INO80 regulates chromatin accessibility to facilitate meiotic sex chromosome inactivation

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Abstract

The INO80 protein is the main catalytic subunit of the INO80-chromatin remodeling complex, which is critical for DNA repair and transcription regulation in murine spermatocytes. In this study, we explored the role of INO80 in silencing genes on meiotic sex chromosomes. Robust INO80 immunolocalization at the XY body in pachytene spermatocytes suggested a role for INO80 in the meiotic sex body. Subsequent deletion of *Ino80* resulted in high expression of sex-linked genes. Furthermore, the active form of RNA polymerase II at the sex body of *Ino80*-null pachytene spermatocytes indicates incomplete meiotic sex chromosome inactivation (MSCI). A reduction in the recruitment of MSCI initiators argues for INO80-facilitated recruitment of DNA repair factors required for MSCI initiation. This role of INO80 is independent of a common INO80 target H2A.Z. Instead, in the absence of INO80, a reduction in chromatin accessibility at DNA repair sites occurs on the sex chromosomes. These data suggest a unique role for INO80 in DNA repair factor localization, thereby facilitating the silencing of sex-linked genes during the onset of pachynema.

Introduction

Mammalian gametogenesis involves the meiotic division of diploid germ cells that undergo homologous chromosome synapsis and recombination to generate haploid gametes. Extended prophase I during meiosis ensures the faithful execution of recombination to shuffle genetic material between homologous chromosomes by controlled introduction of DNA double-strand breaks (DDSB) followed by their repair (Handel and Schimenti, 2010). Synapsis between homologous autosomes occurs

during the zygotene stage of meiotic prophase I. In contrast, non-homologous regions of the X and Y sex chromosomes in male germ cells do not synapse with each other (Burgoyne and Baker, 1985).

During pachynema, DNA double-strand break repair (DSBR) factors no longer localize to autosomes indicating completion of DSBR. For the sex chromosomes, the DSBR factors sequester at unpaired regions, forming a unique chromatin domain called the sex body (Solari, 1964; Yan and McCarrey, 2009). The sex chromosomes undergo an extensive chromatin remodeling process to induce epigenetic silencing of sex-linked genes. This process is known as meiotic sex chromosome inactivation (MSCI) (Turner, 2015). Incomplete MSCI leads to germ cell death during pachynema causing male infertility (Turner, 2015).

The sex chromosomes in spermatocytes undergo modifications by several DNA damage repair (DDR) factors such as BRCA1, ATR, and its activator TOPBP1 at the unpaired (asynapsed) chromosome axes (Turner et al., 2004). MSCI initiates by DNA double-strand breaks (DSB) at the asynapsed axes and the incorporation of DSBR proteins at these DSB sites (Carofiglio et al., 2013; Schoenmakers et al., 2008). ATR localizes to the DSBs along the chromosome axes (Royo et al., 2013). Serine-139 phosphorylation of H2A.X (γH2A.X) at the DSBs by ATR leads to the recruitment of another DSB factor, MDC1 (Ichijima et al., 2011a; Royo et al., 2013; Stewart et al., 2003; Stucki et al., 2005). MDC1 localization amplifies γH2A.X in the protruding chromatin loops along the axes, resulting in the establishment of the characteristic sex-body and MSCI (Ichijima et al., 2011a; Ichijima et al., 2012).

Chromatin remodelers are critical regulators of chromatin accessibility. They play vital

roles in several cellular processes, including DNA repair and transcription regulation.

Chromatin remodeling enzymes can hydrolyze ATP to change chromatin conformation

by moving, evicting, or incorporating nucleosomes. They can also facilitate specific

histone variant exchange to change local chromatin accessibility. There are four major

families of chromatin remodeling complexes, all of which play critical functions in murine

spermatogenesis (Dowdle et al., 2013; Imai et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2012; Li et al., 2014;

Serber et al., 2016; Spruce et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2012). However, it is unclear

whether chromatin remodelers play any role in the meiotic silencing of the sex

chromosomes.

Here, we explore the role of INO80 in silencing meiotic sex chromosomes. We show

that INO80 interacts with and regulates sex-linked gene silencing in pachytene

spermatocytes. Further, INO80 promotes the opening of the sex chromatin during the

zygonema-to-pachynema transition. INO80 also facilitates the interaction of DNA repair

factors at the DSB sites and interacts with DSBR factors to facilitate the silencing of sex

chromosomes.

Results

INO80 localizes to the sex chromosomes in meiotic germ cells

Immunofluorescence localization of INO80 in pachytene spermatocytes revealed robust

staining on the sex chromosomes (Fig. 1A, B). Chromatin immunoprecipitation followed

by high throughput sequencing (ChIP-seq) for INO80 (GEO Dataset GSE179584)

(Chakraborty and Magnuson, 2022) also showed binding on the sex chromosomes (Fig.

1C). INO80 binding occurred at the zygotene and pachytene stages (GEO Dataset

GSE190590) (Carbajal et al., 2022). However, localization is more enriched at the

postnatal day 18 (P18) pachytene stage (Fig. 1C). Additionally, INO80 binding sites on

sex chromosomes are present at the DSB sites identified by the meiotic DSB marker

γH2A.X. These binding sites include promoter and intergenic regions and gene bodies

(Fig. S1). These data suggested a possible role of INO80 in silencing the expression of

genes on the sex chromosomes.

INO80 regulates sex chromosome silencing in pachytene spermatocytes

RNAseq analysis of changes in P18 transcription from autosomes in wild type

(*Ino80*WT) and germ cell-specific *Ino80*-null (*Ino80*cKO) spermatocytes (GEO Dataset

GSE179584) revealed up-and down-regulated genes (padj< 0.05). However, the mean

changes in expression remained close to zero (Fig. 2A). In contrast, the differentially

expressed genes (DEGs) (padj< 0.05) from the X- and Y- chromosomes remained

upregulated in *Ino80*cKO cells (Fig. 2A). When plotted along the length of three

representative autosomes and the sex chromosomes, like autosomal genes, DEGs from

sex chromosomes occur along the length of the chromosomes (Fig. 2C). We further

validated the upregulation of five representative sex-linked genes (*Ccnb3, Nxt2, Eda2r,*

Abcd1, Usp11) in *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes by qRT-PCR analysis (Fig. 2B). These data

corroborated our RNAseq data.

Consistent with transcriptional silencing, immunofluorescence analysis of the active

form of RNA polymerase II (pSer2) revealed its absence at the sex chromosomes in

*Ino80*WT pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. 2D). These data correlate with normal

transcriptional silencing. In contrast, continued RNA polymerase II (pSer2)

immunofluorescence in *Ino80*cKO pachytene spermatocytes indicates incomplete

silencing of the sex-linked genes (Fig. 2D).

INO80 is necessary for the localization of DSBR factors to sex chromosomes

DSBR factors such as ATR, γH2A.X, and MDC1 are required to initiate meiotic sex

chromosome inactivation in pachytene spermatocytes (Fernandez-Capetillo et al., 2003;

Ichijima et al., 2011a; Royo et al., 2013). We explored the localization of these DSBR

proteins in P21 wild-type and mutant pachytene spermatocytes. Complete sequestration

of ATR occurred on early *Ino80*WT pachytene sex chromosomes (Fig. 3A). In contrast,

ATR lacked localization on the sex chromosomes of early to mid-pachytene *Ino80*cKO

spermatocytes. We tested the activity of ATR by immunostaining for the ATR substrate

phospho-CHK1 (S345) (Fedoriw et al., 2015). Although the localization of pCHK1

(S345) was limited to the sex chromosomes in *Ino80*WT pachytene spermatocytes,

aberrant localization occurred in *Ino80*cKO autosomes (Fig. 3B). These data indicate

active DNA binding and kinase activity of ATR in the *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes.

During pachynema progression, the amplification of ATR-mediated phosphorylation of

H2A.X depends on MDC1 recruitment (Ichijima et al., 2011a). We next determined

MDC1 localization in *Ino80*cKO pachytene spermatocytes. Robust MDC1

immunofluorescence was visible on early- to mid-pachynema *Ino80*WT sex

chromosomes (Fig. 3C,D). Conversely, reduced staining occurred at the same stages in

*Ino80*cKO spermatocytes (Fig. 3C,D). These results indicate that INO80 facilitates the

localization of MDC1 at sex chromosome DSBs during pachynema. Further, to

determine MDC1 recruitment, we performed cleavage under targets and release using

nuclease (CUT&RUN) in *Ino80*WT and *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes. Quantitative PCR

analysis revealed a distinct reduction in MDC1 enrichment at several DSB regions

marked by γH2A.X binding (obtained from the publicly available dataset GSE75221)

(Fayer et al., 2016) (Fig. S2A). These data corroborate our previous observations.

Further, we also observed downregulation of MDC1 mRNA and protein in the *Ino80*cKO

spermatocytes (Fig. S2B,C). In addition, the enrichment of INO80 at the promoter of

Mdc1 suggests a requirement for INO80 regulation of MDC1 expression (Fig. S2D).

To determine whether INO80 physically recruits DSB repair factors, we performed co-

immunoprecipitation for INO80 from P21 spermatocytes. The presence of ATR and

MDC1 with the INO80-immunoprecipitated samples (Fig. 3E) and the detection of

INO80 in MDC1- and ATR-immunoprecipitated samples (Fig. S2E) supports the

physical interaction between INO80 and DSBR factors ATR and MDC1. The addition of

ethidium bromide to the spermatocyte lysate did not alter either MDC1 or ATR detection

in the immunoblot (Fig. 3E). This result indicates the interaction between MDC1 and

INO80 is chromatin independent.

Because MDC1 is essential for amplifying γH2A.X, we determined whether perturbation

of γH2A.X distribution occurred in the *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes. Robust γH2A.X

staining was observed spanning the entire sex body in the *Ino80*WT but not the

*Ino80*cKO spermatocytes. Instead, a reduction in the γH2A.X signal occurred on the

axes of the sex chromosomes (Fig. 4).

INO80 regulates chromatin accessibility at the sex chromosomes

INO80 is capable of histone exchange, most notably removing H2A.Z from chromatin

(Brahma et al., 2017; Papamichos-Chronakis et al., 2011). To determine how INO80

changes chromatin dynamics on the sex chromosomes, we compared H2A.Z

occupancy at sex-linked gene promoters in P18 *Ino80*cKO and *Ino80*WT

spermatocytes. Little change in H2A.Z levels occurred at the promoter and

transcriptional start sites (TSS) and INO80 binding sites on the sex chromosomes (Fig.

S3A-B). These results suggest that H2A.Z is not mediating the effect of INO80 in the

sex body. We also examined the occupancy of activating histone modification H3K4me3

and suppressive histone modification H3K27me3. Neither of these showed any change

(Fig. S3C,D).

Chromatin accessibility can be another regulator of DNA-interacting protein binding at

the chromatin. A global change in chromatin accessibility occurs in developing

spermatocytes during the mitosis-to-meiosis transition and subsequent progression

through meiosis (Maezawa et al., 2018). We performed Assay for Transposase-

Accessible Chromatin with high-throughput sequencing (ATAC-seq) to determine

accessible chromatin distribution in the developing *Ino80*WT spermatocytes at P12

(enriched at zygonema) and compared it with ATAC-seq data from P18 *Ino80*WT

spermatocytes (enriched at pachynema) (GEO Dataset GSE179584) (Chakraborty and

Magnuson, 2022). Chromatin accessibility at promoter/TSS regions in autosomes at

both P12 and P18 was higher than that observed for the sex chromosomes (Fig. S4A).

Further, a substantial increase in chromatin accessibility occurred at these regions in

both autosomes and sex chromosomes from P12 to P18 (Fig. S4A). This increase did

not reverse in *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes at P18 (Fig. S4A). These data indicate a lack of

requirement for INO80 in generating accessible chromatin at promoter/TSS during this

transition. Next, we determined how the distribution of chromatin accessibility changed

during the zygonema to pachynema transition. Comparison of sex chromosome-specific

ATAC-peaks revealed a small portion of unique sites (1.34%) on P12 spermatocytes.

Most P12 peaks remained at P18. The common peaks account for 20% of the P18

ATAC peaks from sex chromosomes, while 80% of ATAC peaks at P18 were *de novo* in

nature (Fig. S4B). Comparison of ATAC-peaks on sex chromosomes from *Ino80*cKO

spermatocytes (GEO Dataset GSE179584) (Chakraborty and Magnuson, 2022)

showed only 17% of these *de novo* peaks remain in *Ino80*cKO, and 83% of de novo

peaks are lost (Fig. S4B). Further, genomic annotation analysis of these ATAC-peaks

from sex chromosomes suggested a significant increase in intronic (9% to 19%) and

distal intergenic (24% to 51%) accessible regions during the transition from P12 to P18

(Fig. S4C). This result is because 81% of the *de novo* gained peaks occurred in intronic

and distal intergenic regions, and only 7% were at promoter/TSS sites (Fig. S4C). In

*Ino80*cKO spermatocytes, we observed a loss of a similar distribution of peaks. Most of

the binding occurred in intronic and intergenic regions, suggesting that INO80 regulates

the generation of these peaks (Fig. S4C).

We next performed a chromosome-specific comparison of accessible regions at each

peak between P12 and P18 spermatocytes from *Ino80*WT testes. These experiments

revealed a significant increase in chromatin accessibility at various locations across

autosomes and sex chromosomes (Fig. 5A). All autosomes showed an increase in

chromatin accessibility at most of the differentially accessible regions (FDR <0.05) (Fig.

5A). However, sex chromosomes, especially the X-chromosome, exhibited a greater

degree of increase at all the differentially accessible regions (FDR < 0.05) (Fig. 5A). The

genomic location of the differentially accessible sites mainly occurs at the intronic and

intergenic areas. At the same time, a minor portion of them occur at promoter-proximal

regions (Fig. 5B). The distribution of increased and decreased accessible areas (FDR <

0.05) was primarily similar. In contrast, the number of regions with reduced accessibility

was minimal. These data indicate that a genome-wide increase in chromatin

accessibility occurs during the zygonema to pachynema transition. The increase is more

prevalent on the sex chromosomes (Fig. 5A).

To determine the role of INO80 in regulating the transition in chromatin accessibility

during meiotic progression, we compared the accessible sites in P18 spermatocytes

from either *Ino80*WT or *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes (GEO Dataset GSE179584)

(Chakraborty and Magnuson, 2022). We observed a minimal change in accessible

chromatin at the autosomes. In contrast, most of the differentially accessible regions

were located at the sex chromosomes, demonstrating a much larger and significant

change in accessibility (Fig. 5C). Genomic annotation analyses suggested that these

differentially accessible chromatin regions mainly belong to intronic and intergenic

regions (Fig. 5D). This data indicate that INO80 plays a vital role in regulating the

increased chromatin accessibility on the sex chromosome during meiotic progression.

We next compared ATAC-signal from *Ino80*WT and *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes at the

DSB regions marked by γH2A.X binding (obtained from publicly available dataset

GSE75221) (Fayer et al., 2016). A significant decrease in chromatin accessibility in

Ino80cKO suggests a less permissive environment for DSBR factor recruitment at the

DSB sites (Fig. 5E). These data indicate an essential role for INO80 in recruiting DNA

damage repair factors to sex chromosome DSBs by regulating chromatin accessibility.

Discussion

In this study, we demonstrated a unique role for INO80 in silencing sex-linked genes

during pachynema in spermatocytes. INO80 regulates chromatin accessibility at DSB

regions of the sex chromosomes. This regulation is independent of the histone variant

H2A.Z, a major INO80 effector. We also demonstrated that INO80 interacts with DSBR

factors ATR and MDC1, facilitating MDC1 recruitment at the sex chromosomes during

pachynema.

An earlier report showed that male germ cell-specific deletion of *Ino80* results in a

meiotic arrest phenotype in 8-week-old murine testes (Serber et al., 2016). A significant

population of spermatocytes displays defects in synapsis. However, at ~3 weeks post-

partum, the zygotene and pachytene spermatocyte populations remain similar between

*Ino80*WT and *Ino80*cKO testes. In contrast, the absence of INO80 perturbs the

transition from pachynema to diplonema (Chakraborty and Magnuson, 2022). We

observed a lack of downregulation of sex-linked differentially expressed genes in

*Ino80*cKO spermatocytes. Furthermore, active RNA polymerase II at the sex

chromosomes corroborates the observation of an incomplete MSCI. Several other

studies that describe roles for MSCI-regulating factors also reported similar

characteristics (Becherel et al., 2013; Hirota et al., 2018; Ichijima et al., 2011b; Yeo et

al., 2015).

Several studies have described a regulatory role for INO80 in DNA damage response in

somatic cells and meiosis (Morrison, 2017; Poli et al., 2017; Serber et al., 2016). The

INO80 chromatin remodeling complex interacts with DNA damage factors such as

γH2A.X and MEC1 (ATR) at DSB repair sites in yeast (Morrison et al., 2004; Poli et al.,

2016). We also found that INO80 interacts with DNA repair factors ATR and MDC1 in

meiotic spermatocytes. γH2A.X recruitment at DSB sites during zygonema remained

intact in *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes. We propose that the initial deposition of γH2A.X at

the synapse axis of sex chromosomes initiates INO80-facilitated recruitment of MDC1.

This recruitment amplifies γH2A.X in chromatin loops in an INO80-facilitated ATR-

dependent fashion.

INO80 is known to regulate transcription in several cell types. It facilitates the

recruitment of RNA polymerase II (RNAPII) and its cofactors to the promoters of

pluripotency network genes. This recruitment regulates embryonic stem cell

pluripotency and reprogramming (Wang et al., 2014; Zhou et al., 2016). It can also

regulate gene expression by facilitating histone modifications and the exchange of

histone variants such as H2A.Z in different cell types (Alatwi and Downs, 2015; Brahma

et al., 2017; Chakraborty and Magnuson, 2022; Yu et al., 2021). However, INO80-

dependent silencing of sex-linked genes in meiotic spermatocytes seems to be

independent of INO80-mediated direct transcriptional regulation by enabling DNA

binding factor recruitment at the promoter-proximal areas.

We showed that INO80 regulates sex chromosome accessibility during meiotic

progression. Chromatin accessibility is a central regulator of DNA damage repair

response. Less accessible DNA hinders successful and efficient DNA repair

(Luijsterburg and Van Attikum, 2011; Price et al., 2013). Chromatin accessibility is also

essential in transcription factor recruitment and efficient transcription regulation at the

promoter-proximal areas (Allis and Jenuwein, 2016). We observed an increase in

overall chromatin accessibility at promoter regions of autosomes and sex

chromosomes.

In contrast, a similar level of accessibility remains at the promoter-proximal areas of sex

chromosomes due to *Ino80 deletion*. Maezawa *et al.* previously reported that the

accessibility at the promoter/TSS during the pachynema transition remains relatively

unchanged. At the same time, substantial changes in gene expression occur at this time

(Maezawa et al., 2018). It is possible that chromatin accessibility is dynamically

controlled and changes substantially between stages during spermatogenesis.

Additionally, the *de novo* generation of ATAC-seq peaks may explain gene silencing

during MSCI. Further, INO80 appears to be a central regulator of this process by

regulating this *de novo* accessibility generation, as most of these peaks are lost in

*Ino80*cKO spermatocytes. The loss of accessibility at the γH2A.X-binding DSB regions

due to *Ino80* deletion also indicates a possible INO80-dependent recruiting mechanism

for DSBR factors such as MDC1.

Here we propose that INO80 mediates the *de novo* opening of chromatin around the

DSB regions and facilitates recruitment of MDC1, whereby MDC1 initiates γH2A.X

amplification by enabling ATR recruitment (Fig. 6).

Materials and methods

Animals and genotyping

Ino80 homozygous floxed (Chakraborty and Magnuson, 2022; Serber et al., 2016)

female mice (*Mus musculus*), maintained on an outbred CD1 background, were crossed

with *Stra8-Cre$^{Tg/0}$* males (Sadate-Ngatchou et al., 2008) to produce *Ino80$^{f/+}$*;

Stra8Cre$^{Tg/0}$ males. Male *Ino80^{fl+}* (*Ino80^{WT}*) and *Ino80$^{Δ/f}$; Stra8Cre$^{Tg/0}$* (*Ino80*c^{KO}*)

littermates were obtained by crossing *Ino80^{f/f}* females with *Ino80^{f/+}; Stra8Cre^{Tg/0}* males.

Table S1 lists primers used for genotyping. Mice were maintained in an environment

with controlled temperature and humidity with 12 h light and 12 h dark cycles and fed *ad*

libitum. All animal experiments were performed according to the protocol approved by

the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at the University of North Carolina at

Chapel Hill.

RNA isolation and quantitative RT-PCR

Total RNA was isolated from Ino80WT and Ino80cKO spermatocytes using Trizol

reagent (Invitrogen) followed by the Direct-zol RNA kit (Zymo). Reverse transcription

was performed by the ProtoScript® II reverse transcriptase (NEB) using random

primers. Real-time PCR was performed using Sso Fast EvaGreen supermix (Bio-Rad)

on a thermocycler (Bio-Rad). Primers used in this study is listed in Table S2.

Immunofluorescence staining

Spermatocyte nuclear spreads were prepared from freshly harvested testes following a

published protocol (Wojtasz et al., 2009) with modifications (Biswas et al., 2018). Briefly,

single-cell suspensions were prepared from seminiferous tubules. 3μl were added to

three volumes of 0.25% NP40 (9ul) on a clean glass slide and incubated for 2 minutes

at room temperature. Next, Fixative solution (36ul; 1% paraformaldehyde, 10 mM

sodium borate buffer (pH 9.2) was added to the sample, and the slides were incubated

in a moist chamber for 2 hours at room temperature. Lastly, slides were dried under a

hood, washed with 0.5% Kodak Photo-Flo 200 three times, 1 minute each, and stored at

-80˚C.

To make cryosections, freshly harvested testes were embedded and frozen in the

Optimum Cutting Temperature (OCT) embedding medium. Cryosections (7uM) on glass

slides were fixed in freshly made 4% paraformaldehyde solution in PBS for 10 mins at

4˚C. Following fixation, samples were washed in PBS 3 times, 5 minutes each, and

permeabilized in PBST (PBS + 0.1% Triton-X 100) 3 times for 5 minutes each. Samples

were incubated with blocking buffer (10% goat/donkey serum, 2% bovine serum

albumin, 0.1% Triton-X 100 in PBS) for 1 hour at RT before incubation with primary

antibody (listed in Table. S3) in blocking buffer overnight at 4˚C. The following day,

samples were washed 3 times, 5 minutes each with PBST, and incubated with Alexa

Fluor-conjugated secondary antibody at room temperature for one hour. Samples were

washed once with PBST and counterstained with DAPI, followed by three washes with

PBST, 5 minutes each, and mounted in Prolong Gold anti-fade medium (P-36931; Life

Technologies).

Isolation of male germ cells

The spermatogenic cells were isolated following a previously published protocol (Chang

et al., 2011). Briefly, freshly isolated testes were decapsulated, and seminiferous

tubules were digested with collagenase (1mg/ml) in HBSS for 15 minutes at 32˚C. Next,

the tubules were precipitated by gravity for 5 mins at room temperature and separated,

followed by a second digestion with collagenase (1 mg/ml) and trypsin (0.1%) in HBSS

for 15 min at 32˚C. Trypsin was inactivated by adding equal amounts of soybean trypsin

inhibitor. The digested product was pipetted and filtered through first 70 uM and then by

40uM cell strainers to get spermatocyte suspension. The cells precipitated by

centrifugation at 500x*g* for 10 mins, followed by two washes with HBSS. The cells were

finally precipitated and either used in a following experiment or frozen at -80˚C for later

use.

Nuclear lysate preparation

Nuclear lysate preparations occurred by isolating spermatogenic cells from P21 testes

and incubating the cells in a hypotonic buffer (buffer A:10mM HEPES-KOH pH7.9,

1.5mM MgCl2, 10mM KCl, 0.1% NP-40, 5mM NaF, 1mM Na3VO4, 1mM PMSF, 1x

Protease inhibitor cocktail) using 10-20 times the volume of the precipitated cell volume

(PCV). After incubation on ice for 15 minutes, the cells were centrifuged at 1000xg for

10 minutes at 4˚C. The cells were precipitated and resuspended in buffer A, using twice

the PCV, and homogenized with Dounce 'B' pestle 5 times on ice. Cells were

precipitated by centrifugation at 1000 x g at 4˚C. Precipitated nuclei were washed in

buffer A and resuspended in equal volume lysis buffer (Buffer C) (20mM HEPES-KOH

pH7.9, 1.5mM MgCl2, 420mM NaCl, 10mM KCl, 25 % glycerol, 0.2mM EDTA, 5mM

NaF, 1mM Na3VO4, 1mM PMSF, 1x Protease inhibitor cocktail) for 30 minutes at 4˚C

on a nutator. The homogenate was cleared by centrifugation at 12000 x g for 10 mins at

4˚C and the supernatant saved in a separate tube. The extraction was performed again

from the pellet, and the supernatant mixed with the previous one. The lysate was diluted

with 2.8 volume of dilution buffer (Buffer D) (20mM HEPES-KOH pH7.9, 20 % glycerol,

0.2mM EDTA, 5mM NaF, 1mM Na3VO4, 1mM PMSF, 1x Protease inhibitor cocktail) to

reduce the salt concentration and DTT added as necessary to a final concentration of

1mM. Some samples were treated with ethidium bromide (50ug/ml) to inhibit DNA-

protein interaction (Lai and Herr, 1992) and followed by centrifugation at 12000 x g for

10 minutes at 4˚C.

Co-Immunoprecipitation

Co-immunoprecipitation was performed using 1-1.5 mg proteins from nuclear extracts

from the spermatocytes. The lysate diluted with immunoprecipitation (IP) buffer (20mM

HEPES-KOH pH7.9, 0.15mM KCl, 10% glycerol, 0.2mM EDTA, 0.5mM PMSF, 1x

Protease inhibitor cocktail) to 1mg/ml concentration. For rabbit antibodies, Protein A

conjugated Dynabeads (Invitrogen), and for mouse antibodies, Protein G conjugated

Dynabeads (Invitrogen) were used (50ul per sample). Dynabeads were washed in PBS

3 times, 1 minute each, followed by incubation in PBS + 0.5% BSA for 10 minutes. Next,

the beads were washed in PBS and IP buffer before use. Samples were precleared with

dynabeads for 30 minutes at 4°C, followed by the addition of primary antibody (Table

S3) and incubation at 4°C for 1 hour. Next, dynabeads were added to the samples and

incubated overnight at 4°C. The next day, each sample was washed once in high salt

wash buffer (20mM HEPES-KOH pH7.9, 300mM KCl, 10 % glycerol, 0.2mM EDTA, 0.1

% Tween-20, 1mM PMSF, Protease inhibitor cocktail), twice in IP wash buffer (20mM

HEPES-KOH pH7.9, 150mM KCl, 10 % glycerol, 0.2mM EDTA, 0.1 % Tween-20, 1mM

PMSF, Protease inhibitor cocktail), and once in final wash buffer (20mM HEPES-KOH

pH7.9, 60mM KCl, 10 % glycerol, 1mM PMSF, 1x Protease inhibitor cocktail). Protein

elution was performed using 1.3X Laemmli buffer and incubating at 65°C for 15 minutes,

followed by magnetic removal of Dynabeads. The samples were finally heated at 95°C

for 5 minutes to denature and stored at -20°C until used.

Western Blotting

Proteins samples were subjected to polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis followed by

overnight wet transfer to polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes for fluorescence

391 detection. Blots were blocked by Li-COR intercept blocking buffer followed by primary

392 antibody (Table S3) incubation overnight in TBS with 0.1% Tween-20. Fluorescent Li-

393 COR secondary antibodies were used for visualization, and blots were scanned using a

394 Li-COR scanner.

CUT&RUN

Cleavage under targets and release using nuclease (CUT&RUN) was performed using

250,000 spermatocytes per sample from $Ino80^{WT}$ and $Ino80c^{KO}$ testes following a

previously published protocol (Meers et al., 2019). Briefly, a single cell suspension of

spermatocytes was prepared and immediately washed three times, followed by

attachment with concanavalin-A coated beads. These cells were further permeabilized

using digitonin and incubated overnight at 4˚C with either IgG or antigen-specific

primary antibody (Table S3). The next day, beads were washed twice, followed by

protein-A/G-MNase binding in a calcium-free environment. Following two more washes

to remove unbound Protein-A/G-MNase, calcium was introduced to start chromatin

digestion for 30 mins at 0˚C. Digested chromatin fragments were released for 30 mins

at 37˚C. The released chromatin was purified using DNA purification columns (Zymo

ChIP DNA Clean & Concentrator). The elute was quantitated, followed by library

preparation and qPCR to evaluate enrichment at specific genomic locations with

primers listed in Table S2.

Data analysis

ChIP-sequencing data were trimmed as necessary using trimmomatic (Bolger et al.,

2014). The reads were aligned to mouse reference genome mm10 using Bowtie2

(Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) with sensitive settings. Samtools (Danecek et al.,

2021) was used to de-duplicate and merge the alignments. Deeptools (Ramírez et al.,

2014) was used to make depth-normalized coverage tracks and metaplots after

removing the mm10 blacklisted regions. MACS2 (Zhang et al., 2008)was used to call

peaks using the options –extsize set to 147 and –nomodel.

RNAseq reads were aligned by Tophat2 (Kim et al., 2013) to mm10, and read counts

were obtained by HTseqCount (Anders et al., 2015). DESeq2 (Love et al., 2014) was

used with recommended settings to perform differential expression analysis. Plots were

prepared by ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016) and chromoMap (Anand and Rodriguez Lopez,

2022).

ATAC-seq reads were processed by nf-core/atacseq (ver 1.1.0) pipeline (Ewels et al.,

2020). Briefly, reads were trimmed by Trim Galore

(https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore/) and aligned to mouse

reference genome mm10 using BWA. Picard (https://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/)

was used to mark the duplicates and normalized coverage tracks scaled to 1 million

mapped reads were prepared by BEDTools

(https://bedtools.readthedocs.io/en/latest/index.html). Differential accessibility analysis

was performed by CSAW (Lun and Smyth, 2015) using region-based

binned read count followed by TMM normalization using genome-wide background

estimation. Genomic annotation of peaks was performed by Homer (Heinz et al., 2010).

Plots were created in R using ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016).

Statistical analysis

The Wilcoxon rank sum test and the signed-rank test were performed for unpaired and

paired observations, respectively, from ChIP-seq or ATAC-seq data. For multiple

comparisons, ANOVA was performed, followed by Tukey's *post hoc* test.

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Author contribution

P.C. and T.M. conceived the study; P.C. carried out experiments, and data were

analyzed and interpreted by P.C. and T.M. Manuscript was written by P.C. and edited

by T.M.

Data availability

The sequencing data from RNA-seq, ChIP-seq and ATAC-seq experiments are

deposited in the GEO database (Accession number GSE179584 and GSE221682).

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing or financial interests.

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Figure legends

Figure 1: INO80 localization in the germ cells. (A,B) INO80 immunolocalization in the

pachytene spermatocyte spreads (A) and the seminiferous tubule of the testis (B).

SCP3 staining indicates the stage of the meiotic spermatocyte. Magenta: SCP3, Green:

INO80, Blue: DAPI. Arrowhead: Sex chromosomes. Scale bar = 10μM. C; Enrichment

of INO80 obtained by ChIP-seq on the XY chromosomes during zygonema at postnatal

day 18 (P18), where most cells are in the pachytene stage. Blue: P18, Red: Zygonema.

Figure 2: **INO80 required for transcriptional silencing of sex chromosomes during**

meiotic prophase. (A) Boxplots showing mean differential gene expression from each

chromosome in response to *Ino80* deletion in spermatocytes. The yellow dotted line

indicates mean $Log_2FoldChange = 0$. Chr: Chromosome. (B) Quantitative RT-PCR

analysis of representative sex-linked gene expression levels normalized to *Rplp2* in

either *Ino80*WT or *Ino80*cKO testes. *; p<0.05. (C) Location of the differentially

regulated genes along the length of three representative autosomes and the sex

chromosomes. Dots above each chromosome indicate the fold change of individual

genes. Upregulated and downregulated genes are indicated by red and blue,

respectively. (D) Immunolocalization of SCP3 (magenta) and RNA Polymerase II

(pSer2) (green) in spermatocytes either from *Ino80*WT or *Ino80*cKO (Scale bar = 10μM)

showing aberrant localization RNA Polymerase II (pSer2) in *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes

that are indicative of incomplete sex-chromosome silencing. White arrowhead; sex

chromosome. The white circle denotes an approximate area of the sex body.

Figure 3: DNA damage repair factor recruitment at the sex chromosomes

facilitated by INO80. (A,B) Immunolocalization of SCP3 (magenta) and either ATR

(green) (A) or pCHK1 (S345) (green) (B) in spermatocytes from *Ino80*WT or *Ino80*cKO.

DAPI shown in blue. Scale bar = 10μM. White arrowhead; sex-chromosome. (C)

Immunolocalization of SCP3 (magenta) and MDC1 (green) in spermatocytes from

*Ino80*WT or *Ino80*cKO. Scale bar = 10μM. White arrowhead; sex-chromosome. DAPI

showed in blue. Scale bar = 10μM. (D) Fluorescent intensity measurement of MDC1

signal at the sex chromosomes from either *Ino80*WT or *Ino80*cKO pachytene

spermatocytes. *; p<0.05 (E) Immunoblot images demonstrating the interaction of

INO80 with ATR and MDC1 by the presence of MDC1 and ATR in INO80

immunoprecipitated *Ino80*WT spermatocyte homogenates and INO80 when

immunoprecipitated with MDC1 from *Ino80*WT spermatocyte homogenate.

Figure 4: Aberrant γH2A.X localization in *Ino80cKO* spermatocytes.

Immunolocalization of SCP3 (magenta) and γH2A.X (green) in pachytene

spermatocytes from *Ino80*WT or *Ino80*cKO (Scale bar = 10μM). DAPI is shown in blue.

Scale bar = 10μM. White arrowhead; sex-chromosome.

Figure 5: INO80 regulates chromatin accessibility in spermatocyte sex

chromosomes. (A) Dot plot showing the relative changes in accessibility on each

chromosome at P18 pachytene spermatocytes compared to P12 zygotene

spermatocytes. Red dot: FDR < 0.05; Black dot: FDR > 0.05. (B) Genomic annotation of

the differentially accessible regions from (FDR < 0.05) as shown in (A). (C) Dot plot

showing relative changes in chromatin accessibility on each accessible site in each

chromosome due to *Ino80* deletion at P18. Red dot: FDR < 0.05; Black dot: FDR > 0.05.

(D) Genomic annotation of the differentially accessible regions from (FDR < 0.05) as

shown in (C). (D); Genomic annotation of the differentially accessible regions due to

Ino80 deletion. (E) Boxplot showing the mean change in ATAC-signal (chromatin

accessibility) at all the γH2A.X marked DSB sites (Fayer et al., 2016) between *Ino80*WT

and *Ino80*cKO in P18 spermatocytes. *; p<0.05.

Figure 6: **Schematic illustration of INO80-mediated regulation of meiotic sex-**

chromosome silencing. INO80 facilitates MDC1 recruitment at the DSB sites and

regulates chromatin accessibility at these regions. MDC1 recruitment allows ATR-

mediated amplification of γH2A.X at the chromatin loops. *Ino80*-deletion results in

decreased chromatin accessibility and a lack of MDC1 recruitment, which fails to initiate

ATR-mediated amplification of γH2A.X.

Figure S1: INO80 binding at the DSB sites. Genomic tracks illustrating INO80 binding

at the DSB sites marked by γH2A.X (Fayer et al., 2016) in P18 (Chakraborty and

Magnuson, 2022) and zygotene (Carbajal et al., 2022) spermatocytes. Each separate

genomic location is denoted by alternating background coloring. IG-Up; Intergenic-

Upstream.

Figure S2: INO80 facilitates MDC1 recruitment and expression. (A) Bar plot showing

input normalized enrichment of MDC1 binding determined by CUT&RUN followed by

qPCR analysis. Each pair of bars represent enrichment in either *Ino80*WT (blue) or

*Ino80*cKO (orange) spermatocytes. Each location in the X-axis represents sex-linked

DSB regions marked by γH2A.X (Fayer et al., 2016). The negative control region is GD.

IntGen = Intergenic region, Int=Intron. (B) Boxplot showing the normalized count of

Mdc1 transcripts from *Ino80*WT and *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes. (C) Immunoblot showing

MDC1 (top) and α-Actin (bottom) expression from *Ino80*WT and *Ino80*cKO

spermatocytes on P18. (D) Genomic tracks illustrated the enrichment of INO80,

H3K27me3, and H3K4me3 at the *Mdc1* promoter-proximal area. (E) Immunoblot

images demonstrate the interaction between INO80 with ATR and MDC1 by the

presence of INO80 in both ATR and MDC1 immunoprecipitated samples. The top panel

shows two brightness and contrast levels from the same blot to visualize MDC1 in input

and immunoprecipitation samples. Spliced sections in the bottom panel are part of the

same blot.

Figure S3: Metaplot illustrating changes in H2A.Z (A-B), H3K4me3 (C), and

H3K27me3 (D) occupancy at either INO80 binding sites (A) or promoter/TSS regions

(B-D) in sex chromosomes.

Figure S4: (A) Metaplot illustrating chromatin accessibility at the promoter/TSS regions

of autosomes and sex chromosomes in either P12 *Ino80*WT or P18 *Ino80*WT and

*Ino80*cKO spermatocytes. (B) Comparison of ATAC peaks during the transition from

P12 spermatocyte to P18 spermatocyte and in P18 *Ino80*WT vs. *Ino80*cKO

spermatocytes. (C) Genomic annotation of ATAC-peaks in P12 and P18 spermatocytes,

as well as the peaks that were de novo generated during pachynema transition during

P18 and lost due to *Ino80* deletion.

Table S1: Genotyping primers used in this study.

Allele	Sequence
Ino80 floxed forward	5'-GATACTTCTGCCTCCACACTTC-3'
Ino80 floxed reverse	5'-CTGGCACCTTTCCAGTCTTT-3'
Ino80 excised forward	5'-TGTGTAGCAACCTACAGCTA-3'
Ino80 excised reverse	5'-GTTGCTGTGTCTTTGCTTTG-3'
Stra8Cre forward	5'-GTGCAAGCTGAACAACAGGA-3'
Stra8Cre reverse	5'-AGGGACACAGCATTGGAGTC-3'

756   Table S2: Quantitative PCR primers used in this study.

Region/Gene	Sequence
Ccnb3 Forward	5'-GCTCACCTCAAGCCCATTAT-3'
Ccnb3 Reverse	5'-TTGACTGGTGGCTTCTCTTTAG-3'
Nxt2 Forward	5'-GTAGAGCTGCCGAGGAATTT-3'
Nxt2 Reverse	5'-TCCAGATTAGAGTGGCTTTGTC-3'
Eda2r Forward	5'-CCAGTTGAGCTTAGTGAAGGTAG-3'
Eda2r Reverse	5'-AGGAAGGCCAGAGCAAATAC -3'
Abcd1 Forward	5'-TGGATGGACGACTTCGAAAC-3'
Abcd1 Reverse	5'-GGCTTGGTCAGGTTGGAATA-3'
Usp11 Forward	5'-GCTCGTTCAGCACAGTGATA-3'
Usp11 Reverse	5'-TCCTGAGGCTCTACCAGAAA-3'
Rplp2 Forward	5'-CCTAGCGCCAAAGACATCAA-3'
Rplp2 Reverse	5'-GACCTTGTTGAGCCGATCAT-3'
GD Forward	5'-TGCCTTAGGGAGAGAGTGATAG-3'
GD Reverse	5'-TCCACACGTCCAGTGATTTG-3'
IntGen 1 Forward	5'-AGCTTGAACAGAGAGTCAACAG-3'
IntGen 1 Reverse	5'-CAAGGCTCATCATGAATGGAATG-3'
IntGen 2 Forward	5'-GAAGGAGGGAATGGGATTGT-3'
IntGen 2 Reverse	5'-GAGTTATGGCCTCGAAGTAGTC-3'
Prrg1 int3 Forward	5'-CATGGATGCGAGGCCATTA-3'
Prrg1 int3 Reverse	5'-ACACTTCAGAATGAGCAAGGAG-3'
Atg4a int9 Forward	5'-GGCAGAGGCATAGGTGAAA-3'
Atg4a int9 Reverse	5'-TGCTCCTCTGCCACAATTC-3'

Shroom4 ex4 Forward	5'-TCACGGTCCTCAGCATAGT-3'
Shroom4 ex4 Reverse	5'-GGCTGCCTTCCTGGATTT-3'
IntGen 3 Forward	5'-GTAGGTCATGGGTTCCAACT-3'
IntGen 3 Reverse	5'-AGTAACCATCTGGTGCTCTG-3'

758   Table S3: Primary antibodies used in this study.

Primary antibody	Source	Amount/Dilution
Rabbit anti-INO80	Abcam (ab105451)	ChIP-seq (10µg) WB (1:2000) IF (1:700)
Rabbit anti-INO80	Novus Biologicals (NBP1-78758)	IP (10 µg) IF (1:500)
Rabbit anti-ATR	Abcam (ab2905)	IP (10 µg)
Rabbit anti-ATR	Millipore (09-070)	WB (1:1000)
Goat anti-ATR	Santa Cruz (sc-1887)	IF (1:50)
Rabbit anti phospho-CHK1(Ser345)	Cell signaling (2348)	IF (1:200)
Mouse anti-MDC1	Novus Biologicals (NBP2-12890)	WB (1:1000) IF (1:200) CUT&RUN (1:200)
Mouse anti-alpha-Actin	Santa Cruz (sc-32251)	WB (1:2000)
Mouse anti-SYCP3	Abcam (ab97672)	IF (1:1000)
Rabbit anti-SYCP3	Novus Biologicals (NB300-231)	IF (1:200)
Goat anti-phospho RNA Polymerase II (Ser2)	Active Motif (61084)	IF: (1:200)

Mouse anti-γH2A.X	Millipore (05-636)	IF (1:1500)

Chakraborty_Figure. S1

Chakraborty_Figure. 2

Chakraborty_Figure. 3

Chakraborty_Figure. S2

Chakraborty_Figure. S3

Chakraborty_Figure. S4

A

Autosome

- P18-Ino80WT
- P12-Ino80WT
- P18-Ino80cKO

Relative enrichment

-3.0   TSS   3.0Kb

XY

-3.0   TSS   3.0Kb

B

% P18 WT XY peaks

0   10   20   30   40   50   60   70   80   90

P12 WT-Unique

Common

P18 WT-Unique

Ino80 cKO
P18 WT-Unique retained

P18 WT-Unique lost

0   500   1000 1500 2000 2500 3000 3500 4000
Number of Peaks

C

Feature Distribution

P12 XY

P18 XY

P18 de-novo

P18 de-Novo lost

0   25   50   75   100
Percentage(%)

Feature
- Promoter
- 5' UTR
- 3' UTR
- 1st Exon
- Other Exon
- 1st Intron
- Other Intron
- Downstream (<=300)
- Distal Intergenic

Chakraborty_Figure. 5