**INO80 regulates chromatin accessibility to facilitate suppression of sex-linked gene expression during mouse spermatogenesis**

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**Summary Statement:**

Chromatin accessibility and DNA repair factor localization at the sex chromosomes are facilitated by INO80, which regulates sex-linked gene silencing during meiotic progression in spermatocytes.

**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 in male mice. 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 inactivation of sex-linked genes.  A reduction in the recruitment of initiators of meiotic sex chromosome inhibition (MSCI) argues for INO80-facilitated recruitment of DNA repair factors required for silencing sex-linked genes. 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 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 (DSB) followed by their repair (1). 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 (2).

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 (3,4). The sex chromosomes undergo chromatin remodeling to induce epigenetic silencing of sex-linked genes. This process is known as meiotic sex chromosome inactivation (MSCI) (5). Incomplete MSCI leads to germ cell death during pachynema causing male infertility (5).

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 (6,7). MSCI is initiated by DNA double-strand breaks (DSB) at the asynapsed axes and the incorporation of DSBR proteins at these DSB sites (8,9). ATR localizes to the DSBs along the chromosome axes (10). Serine-139 phosphorylation of H2A.X (γH2A.X) at the DSBs by ATR leads to the recruitment of another DSB factor, MDC1 (7,10–12). MDC1 localization amplifies γH2A.X in the

protruding chromatin loops along the axes, establishing the characteristic sex-body and

MSCI (7,13).

Chromatin remodelers regulate chromatin accessibility. They play 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 (14–20). 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

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

by high throughput sequencing (ChIP-seq) for INO80 (GEO Dataset GSE179584) (21)

also showed binding on the sex chromosomes (Fig. 1C). INO80 binding occurred at the

zygotene and pachytene stages (GEO Dataset GSE190590) (22). However, localization

is more enriched at the postnatal day 18 (P18) pachytene stage (Fig. 1C). Additionally,

INO80 binding sites on sex chromosomes were present at the DSB sites identified by

the meiotic DSB marker γH2A.X (GEO dataset GSE75221) (23) (Fig. S1A). These

binding sites include promoter and intergenic regions and gene bodies (Fig. S1A).

Moreover, INO80 and γH2A.X binding in the sex chromosomes were correlated (Fig.

S1B). These data suggested a possible role of INO80 in DSB repair and 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) (21) 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. 2B).

These data confirm that the lack of silencing of sex-linked genes is neither limited to a

specific region such as the pseudo-autosomal region and not due to any positional

effect. Quantitative RT-PCR analysis validated the upregulation of five representative

sex-linked genes (*Ccnb3, Nxt2, Eda2r, Abcd1, Usp11*) in *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes,

corroborating the RNAseq data. To investigate further the sex-linked gene expression in

pachytene spermatocytes alone, we utilized meiotic germ cell synchronization to isolate

homogeneous pachytene spermatocyte population (24) from wild-type and mutant

testes and quantified sex-linked gene expression by qRT-PCR. We observed a similar

pachytene spermatocyte population in both wild-type and mutant testes (Fig. S2A).

Synchronized *Ino80*cKO pachytene spermatocytes also exhibited undetectable INO80

level (Fig. S2B). An upregulation of all five genes (*Ccnb3, Nxt2, Eda2r, Abcd1, Usp11*)

in the synchronized *Ino80*cKO pachytene spermatocytes confirms the lack of

suppression of X-linked gene expression during pachynema upon *Ino80* deletion (Fig.

S2C). 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-E). 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. 2F-G). Overall, there was a significant increase in

RNA polymerase II (pSer2) at the sex body in pachytene spermatocytes in the absence

of INO80 (Fig. 2H).

**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 (7,10,25). 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,C), where relatively consistent ATR binding occurs along the

axis at the unsynapsed part of sex chromosomes (Fig. 3B,D). In contrast, ATR lacked

uniform localization on the unsynapsed part of sex chromosomes of early to mid-

pachytene *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes (Fig. 3E,G). Instead, upon quantitation, patchy

ATR localization was observed along the axis (Fig. 3F, H). Further, the overall intensity

of ATR at the sex chromosomes was moderately reduced ($p<0.05$) (Fig. 3J). Next, we

tested the activity of ATR by immunostaining for the ATR substrate phospho-CHK1

(S345) (26). Although the localization of pCHK1 (S345) was limited to the sex

chromosomes in *Ino80*WT pachytene spermatocytes, aberrant localization occurred in

*Ino80*cKO spermatocytes (Fig. S3). These data indicate aberrant but 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 (7).  We next determined MDC1 localization in

*Ino80*cKO pachytene spermatocytes. MDC1 immunofluorescence was visible on early-

to late-pachynema *Ino80*WT sex chromosomes (Fig. 4A-C, G). Conversely, significantly

reduced staining ($p<0.05$) occurred at the same stages in *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes

(Fig. 4D-F, G). 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) (23) (Fig. S4A). These data

corroborate our previous observation by MDC1 immunofluorescence staining. Further,

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

spermatocytes (Fig. S4B,C). In addition, the enrichment of INO80 at the promoter of

*Mdc1* suggests a requirement for INO80 regulation of MDC1 expression (Fig. S4D).

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. 4H) and the detection of

INO80 in MDC1- and ATR-immunoprecipitated samples (Fig. S4E) supports the

physical interaction between INO80 and DSBR factors ATR and MDC1. Adding

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

immunoblot (Fig. 4H). 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. γH2A.X staining was

observed in the *Ino80*WT pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. 5A,C), spanning the entire sex

body (Fig. 5B,D). While γH2A.X staining was observed in the *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes

(Fig. E,G), its expansion throughout the sex body seems perturbed and more

concentrated near the axis (Fig. 5F,H). In addition, a moderate reduction in the overall

γH2A.X signal at the sex body occurred in *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes, suggesting a

perturbed amplification of γH2A.X (Fig. 5J).

**INO80 regulates chromatin accessibility at the sex chromosomes**

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

(27,28). To determine how INO80 changes chromatin dynamics on the sex

chromosomes and whether its regulation of sex-linked genes is H2A.Z-dependent, we

compared H2A.Z occupancy (GEO Dataset GSE179584) (21) at sex-linked gene

promoters in P18 *Ino80*cKO and *Ino80*WT spermatocytes. There was little change in

H2A.Z levels at the promoter and transcriptional start sites (TSS) and INO80 binding

sites on the sex chromosomes (Fig. S5A-B). These results suggest that H2A.Z does not

mediate the sex-linked gene regulation by INO80. We also examined the occupancy of

activating histone modification H3K4me3 and suppressive histone modification

H3K27me3 at the sex-linked promoters. Neither showed any change (Fig. S5C,D) and,

therefore, did not mediate INO80-dependent gene regulation in the sex body.

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 (29). 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) (21). Chromatin accessibility at promoter/TSS

regions in autosomes at both P12 and P18 was higher than that observed for the sex

chromosomes (Fig. S6A). Further, an increase in chromatin accessibility occurred at

these regions in both autosomes and sex chromosomes from P12 to P18 (Fig. S6A).

This increase did not reverse in *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes at P18 (Fig. S6A). 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 are present 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. S6B). Comparison of ATAC-

peaks on sex chromosomes from *Ino80*cKO and *Ino80*WT spermatocytes (GEO

Dataset GSE179584) (21)  showed only 17% of these *de novo* peaks remain in

*Ino80*cKO, and 83% of de novo peaks are lost (Fig. S6B). 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. S6C). 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. S6C). 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. S6C).

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. 6A). All autosomes showed an increase in

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

6A). However, sex chromosomes, especially the X-chromosome, exhibited a greater

degree of increase at all the differentially accessible regions (FDR < 0.05) (Fig. 6A). The

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

intergenic areas. A minor portion of them occur at promoter-proximal regions (Fig. 6B).

The distribution of increased and decreased accessible areas (FDR < 0.05) was 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. 6A).

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) (21). 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. 6C). Genomic

annotation analyses suggested that these differentially accessible chromatin regions

mainly belong to intronic and intergenic regions (Fig. 6D). 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) (23). A significant decrease in

chromatin accessibility in *Ino80cKO* suggests a less permissive environment for DSBR

factor recruitment at the DSB sites (Fig. 6E). 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. A significant population of

pachytene spermatocytes display defects in synapsis and DNA damage response,

leading to the loss of spermatocytes in adult testes (18). However, during the first wave

of spermatogenesis in juvenile mice, no significant cell death was observed in

*Ino80*cKO testis up to P21. Moreover, unaltered gene expression signatures for

zygonema and pachynema stages in *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes at P18, derived from

RNAseq data comparing *Ino80*WT and *Ino80*cKo spermatocytes, suggest their relative

proportions remain similar, except for a reduced transition from pachynema to

diplonema in the absence of INO80 (21). Utilizing this small window of time, we

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

*Ino80*cKO spermatocytes, which was also replicated by comparing homogeneous

pachynema populations upon synchronization of spermatogenesis.  We also validated

this overall aberrant sex-linked transcription program in individual *Ino80*cKO pachytene

spermatocytes by immunolocalizing active RNA polymerase II at the sex chromosomes.

This corroborates the observation of an incomplete MSCI in pachytene *Ino80*cKO

spermatocytes. Several other studies also reported similar characteristics that described

roles for MSCI-regulating factors (30–33).

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

somatic cells and meiosis (18,34,35). The INO80 chromatin remodeling complex

interacts with DNA damage factors such as γH2A.X and MEC1 (ATR) at DSB repair

sites in yeast (36,37). 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 (18). 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 (38,39). It can also regulate gene expression by

facilitating histone modifications and the exchange of histone variants such as H2A.Z in

different cell types (21,27,40,41). INO80 also regulates somatic gene silencing at the

autosomes in spermatocytes by promoting H3K27me3 modification at promoters, while

H3K4me3 remains unaffected (21). However, INO80-dependent silencing of sex-linked

genes in meiotic spermatocytes is 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 (42,43).

Chromatin accessibility is also essential in transcription factor recruitment and efficient

transcription regulation at the promoter-proximal areas (44). We observed an increase

in overall chromatin accessibility at promoter regions of autosomes and sex

chromosomes during meiotic progression.

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, gene expression changes occur (29). It is possible that

chromatin accessibility is dynamic, and changes occur 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. 7).

**Materials and methods**

**Animals and genotyping**

*Ino80* homozygous floxed (18,21) female mice (*Mus musculus*), maintained on an

outbred CD1 background, were crossed with *Stra8-Cre*$^{Tg/0}$ males (45) to produce

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

*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.* Spermatocyte synchronization was performed

following a published protocol (24). In brief, newborn pups were treated with retinoic

acid synthesis inhibitor WIN 18,446 (Cayman Chemical) (100µg/g), administered orally

for 10 days (P1-P10). On P11, one bolus of retinoic acid (100ug per pup) was delivered

subcutaneously to initiate spermatogonia differentiation, and pachytene spermatocytes

were isolated on P24. 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 (46) with modifications (47). Briefly, single-cell suspensions were

prepared from seminiferous tubules. 3ml 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.

Freshly harvested testes were embedded and frozen in the Optimum Cutting

Temperature (OCT) embedding medium to make cryosections. 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). Relative signal intensity was measured by NIH ImageJ software,

either at an area marked by a region of interest with assigning the lowest intensity a

value of 1 or along a single line transect as described previously (48). Meiotic substages

were identified by either SCP1 and SCP3 immunostaining and/or the shape of the

synapsed sex chromosomes (49). Plots were created in R using ggplot2 (50)

**Isolation of male germ cells**

The spermatogenic cells were isolated following a modified version of a previously

published protocol (51). Experiments were performed twice or more with cells isolated

from separate mice. 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 70 uM and then by

40uM cell strainers to get spermatocyte suspension. The spermatocytes were

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 1000x$g$ for

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

the PCV, and homogenized with a 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 (52) 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 adding primary antibody (Table S3) and

incubating 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

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

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

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

Li-COR scanner. Uncropped blots are shown in the supplementary file 1.

**CUT&RUN**

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

250,000 spermatocytes per sample from Ino*80*WT and *Ino80*cKO testes following a

previously published protocol (53). 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 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.

**ATAC-seq**

ATAC-seq was performed following the omni-ATAC method described previously (54),

using *Ino80*WT spermatocytes from P12 testes. 50,000 cells from each sample were

washed, and nuclei were isolated. A transposition reaction was performed with these

nuclei at 37°C for 30 minutes in a thermomixer at 1000 r.p.m. followed by a clean-up

step using Zymo DNA Clean and Concentrator-5 columns. Libraries were amplified, size

selected using 0.5X and 1.8X Kapa pure beads to generate a size range of ~150bp to

~2kb and quantified using NEBNext® kit for Illumina. Libraries were pooled and

sequenced on a Novaseq 6000 platform generating 50bp paired-end reads.

**Data analysis**

ChIP-sequencing data were trimmed as necessary using trimmomatic (55). The reads

were aligned to mouse reference genome mm10 using Bowtie2 (56) with sensitive

settings. Samtools (57) was used to de-duplicate and merge the alignments. Deeptools

(58) was used to make depth-normalized coverage tracks and metaplots after removing

the mm10 blacklisted regions. Correlation analysis between ChIP-seq datasets were

also performed using deeptools multiBamSummary tool using mapping quality >30.

MACS2 (59) was used to call peaks using the options -extsize set to 147 and -nomodel.

RNAseq reads were aligned by Tophat2 (60) to mm10, and read counts were obtained

by HTseqCount (61). DESeq2 (62) was used with recommended settings for differential

expression analysis. Plots were prepared by ggplot2 (50) and chromoMap (63).

ATAC-seq reads were processed by nf-core/atacseq (ver 1.1.0) pipeline (64). 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 (65) using region-based

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

estimation. Genomic annotation of peaks was performed by Homer (66). Plots were

created in R using ggplot2 (50).

**Statistical analysis**

Comparison of signals from ATAC-seq, immunofluorescence and qPCR experiments

were tested by Wilcoxon signed rank test for paired observations or Wilcoxon rank sum

test or unpaired t-test for unpaired observations. All the tests performed were two tailed.

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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. The 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

available in the GEO database (Accession numbers 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 and at

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

Zygonema. (Analyzed from GEO Dataset GSE179584) (21)

**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 $Log_2$FoldChange = 0. Chr: Chromosome. (n=5) (Analyzed from GEO

Dataset GSE179584) (21)  (B) 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. (Analyzed from GEO

Dataset GSE179584) (21) (n=5). (C) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of representative

sex-linked gene expression levels normalized to *Rplp2* in either *Ino80*WT or *Ino80*cKO

testes. Bars represent mean ± s.e.m. *; p<0.05, as calculated by unpaired t-test (n=3).

(D-G) Immunolocalization of SCP3 (magenta) and RNA Polymerase II (pSer2) (green)

in spermatocytes either from *Ino80*WT (D,E) or *Ino80*cKO (F,G) (Scale bar = 10μM)

showing aberrant localization RNA Polymerase II (pSer2) (RNAPII) 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. (H) Relative quantification of the immunofluorescence signal intensity of RNAPII

quantified from *Ino80*WT (n=50) and *Ino80*cKO (n=50) spermatocytes from three

biological replicates. *; p<0.05, as calculated by Wilcoxon rank sum test.

**Figure 3: Aberrant ATR recruitment at sex chromosomes without INO80.** (A-H)

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

*Ino80*WT (A,C) or *Ino80*cKO (E,G). DAPI shown in blue. Scale bar = 10μM. White

arrowhead; sex-chromosome. Line tracing for the quantification of ATR signal along the

Y and X chromosome axes in the respective left panels from *Ino80*WT (B,D) and

*Ino80*cKO (F,H) are displayed. (J) Relative fluorescent intensity measurement of ATR

signal at the sex body from three biological replicates: *Ino80*WT (n=53) or *Ino80*cKO

(n=42) pachytene spermatocytes. *; p<0.05, as calculated by Wilcoxon rank sum test.

**Figure 4: MDC1 recruitment at the sex chromosomes is facilitated by INO80**. (A-F)

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

Ino80WT (A-C) or Ino80cKO (D-F). DAPI shown in blue. Scale bar = 10μM. White

arrowhead; sex-chromosome. (G) Relative fluorescent intensity measurement of MDC1

signal at the sex body from either *Ino80*WT (early; n=30, mid/late; n=39) or *Ino80*cKO

(early; n=23, mid/late; n=17) pachytene spermatocytes from three biological replicates.

*; p<0.05, as calculated by Wilcoxon rank sum test. (H) 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 5: Aberrant γH2A.X localization in *Ino80cKO* spermatocytes**. (A-H)

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

spermatocytes from *Ino80*WT (A,C) or *Ino80*cKO (E,G) (Scale bar = 10μM). DAPI is

shown in blue. Scale bar = 10μM. White arrowhead; sex-chromosome. Line tracing for

the quantification of γH2A.X signal along the dotted arrow in the dotted circle (marking

the sex body) in the respective left panels from *Ino80*WT (B,D) and *Ino80*cKO (F,H) are

displayed. (J) Relative fluorescent intensity measurement of γH2A.X signal at the sex

body from either *Ino80*WT (n=58) or *Ino80*cKO (n=39) pachytene spermatocytes from

three biological replicates. *; p<0.05, as calculated by Wilcoxon rank sum test.

**Figure 6: INO80 regulates chromatin accessibility in spermatocyte sex**

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

chromosome at P18 pachytene spermatocytes (GSE179584) (21) compared to P12

zygotene spermatocytes. Red dot: FDR < 0.05; Black dot: FDR > 0.05. FDR was

derived by Benjamini-Hochberg method (n=3) (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. FDR was

derived by Benjamini-Hochberg method (n=3) (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 (23) between *Ino80*WT and *Ino80*cKO in P18 spermatocytes. *;

p<0.05, as calculated by Wilcoxon signed rank test. (n=3)

**Figure 7**: **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. (A) Genomic tracks illustrating INO80

binding at the DSB sites marked by γH2A.X (23) in P18 (21) and zygotene (22)

spermatocytes. Each separate genomic location is denoted by alternating background

coloring. IG-Up; Intergenic-Upstream. (B) Correlation analysis of INO80 and γH2A.X

binding at the X and Y chromosomes. The numbers in the box represent Pearson's

correlation coefficient calculated from high-confidence reads (mapping quality >30)

mapped to either chromosome X or Y.

**Figure S2:** Synchronized pachytene spermatocytes exhibits similar lack of sex-linked

gene expression. (A) Comparison of spermatocyte population in synchronized P24

*Ino80*WT and *Ino80*cKO testes. (B) Immunoblot for INO80 and alpha actin in

synchronized P24 *Ino80*WT and *Ino80*cKO testes. (C) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of

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

P24 *Ino80*WT and *Ino80*cKO testes. Bars represent mean ± s.e.m. *; p<0.05, as

calculated by unpaired t-test (n=3)

**Figure S3:** ATR substrate CHK1 phosphorylation remains intact without INO80.

Immunolocalization of SCP3 (magenta) and pCHK1(S345) (green) in spermatocytes

from Ino80WT or Ino80cKO. DAPI shown in blue. Scale bar = 10μM. White arrowhead;

sex-chromosome.

**Figure S4:** 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 represents 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 (23). The negative control region is GD. IntGen =

Intergenic region, Int=Intron. (n=2) (B) Boxplot showing the normalized count of *Mdc1*

transcripts from *Ino80*WT and *Ino80*cKO spermatocytes. (n=5) (Analyzed from GEO

Dataset GSE179584) (21) (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. (Analyzed from GEO Dataset GSE179584) (21) (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 S5**:  Histone modifications at the sex chromosomes. 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 (Analyzed from

GEO Dataset GSE179584) (21).

**Figure S6**: Chromatin accessibility during meiotic progression. (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 at sex chromosomes 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. P18 ATAC-seq data was analyzed from GEO Dataset

GSE179584 (21).

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