **Supplemental Fig. S5A**). Of the *G9a* cKO DEGs, 51 overlapped with

G9a-Glp cDKO DEGs. Clustering analysis identified three clusters: 1) downregulated in both *G9a* cKO

and *G9a-Glp* cDKO; 2) upregulated in both genotypes; and 3) uniquely upregulated in *G9a-Glp* cDKO

(**Fig. 5B**). GO analysis did not show significant category enrichments, but amongst the deregulated

transcripts we identified several transcription factors with a known function in the oocyte (*Prmt7,*

Etv5), zygotic genome activation (*Zscan4d*) and embryo development (*Klf4, Hoxd1, Lmx1a*;

Supplemental Table S4). Furthermore, several genes important for oocyte maturation, meiosis and

fertilization were deregulated (*Atrx, Fgfr2, Prkcq, Ptgs2, Plac1, Mt1*), which may underlie some of the

phenotypic effects we see.

Both our proteome and transcriptome analysis showed a preferential upregulation of protein and

transcript abundance in *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes, respectively. To assess whether changes in transcript

expression may be causative for changes in protein abundance, we used gene set enrichment analysis

(**Fig. 5C**). Indeed, proteins with increased abundance were enriched for transcriptionally upregulated

genes in *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes, whereas proteins with decreased abundance were enriched for

downregulated genes, although this may not account for all the variation in protein abundance. This

indicates that loss of GLP results in deregulated gene expression, which in turn affects abundance of

the corresponding proteins. Hence, although the majority of genes appear unaffected by loss of GLP,

the transcriptional changes that do occur are likely to be of biological significance.

Using the DEG clusters, we assessed the overlap of DEGs with the distribution of histone modifications

(**Supplemental Fig. S5B**). There was no significant enrichment for any of the clusters with H3K9me2,

further supporting that H3K9me2 does not correlate with transcriptional repression in the oocyte

(**Supplemental Fig. S3C**). Interestingly, similar to hypermethylated DMRs, upregulated DEGs (clusters

2 and 3) were enriched in H3K27me3. As transcription is linked to the deposition of gene body DNA

methylation in the mouse oocyte, we analysed the correlation between expression and DNA

methylation changes. Consistently, expression changes of DEGs positively correlated with gene-body

DNA methylation changes in *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes (**Fig. 5D**). In contrast, when evaluating genes with

differential methylation, the correlation was much weaker (**Supplemental Fig. S5C**). These trends

were similar in *G9a* cKO oocytes (**Supplemental Fig. S5D,E**). This shows that the transcriptional

changes observed in *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes impact the associated genic DNA methylation; however,

this association does not explain the majority of DNA methylation changes seen in *G9a-Glp* cDKO

oocytes, thus other mechanisms likely underlie the majority of changes observed.

Discussion

Our present study shows that GLP can partially compensate for loss of G9A and additionally has a G9A-

independent role in oogenesis. We find that GLP is required for oocyte maturation, meiosis and

developmental competence. Few embryos derived from *Glp* cKO oocytes implant and those that do

die mid-gestation. In contrast, maternal *G9a* cKO embryos are less affected and some develop

normally into healthy pups. This difference in severity is also reflected at a molecular level in gene

expression, protein abundance and DNA methylation. Importantly, the differences between the

genotypes are independent of GLP's function as an H3K9me2 methyltransferase, as H3K9me2 was

equally ablated in all. Therefore, we propose that the phenotypes arise from multiple mechanistic

changes in histone modifications, transcriptional regulation and DNA methylation, summarized in

Fig. 6.

To consider the molecular mechanisms underlying the observed phenotypes, it is important to

appreciate that G9A and GLP are proteins with multiple functions. Although best known as histone

methyltransferases, they can methylate and alter the function of non-histone proteins (Shinkai and

Tachibana 2011; Scheer and Zaph 2017). Nevertheless, the strong correlation we observed between

changes in transcript and protein abundance in *G9a* and *G9a/Glp* cKO oocytes supports that the

changes in protein abundance are likely attributable to altered genomic regulation rather than

G9A/GLP directly modulating protein stability. Loss of G9A and GLP resulted in transcriptional

upregulation, supporting previous reports that G9A/GLP act as repressors (Tachibana et al. 2002;

Tachibana et al. 2005). It is unlikely that this can be attributed mostly to loss of H3K9me2, because

only a fraction of genes was upregulated despite almost complete ablation of H3K9me2, and because

of the significant transcriptional differences between the *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO despite similar

deficits in H3K9me2. Alternatively, the effects may be mediated indirectly by G9A/GLP modulating

activity of transcriptional repressors or through other chromatin changes. We also observed

upregulation of some developmental transcription factors, suggesting that some gene expression

changes reflect illegitimate expression of such factors in oocytes. The more extensive transcriptional

deregulation in the *G9a-Glp* cDKO is associated with impaired developmental capacity of the oocyte,

resulting in decreased oocyte maturation, meiotic spindle abnormalities, impaired fertilization and

abnormal embryo development.

G9A and GLP have been linked to DNA methylation in multiple studies. In the embryo, loss of G9A

leads to hypomethylation of a subset of CGI promoters (Auclair et al. 2016). In the oocyte, we and

others do not see widespread hypomethylation, but instead local sites of hypo- and hypermethylation

(Au Yeung et al. 2019). A variety of mechanisms could cause these changes. In the oocyte, *de novo*

DNA methylation requires transcription (Kobayashi et al. 2012; Veselovska et al. 2015). The

transcriptional changes in *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes correlate with DNA methylation

changes, indicating that upregulated gene expression is responsible for some of the hypermethylation

observed. However, the significant localisation of *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO hypermethylated

regions with H3K27me3 suggests that the loss of G9A/GLP may impair the repressive chromatin

landscape in the oocyte, either through H3K9me2 or modulation of a transcriptional repressor.

Conversely, a large subset of hypomethylated DMRs overlapped with regions that are hypomethylated

in *Uhrf1* cKO oocytes (Maenohara et al. 2017). UHRF1 function has been associated with G9A and GLP

in several ways, either by direct interaction (Kim et al. 2009) or indirect recruitment through

H3K9me2/3 or LIG1 (Rothbart et al. 2012; Rothbart et al. 2013; Ferry et al. 2017). However, it is not

clear how these mechanisms apply in the oocyte because of the absence of DNA replication. Although

UHRF1 appears to be required for some genomic DNA methylation, loss of DNMT1 has only minor

effects, largely through a role in ensuring symmetric methylation of *de novo* methylated CpGs (Shirane

et al. 2013; Maenohara et al. 2017). There are likely other mechanisms besides transcriptional

regulation and UHRF1 interactions at play in the *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes. These include

the possibility of a direct interaction of G9A and GLP with DNMT proteins. For example, G9A and GLP

can dimethylate DNMT3A at lysine 44. Methylated DNMT3A can be bound by MPP8, which in turn

binds automethylated GLP, resulting in a DNMT3A-MPP8-GLP silencing complex (Chang et al. 2011).

In contrast to previous reports (Tachibana et al. 2005), we saw that while H3K9me2 depends on both

G9A and GLP, the persistence of GLP in the *G9a* cKO was sufficient to establish H3K9me1. Notably,

loss of G9A and GLP did not completely eliminate H3K9me1, indicating that other methyltransferases,

such as PRDM3 and PRDM16, may be active in the oocyte. It remains unclear whether the decrease in

H3K9me1 may be (partially) causative for the transcriptional and DNA methylation changes: so far,

H3K9me1 has not been associated with either but rather is proposed to be predominantly a substrate

for H3K9 di- and trimethylation (Pinheiro et al. 2012).

It is difficult to distinguish between a compensatory effect and a unique role for GLP in the oocyte.

When comparing transcription, protein and DNA methylation data from *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO

oocytes, some genes/proteins/regions are progressively affected while others only affected in *G9a-*

Glp cDKO oocytes. The possibility of a unique, G9A-independent role for GLP is supported by a recent

study in zygotes, where GLP interacts with PRC2 to establish H3K27me2 in the paternal pronucleus

(Meng et al. 2020). In our models, the unique function was especially apparent in the transcriptome,

where genes with the greatest fold-change where unique to the *G9a-Glp* cDKO. The upregulation seen

in most DEGs was reflected in an upregulation of protein abundance in *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes,

indicating that although only a relatively small proportion of genes is derepressed upon loss of G9A

and GLP, the transcriptional changes are likely to have a functional impact in the oocyte. Indeed, we

saw changes in gene expression and protein abundance of several genes related to oocyte maturation,

meiosis and fertilization. Taken together, our results highlight GLP as a multi-functional protein

involved in different regulatory processes in the oocyte. They show that it has a unique role that is

critical for the developmental capacity of the oocyte and independent of G9A and its role as H3K9me2

methyltransferase.

Materials and methods

Sample collections

All experimental procedures were performed under licences issued by the Home Office (UK) in

accordance with the Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986 and were approved by the Animal

Welfare and Ethical Review Body at the Babraham Institute.

Oocytes and embryos were collected in M2 medium (Sigma-Aldrich, M7167) unless stated otherwise.

GV and MII oocytes for IF analysis were collected from adult mice aged ~12 weeks and fixed in 2% PFA

for 15 minutes. MII oocytes were collected after superovulation. Oocytes used for ChIP-seq, BS-seq

and RNA-seq were collected from ovaries of 22-26 day-old mice using a collagenase/trypsin digest.

For ChIP-seq, 300 GV oocytes were collected in nuclear lysis buffer and pooled from two to four mice

for each replicate. For BS-seq and RNA-seq, replicates were stored in RLT+ buffer (Qiagen). Each

replicate comprised all oocytes collected from one mouse (75-200 GV oocytes). For whole-proteome

analysis oocytes were collected from ovaries of 22-26 day-old mice. To avoid contamination with

proteins/peptides from the medium, oocytes were collected by manual dissection of ovaries in

protein-free L15 medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 31415029). ~200 GV oocytes were collected from

two mice in parallel, washed 3 times in PBS with 1x cOmplete Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Merck,

11697498001).

Preimplantation embryos were collected after natural mating of control and cKO females with

C57BL/6Babr WT males at E0.5 or E3.5. Implantation was determined by counting the number of

implantation sites in uteri at E6.5 after timed mating. To score postimplantation development,

embryos were collected after natural mating at E8.5 and E12.5. For embryo culture, female mice were

superovulated and embryos dissected in M2 medium at E1.5 after natural mating with WT males.

Fertilized embryos (1-cell and 2-cell stage) were selected for culture in M16 medium (Sigma-Aldrich,

MR-016-D) under mineral oil (Sigma-Aldrich, M8410) at 37°C and 5% CO_2 for 3 days, and

developmental progress recorded each day.

Immunofluorescence analysis

IF was performed after antibody staining as previously described (Santos et al. 2003). Primary

antibodies are listed in **Supplemental Table S5**. Samples were analysed on a Zeiss LSM780 confocal

microscope (63x oil-immersion objective). Single optical sections were captured and semi-

quantification of fluorescence intensity was performed using Volocity 6.3 (Improvision).

LC-MS proteome analysis

Oocytes were lysed in 20µl dissolution buffer containing 100mM triethylammonium bicarbonate

(Sigma, T4708) and 0.1% Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate (SDS), followed by water bath sonication and boiling

at 90°C for 5min. Proteins were reduced with tris-2-carboxyethyl phosphine (TCEP, Sigma) for 1h at

60°C at a final concentration of 5mM, followed by cysteine blocking for 10min at room temperature

using methyl methanethiosulfonate (MMTS, Sigma) at final concentration of 10mM. Samples were

digested overnight at 37°C with trypsin (Pierce #90058) and the next day peptides were labelled with

TMT11plex reagents (0.4mg per sample) according to manufacturer's instructions (Thermo Scientific).

To quench the reaction, 3µl of 5% hydroxylamine (Thermo Scientific) was added for 15min and

samples combined and dried with centrifugal vacuum concentrator. The TMT mix was fractionated

with Reversed-Phase spin columns at high pH (Pierce #84868). Nine fractions were collected using

different elution solutions in the range of 5–50% ACN and were analysed on a Dionex UltiMate 3000

UHPLC system coupled with the nano-ESI Fusion-Lumos (Thermo Scientific) mass spectrometer.

Samples were loaded on the Acclaim PepMap 100, 100µm × 2cm C18, 5µm, 100Å trapping column

with the ulPickUp injection method at loading flow rate 5µl/min for 10 min. For peptide separation,

the EASY-Spray analytical column 75µm × 25cm, C18, 2µm, 100 Å column was used for multi-step

gradient elution. Full scans were performed in the Orbitrap in the range of 380-1500 m/z at 120K

resolution and peptides isolated in the quadrupole with isolation window 1.2Th, HCD collision energy

38% and resolution 50K. Raw data were processed with the SequestHT search engine in Proteome

Discoverer 2.1 software and searched against a Uniprot database containing mouse reviewed entries.

The parameters for the SequestHT node were: Precursor Mass Tolerance 20ppm, Fragment Mass

Tolerance 0.02Da, Dynamic Modifications were Oxidation of M (+15.995Da), Deamidation of N, Q

(+0.984Da) and Static Modifications were TMT6plex at any N-Terminus, K (+229.163Da) and

Methylthio at C (+45.988Da). The consensus workflow included TMT signal-to-noise (S/N) calculation

and the level of confidence for peptide identifications was estimated using the Percolator node with

decoy database search. Strict FDR was set at q-value<0.01. For downstream data analysis, the R

package qPLEXanalyzer was used (Papachristou et al. 2018). The mass spectrometry proteomics data

have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository (Perez-

Riverol et al. 2019) with the dataset identifier PXD030265.

Preparation of sequencing libraries

ChIP-seq libraries were prepared using ULI-nChIP as previously described (Hanna et al. 2018b).

Antibodies were added at 250ng/reaction for both anti-H3K9me2 (mouse monoclonal, Abcam,

ab1220) and anti-IgG (rabbit polyclonal, Diagenode, EB-070-010). Library preparation was completed

with a MicroPlex Library Preparation kit v2 (Diagenode) with Sanger 8-base indices for multiplexing.

Relative enrichment over input was quantified using the library concentrations determined by

Bioanalyzer High Sensitivity DNA Analysis (Agilent). Low input bisulphite (BS)-seq libraries were

prepared by post-bisulphite adapter tagging as previously described (Hanna et al. 2018b). RNA-seq

libraries were prepared as described (Hanna et al. 2019).

Sequencing and data processing

Libraries were sequenced on Illumina MiSeq, HiSeq2500 and NextSeq500 systems. ChIP-seq libraries

were sequenced to an average of 57 million paired-end reads of 75 bp read-length (**Supplemental**

Table S5). BS-seq libraries were sequenced to an average of 16 million paired-end reads for *G9a* cKO

and 26 million reads for *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes of 100-125 bp read-length. RNA-seq libraries were

sequenced to an average single read number of 1.9 million for *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes of

50 bp read-length. Raw fastq files were processed with Trim Galore, then mapped to the mouse

GRCm38 genome. Mapping of ChIP-seq data was done using Bowtie2, RNA-seq data by Hisat2 v2.1.0

guided by known splice sites, BS-seq data with Bismark v0.19.0.

Sequencing data analysis

Sequencing data analysis was conducted using SeqMonk

(https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/seqmonk/). For ChIP-seq analysis, 10kb

running windows (*N*=272,566) were quantified as reads per kilobase per million (RPKM). Windows

were filtered to exclude mapping artefacts, defined as RPKM>6 in at least one replicate set of 10%

input libraries (*N*=408). H3K9me2 enrichment was defined as Log_2RPKM>2.5 in d25 GV oocytes

(*N*=34,192). A set of random windows was sampled from all 10kb windows (*N*=35,000). H3K9me2-

enriched and random windows were then merged with adjacent windows within 10kb, resulting in

12,154 H3K9me2-enriched domains and 26,077 random domains. Genic and intergenic regions were

defined as overlapping or not overlapping oocyte transcripts, respectively, and promoters were

defined as +/-500bp around transcription start sites of oocyte transcripts (Veselovska et al. 2015). CGIs

were defined as previously described (Illingworth et al. 2008). Oocyte transcription levels were

categorized into not expressed (FPKM<0.1), low expressed (FPKM 0.1-1) and high expressed (FPKM>1)

using published data (Veselovska et al. 2015).

BS-seq data were analysed using a tile-based approach of 100 CpGs for each consecutive genome

window, ensuring equal CpG content in all windows analysed. Methylation values were quantified

using the bisulphite-sequencing pipeline quantification, which calculates per-base methylation

percentages and averages these within each window. Filters were applied to ensure a minimum

coverage of ≥10 observed cytosines per window. Only windows with this minimal coverage in all

samples were taken into account, allowing assessment of 86.2% of 100 CpG windows (*N*=188,433).

Differentially methylated regions (DMRs) were defined by statistical comparison of DNA methylation

levels for each 100 CpG window between control and *G9a* cKO or control and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes

using the EdgeR function in SeqMonk. To assess overlap of DMRs with genomic features, CGI and

oocyte gene annotations were used from (Veselovska et al. 2015). DMRs were merged to form

differentially methylated domains (DMDs). Hierarchical clustering analysis of DMDs was performed in

R using Euclidean distance and Ward's agglomeration method as implemented by the package

pheatmap.

For analysis of RNA-seq data, expression of oocyte genes (Veselovska et al. 2015) was quantified using

log transformed read count quantitation per million reads. Differential gene expression was analysed

using DESeq2 followed by filtering of genes with Log$_2$FC>1.5. Clustering analysis of DEGs was

performed in R using Euclidean distance and Ward's agglomeration method. Relative enrichment of

differentially abundant proteins amongst DEGs was displayed using the barcode method from the

Limma R package. The ranked list of expression changes only considered genes corresponding to

proteins identified in the proteome. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient between DNA

methylation difference and expression log$_2$FC was used to interrogate the relationship between DNA

methylation and transcriptional changes.

Sequencing data were submitted to the GEO under accession number GSE191026. Publicly available

ChIP-seq and BS-seq data under accessions GSE93941, DRA005849 were used to develop our studies.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was conducted in Graphpad Prism, R and VassarStats. SN proportion was compared

using two-way ANOVA (Stage x Genotype) with Šídák's multiple comparisons test. Proportion of

embryo stage at E3.5, number of implantation sites at E6.5 and mean fluorescence intensity of

confocal IF images were analysed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's posthoc test. Litter sizes were

compared using a nested one-way ANOVA with mouse as nested factor. A χ-square test was used to

analyse frequency of overlap of genic/intergenic regions with DMRs, histone modifications with DMRs,

Uhrf1 hypomethylated regions with DMRs and DEGs with histone modifications. *P*-value was adjusted

using Bonferroni correction to control for multiple comparisons.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Developmental potential of *G9a* cKO, *Glp* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes.

A) Representative images showing IF for G9A and GLP in NSN oocytes. Scale bar: 20 μm.

B) Stacked bar chart showing percentage of NSN, intermediate and SN oocytes from mice aged 12

weeks. Number of mice: Control=5, *G9a* cKO=3, *Glp* cKO=2, *G9a-Glp* cDKO=3. Ctrl *vs. G9a* cKO:

P=0.7667; Ctrl *vs Glp* cKO: *P= 0.0075*; Ctrl *vs G9a-Glp* cDKO: *P<0.0001*; *G9a* cKO *vs G9a-Glp* cDKO

P=0.0058.

C) Bar charts showing percentage of chromosome misalignments and spindle abnormalities in MII

oocytes. Dots represent datapoints from single mice. Examples of normal and abnormal spindles

are shown in IF images below. *G9a* cKO: *P=0.7037*; *Glp* cKO: *P=0.0678*; *G9a-Glp* cDKO: *P=0.0670.*

D) Stacked bar chart showing developmental stage (%) of embryos from cKO females mated with WT

males and collected on E3.5. Number of mice: Control=5, *G9a* cKO=5, *Glp* cKO=6, *G9a-Glp* cDKO=6.

Blastocysts: Ctrl *vs G9a* cKO *P=0.9939*; Ctrl *vs Glp* cKO *P=0.0761*, Ctrl *vs G9a-Glp* cDKO *P=0.0073*;

One-cell stage: Ctrl *vs G9a-Glp* cDKO *P=0.0406.*

E) Bar chart showing number of implantation sites scored at E6.5. Dots represent single mice. Ctrl *vs*

Glp cKO *P=0.0093*; Ctrl *vs G9a-Glp* cDKO *P=0.0020.*

F) Boxplots showing average litter size of females with cKO oocytes mated with WT males. Number

of mice: Control=9, *G9a* cKO=5, *Glp* cKO=3, *G9a-Glp* cDKO=3; Number of litters: Control=60, *G9a*

cKO=26, *Glp* cKO=0, *G9a-Glp* cDKO=0; Ctrl *vs G9a* cKO: *P=0.0087.*

Figure 2. Analysis of H3K9 methylation in *G9a* cKO, *Glp* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes.

A) Representative IF images of NSN oocytes for H3K9me1, H3K9me2 and H3K9me3 in control, *G9a*

cKO, *Glp* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes.

B) Boxplots of quantitation of IF images. Dots represent individual oocytes. Analysis is based on 2-5

mice per genotype and 3-4 replicate experiments for each antibody.

C) Genome screenshot showing H3K9me2 enrichment as determined by ChIP-seq in WT oocytes

from mice aged 15 and 25 days. Y-axis scaling represents RPKM. Annotation tracks highlight oocyte

transcripts, CpG islands, oocyte DNA methylated and unmethylated domains, and H3K9me2-

enriched domains ($Log_2RPKM>2.5$ in d25 GV oocytes).

D) Boxplots showing relative enrichment over input of H3K9me2 ChIP-seq libraries. Dots represent

individual samples.

E) PCA plot of H3K9me2 (blue shading), input (green shading) and IgG (yellow shading) ChIP-seq

libraries, comparing WT (d15 and d25), control, *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO samples.

F) Probe trend plot showing loss of H3K9me2-enrichment in *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes

compared to WT and control oocytes in H3K9me2-enriched domains but not random domains.

Figure 3. Proteome analysis of *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes.

A) GO analysis of the oocyte proteome.

B) Volcano plot showing differential abundance of proteins in *G9a* cKO oocytes compared to

controls. Significantly changing proteins ($P<0.05$ and Log$_2$FC>0.3) are highlighted in dark blue

(decreased abundance) or dark red (increased abundance); light blue and light red dots indicate

proteins changing significantly in cDKO oocytes.

C) Volcano plot showing differential abundance of proteins in *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes compared to

controls. Significantly changing proteins ($P<0.05$ and Log$_2$FC>0.3) are highlighted in dark blue

(decreased abundance) or dark red (increased abundance). Light blue and light red dots indicate

proteins changing significantly in *G9a* cKO oocytes. Proteins changing significantly and with oocyte

function of interest are labelled.

D) Venn diagram of significant changing proteins in *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes.

Figure 4. DNA methylation changes in *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes.

A) Representative IF images of NSN oocytes showing 5mC and 5hmC in Control, *G9a* cKO, *Glp* cKO

and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes.

B) Boxplots of quantitation of IF images. Dots represent individual oocytes. Analysis is based on 2

mice per genotype and 2 replicate experiments for each antibody.

C) Scatterplot showing methylation levels of 100-CpG windows in control vs *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes.

Unique cDKO DMRs are highlighted in blue, DMRs shared with *G9a* cKO oocytes in red.

D) Barchart showing percentage overlap of DMRs and random probes with H3K9me2, H3K37me3

and H3K4me3. H3K9me2: *G9a* cKO hyper *adj. P*=0.0136, *G9a* cKO hypo *P<0.0001, G9a-Glp* cDKO

hypo *P<0.0001*; H3K27me3: *G9a* cKO hyper *P<0.0001, G9a-Glp* cDKO hyper *P<0.0001*; H3K4me3:

all genotypes *P<0.0001*.

E) Barchart showing percentage overlap of DMRs with 100-CpG windows that are hypomethylated

in *Uhrf1* cKO oocytes (>20% methylation difference, (Maenohara et al. 2017)), random 100-CpG

windows and 100-CpG windows that are highly methylated (>75%) in WT and *Uhrf1* cKO oocytes.

G9a cKO hyper *adj. P=0.0404*, *G9a-Glp* cDKO hyper, *G9a* cKO hypo and *G9a-Glp* cDKO hyper

P<0.0001.

F) Genome screenshot showing example of a region uniquely hypomethylated in *G9a-Glp* cDKO

oocytes spanning the *Arhgef10l* transcript. Annotation tracks show position of H3K9me2-enriched

domains and oocyte transcripts.

G) Heatmap showing clustering analysis of *G9a-Glp* cDKO hypo- and hypermethylated domains.

Figure 5. Transcription changes in *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes in relation to protein and DNA methylation

changes.

A) Scatterplot showing expression levels in control vs. *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes. Unique cDKO DEGs are

highlighted in blue, DEGs with Log$_2$FC>1.5 in red and DEGs shared with *G9a* cKO oocytes in green.

B) Heatmap showing relative expression levels (RPKM) of up- and down-regulated *G9a-Glp* cDKO

DEGs that overlap with *G9a* cKO DEGs.

C) Plot showing link between changes in transcript and protein abundance. The X-axis shows Log$_2$FC

(Control vs. *G9a-Glp* cDKO) of genes present in both transcriptome and proteome datasets

(*N*=2933). Blue and red boxes represent down- and up-regulated transcripts, respectively, with a

FC>1.5 (Log$_2$FC>0.585). Vertical blue and red lines represent differentially abundant proteins

(*P*<0.05 and Log$_2$FC>0.3; ten proteins not detected in the RNA-seq data are not represented).

Enrichment scores, shown above and below, show that downregulated proteins are enriched

among downregulated transcripts and upregulated proteins enriched among upregulated

transcripts (Spearman correlation R=0.43; P=2.2x10^{-9}).

D) Plot showing correlation between methylation changes (% methylation difference) and expression

changes (Log$_2$FC) of DEGs in *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes. Relative expression levels (RPKM) of each

gene are indicated by the colour scale. Spearman correlation is shown.

Figure 6. The distinct roles of GLP and G9A in the oocyte.

A) Summary of the developmental and molecular phenotypes of *G9a* cKO, *Glp* cKO and *G9a-Glp*

cDKO oocytes.

B) Proposed activities of GLP homodimers and G9A/GLP heterodimers on H3K9 methylation.

C) Interaction of GLP and/or G9A/GLP with UHRF1 could explain DNA hypomethylation in cKO and

cDKO oocytes.

D) Alternative chromatin changes that could contribute to gene up-regulation in *G9a* cKO and *G9a-*

Glp cDKO oocytes.

Competing interest statement

The authors declare no competing interests.

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638   the data. C.H., H.D., J.C-F., and K.K. performed data analysis. C.H., H.D. and J.C.-F. generated

639   manuscript figures. H.D. drafted the manuscript, with input from C.H., J.C.-F., E.K.P., C.D'S. and G.K.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Distinct roles for G9A and GLP in the oocyte

Control	*G9a* cKO	*Glp* cKO	*G9a-Glp* cDKO
G9a-Glp heterodimer as predominant form	GLP homodimer	G9a homodimer not stable	No G9a nor GLP
	Reduced littersize	Embryonic lethal	Embryonic lethal
Direct regulation: - H3K9me2 - H3K9me1? - Non-histone targets? Direct or indirect regulation: - Transcription - Protein abundance - DNA methylation - Oocyte maturation - Meiosis	Compensation or direct function of GLP: - H3K9me1 - Proteome - Oocyte maturation Deregulated processes: - H3K9me2 depletion - Small transcriptional changes - Regional changes in DNA methylation - Abnormal meiosis	Deregulated processes: - H3K9me2 depletion and decreased H3K9me1 - Reduced oocyte maturation - Abnormal meiosis Not investigated: - Transcription - Protein abundance - DNA methylation	Deregulated processes: - H3K9me2 depletion and decreased H3K9me1 - More transcriptional changes - More and larger changes in DNA methylation - Changes in protein abundance - Reduced oocyte maturation - Abnormal meiosis

B H3K9 methylation

C UHRF1-dependent hypomethylation

D Control / G9a cKO / G9a-Glp cDKO

Supplemental Figures

Figure S1: G9A and GLP expression in the oocyte and their effects on meiosis

A, B) Representative images showing DNA stained with DAPI, G9A expression **(A)** and GLP expression **(B)** in NSN and SN control oocytes. The scale bar represents 20μm. **C)** Example images showing meiotic abnormalities observed in MII oocytes. The spindle is stained with an anti-α-tubulin antibody (green) and the chromatin with DAPI (blue) and anti-pan-histone (red). **D)** Stacked bar charts showing the percentage of types of meiotic abnormalities (chromosome alignment and spindle conformation) observed in oocytes.

Figure S2: *In vitro* preimplantation and *in vivo* postimplantation development of embryos lacking maternal G9A and/or GLP.

A) Stacked barchart showing developmental stage of embryos collected at E1.5 after superovulation and natural mating with C57Bl6/Babr WT males. One-way ANOVA with Tukey's posthoc test: 2-cell stage Control vs G9a-Glp cDKO P = 0.0068**. **B)** Stacked barcharts showing developmental stage of embryos cultured in vitro after natural mating on E1.5, E2.5, E3.5 and E4.5. One-way ANOVA with Tukey's posthoc test: morula stage Control vs *G9a* cKO *P = 0.0006***. **C)** Images showing examples of embryos cultured in vitro on E3.5. **D, E)** Table showing embryo development at E8.5 **(D)** and E12.5 **(E)** after natural mating of conditional KO females with WT males. Each line represents one female mouse. Indicated are the number of normal embryos, abnormal embryos and resorption sides for each female.

Figure S3: ChIP-seq analysis showing H3K9me2 distribution in control, *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes.

A) Screenshot showing H3K9me2 enrichment and reproducibility of replicates. **B)** Histogram showing number of 10 kb windows with a certain enrichment level in d25 WT oocytes. The red line indicates the threshold set to define H3K9me2 enrichment (RPKM > 2.5). **C)** Pie charts showing overlap of H3K9me2 enriched and random probes with untranscribed (FPKM < 0.1), lowly transcribed (FPKM 0.1-1) and highly transcribed genes (FPKM > 1).

Figure S4: DNA methylation analysis of *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes with corresponding littermate controls.

A) Box-whisker plots showing global DNA methylation levels using average methylation levels of 100 CpG windows. Ctrl *vs G9a* cKO *P* = 0.5378; Ctrl vs *G9a-Glp* cDKO *P* = 0.6077 **B)** Scatterplot showing methylation levels of control vs *G9a* cKO oocytes. Unique *G9a* cKO DMRs are highlighted in blue and DMRs shared with *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes in red. **C)** Venn diagrams, showing overlap of hypermethylated and hypomethylated DMRs between *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes. **D)** Barchart showing percentage of DMRs and random probes overlapping CGIs, genic and intergenic regions. Qi-square comparing genic and intergenic DMRs: G9a cKO *adj. P = 0.026**; all others *P < 0.0001****. **E-G)** Genome screenshots showing examples differentially methylated domains. Shown are a region that is hypomethylated in both *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes **(E)**, a region that is hypermethylated in both *G9a* cKO and *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes **(F)** and a region that is uniquely hypermethylated in *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes **(G)**.

Figure S5: RNA-seq analysis showing transcriptome changes in G9a cKO and G9a cDKO oocytes and their link with DNA methylation.

A) Scatterplot showing expression levels of control vs. *G9a* cKO oocytes. Unique *G9a* cKO DEGs are highlighted in blue, DEGs with Log2FC>1.5 in red and DEGs shared with *G9a-Glp* cDKO oocytes in green. **B)** Barchart showing proportion of DEGs overlapping with histone modifications. DEGs are split according to the clustering analysis of **Figure 5B**. Qi-square analysis comparing DEGs to random probes: *P < 0.0001***.* **C)** Plot showing link between methylation and expression changes of differentially methylated genes in G9a-Glp cDKO oocytes. **D, E)** Plot showing link between methylation and expression changes of differentially expressed genes (C) and differentially methylated genes (D) in G9a cKO oocytes. **C-E)** Expression levels are indicated by the colour scale. Spearman correlation indicated in plot.