1   Title: Chromosome-specific maturation of the epigenome in the Drosophila male germline
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Abstract

Spermatogenesis in the Drosophila male germline proceeds through a unique transcriptional
program controlled both by germline-specific transcription factors and by testis-specific versions of
core transcriptional machinery. This program includes the activation of genes on the
heterochromatic *Y* chromosome, and reduced transcription from the *X* chromosome, but how
expression from these sex chromosomes is regulated has not been defined. To resolve this, we
profiled active chromatin features in the testes from wildtype and meiotic arrest mutants and
integrate this with single-cell gene expression data from the Fly Cell Atlas. These data assign the
timing of promoter activation for genes with germline-enriched expression throughout
spermatogenesis, and general alterations of promoter regulation in germline cells. By profiling both
active RNA polymerase II and histone modifications in isolated spermatocytes, we detail
widespread patterns associated with regulation of the sex chromosomes. Our results demonstrate
that the *X* chromosome is not enriched for silencing histone modifications, implying that sex
chromosome inactivation does not occur in the Drosophila male germline. Instead, a lack of dosage
compensation in spermatocytes accounts for the reduced expression from this chromosome.
Finally, profiling uncovers dramatic ubiquitinylation of histone H2A and lysine-16 acetylation of
histone H4 across the *Y* chromosome in spermatocytes that may contribute to the activation of this
heterochromatic chromosome.

Introduction
The germline in animals is responsible for producing the specialized gametes that transmit genetic
information to the next generation, and gene expression in these cells is tightly controlled to ensure
proper cell differentiation and genome stability. In many cases gene regulation is distinctive from
that in somatic cells (Freiman, 2009). A dramatic example of this is the deployment of testis-specific
variants of core transcriptional machinery in the Drosophila male germline that are used to activate
and regulate gene promoters during sperm development (Hiller et al., 2004). These variants enable
the activation of testis-specific promoters, but the effects they have on transcription and chromatin
are less characterized.
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Gene regulation in Drosophila spermatogenesis also involves widespread changes on entire
chromosomes. The sex chromosomes each have distinct chromosomal features which uniquely

impact their expression in the germline: the single *X* chromosome of males is thought to be
upregulated in early germline cells, but then suffers a broad reduction in expression during
spermatogenesis (Witt et al., 2021; Mahadevaraju et al., 2021). In contrast, the *Y* chromosome is
largely heterochromatic and silenced in somatic cells but becomes highly active in spermatocytes,
extruding long, diffuse loops of actively transcribing genes within the nucleus (Fingerhut et al.,
2019). How these chromosome-wide changes are orchestrated remains unknown.
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Here, we apply CUT&Tag chromatin profiling (Kaya-Okur et al., 2019) on the adult testis of
Drosophila to characterize the chromatin features of the spermatogenic transcription program. By
integrating chromatin profiles with published single-cell transcriptional data for the Drosophila testis,
we track active chromatin features of germline-specific gene promoters, detailing their timing of
activation. Further, we describe the enrichment of RNA polymerase II and select histone
modifications across the sex chromosomes in isolated spermatocytes. These profiles show that the
X chromosome does not accumulate repressive chromatin marks, supporting a model where
reduced expression of this chromosome is due to a lack of chromosomal dosage compensation in
this cell type. Surprisingly, we find that high levels of mono-ubiquitinylated histone H2A accumulate
across the *Y* chromosome in spermatocytes, implicating this otherwise repressive histone
modification in the activation of heterochromatic regions in the male germline.
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Results
Profiling active promoters in the Drosophila testes
To profile chromatin features of gene activity during spermatogenesis, we performed CUT&Tag
profiling for histone H3 lysine-4 dimethylation (H3K4me2), which marks active promoters and
enhancers (Bernstein et al., 2005). The adult testis contains all developmental stages of
spermatogenesis, as cells in the germline continually proliferate and differentiate (**Figure 1A**)
(White-Cooper & Bausek, 2010). Germline stem cells at the apical tip of the testis asymmetrically
divide to birth a gonialblast; these undergo four mitotic divisions and then complete one final S
phase before entering an extended G2 phase as primary spermatocytes before meiosis and
differentiation into sperm. The transcriptional program of premeiotic and post-meiotic stages has
been detailed most extensively by single-cell RNA-seq profiling (Witt et al., 2019; Shi et al., 2020;
Witt et al., 2021; Mahadevaraju et al., 2021; Raz et al., 2023). To assess the developmental timing
of active chromatin features, we profiled the H3K4me2 modification in wildtype adult testes and in
two stage-arrest mutants. The germline of *bag-of-marbles* (*bam*) mutant males arrests in the
spermatogonial stage, so their testes are full of early germline cells (Chen et al., 2011). The
germline of *always early* (*aly*) mutants arrests in the early primary spermatocyte stage, thus
enriching for this cell type (Laktionov et al., 2018). Between these three genotypes, only wildtype
testes contain late spermatocytes and post-meiotic stages. Thus, profiling testes from these flies
distinguishes when in development active chromatin features appear. We dissected testes from
one-day-old adult wildtype, *bam*, and *aly* males, sequenced three replicate libraries for each
genotype, and mapped reads to a repeat-masked version of the Drosophila dm6 genome assembly
(see Methods). To aid distinguishing germline from somatic cell type chromatin features, we also
profiled wing imaginal discs from larvae. Sequencing from replicates was pooled, providing 4.4M-
19.2M reads/genotype, and publicly available coverage tracks are posted

Inspection of these tracks reveals active chromatin features that track with gene expression timing
during spermatogenesis. For example, the promoter for the germline stem cell marker *nanos* (*nos*)
is marked with the H3K4me2 modification in *bam* testes, with less signal in *aly* or in wildtype testes
(**Figure 1B**). In contrast, the promoter of the spermatocyte-expressed gene *loopin-1* lacks the
H3K4me2 modification in *bam* testes but is heavily marked in *aly* and in wildtype testes (**Figure**
1C). Similarly, the promoter of the meiotically-expressed genes *Mst36Fa* and *Mst36Fb* (Di Cara et
al., 2006) are marked with the H3K4me2 modification in wildtype testes where the later stages of
spermatogenesis are present (**Figure 1D**). In contrast, no signal is present at the *nos*, *loopin-1*,
Mst36Fa or *Mst36Fb* genes in wing discs (**Figure 1B-D**). Finally, profiles for all three testes
samples show the H3K4me2 mark at the promoters of the homeotic genes *abdominal-A* and
Abdominal-B that are expressed in the somatic cells of the testis (**Figure 1E**), since somatic cells
are present in all three samples.

To visualize chromatin features across active promoters during spermatogenesis, we categorized
genes by their timing and level of mRNA expression in the male germline in single-nucleus RNA-
seq profiling (Raz et al., 2023). We focused on five categories of genes with germline-enriched
expression in germline stages (**Supplementary Figure 1, Supplementary Table 2, 3**), including
845 genes that are predominantly expressed in spermatogonia, 1,510 expressed in early
spermatocytes, 1,524 expressed in mid-spermatocytes, 2,052 expressed in late spermatocytes, and
475 genes expressed in spermatids. We then displayed the summed H3K4me2 signal spanning -
200 – +500 bp around each of the promoters for these genes (**Figure 2A**). In the whole testis,
germline stages compose a small proportion of all cells, and so genes specifically expressed in
these stages have low signal for both mRNA and the H3K4me2 modification (**Supplementary**
Table 2). Nevertheless, the overall tendency is that promoters of genes expressed in
spermatogonia are marked with the H3K4me2 modification in *bam* mutant testes, which are
enriched for early stages compared to *aly* mutant and wildtype testes (**Figure 2A**). For example, the
promoters of early germline markers *nos*, *vasa* (*vas*), and *zero population growth* (*zpg*) are each
heavily marked with H3K4me2 in *bam* mutant samples, reflecting their activity (**Figure 2A,B**).
Similarly, the promoters for many genes primarily expressed in early spermatocytes and mid-stage
spermatocytes are often most heavily marked with H3K4me2 in bam mutant testes, implying that
these genes first become active in spermatogonia and accumulate mRNA in spermatocyte stages.
Finally, gene promoters for mRNA that accumulate in late spermatocytes and in differentiating
spermatids are predominantly marked with the H3K4me2 modification in wildtype testes, as this is
the only sample that contains these stages of spermatogenesis (**Figure 2A**). This includes the
activation of promoters for the *Y* chromosome-linked fertility factor genes (*kl-2*, *kl-3*, and *kl-5*) which
are primarily expressed in late spermatocytes (**Figure 2A,B**). However, the activation timing of
these genes appear to differ, as the promoters of *kl-2* and *kl-3* accumulate the H3K4me2
modification earlier than does the *kl-5* promoter (**Figure 2B**). The most dramatic instance of
precocious activation of a *Y*-linked promoter is the *FDY* gene which becomes active in early
spermatocytes, matching its early production of mRNA (**Figure 2A,B**).

There are three exceptions to the overall trend of correspondence between promoter activation and
mRNA accumulation. First, active promoters with very low levels of H3K4me2 are most heavily
marked in wildtype testes, regardless of when the genes are expressed. These might be active
genes where the histone modification accumulates during the extended growth phase of
spermatocytes. Additional examples are the *kumgang* (*kmg*) and *cookie monster* (*comr*) gene
promoters which produce mRNA in mid-stage spermatocytes, but are most heavily marked with the
H3K4me2 modification in wildtype testes. Second, some promoters acquire the H3K4me2
modification well before mRNA accumulates. A small number of genes are expressed in the post-
meiotic stages of spermatogenesis, including the "cup" genes (Barreau et al., 2008). Many of these
promoters are most heavily marked with the H3K4me2 modification in wildtype testes, but the
promoter for *ryder cup* (*r-cup*) is already marked in *aly* mutant testes, implying that it is already
active in pre-meiotic stages (**Figure 2B**). Third, as the arrest mutations used here delete most of
this gene (*bam*, Bopp et al., 1993) or inactivate it (*aly*, Lin et al., 1996), we cannot measure
H3K4me2 modification at these promoters in their arrest genotypes. We note that as these stage-
arrest mutations have pleiotropic effects on gene expression (Barreau et al., 2008), some
discrepancies between promoter marking in mutants and transcript accumulation in wildtype testes
may be due to aberrant transcriptional regulation. Additionally, detection of some changes may be
limited since we compare profiles of tissues with diverse cell types.

Notably, the importance of the H3K4me2 modification appears to diminish as spermatogenesis
proceeds, as the average signal of this mark around promoters for germline-enriched genes in
wildtype testes drops in the later stages of spermatogenesis (**Figure 2C**). While the promoters of
early germline-expressed genes and somatically-expressed genes have comparable levels of the
H3K4me2 modification centered around their TSS, the promoters of late spermatocyte and
spermatid genes display very little marking, and this low level extends into gene bodies. This
suggests that the activities of H3K4-modifying enzymes are reduced in these later stages.

Profiling FACS-isolated primary spermatocytes
Germline cells undergo massive nuclear expansion and extensive transcriptional activation between
mitotic spermatogonia and meiotic division, in part directed by germline-specific variants of general
transcription factors (Lim et al., 2012). To specifically profile chromatin features in spermatocytes,
we used a spermatocyte-enriched GFP marker to isolate these cells by fluorescence-activated cell
sorting (FACS). The *hephaestus* (*heph*) gene encodes an RNA-binding protein that is broadly
expressed, but in spermatocytes Heph binds the abundant nuclear transcripts from the *Y*
chromosome fertility genes (**Figure 3A**) (Fingerhut et al., 2019). We performed FACS on 40
dissociated testes from males carrying a *heph-GFP* transgene, recording the forward scatter (FSC)
and GFP signal of each event (**Figure 3B**). FACS profiles from *heph-GFP* samples display a large
proportion of events with high GFP signal, which are absent in profiles of wild-type testes. These
GFP-labeled spermatocytes have distinct sizes, consistent with the progressive growth of
spermatocytes as they approach meiosis (White-Cooper et al., 2010): in a typical FACS
experiment, ~5-10% of GFP-positive events have moderate GFP signal and moderate size (Gate
1), ~50% of events have very high GFP signal and moderate size (Gate 2), and ~5-10% have high
GFP signal and large size (Gate 3). The cells of Gate 3 may represent the latest stage of
spermatocytes when heph-GFP signal decreases just before meiosis. Because Gate 2 contained
the most GFP-positive events, we focused further analysis on these spermatocytes. We used

~3,000 isolated spermatocytes for each profiling experiment, and since the resulting libraries were
comparatively small with high duplication rates, we pooled unique reads from multiple replicates to
provide 200,000 – 900,000 unique reads for each profile (**Supplementary Table 1**).

We first profiled the distribution of the elongating form of RNA Polymerase II, marked with
phosphorylation at Serine-2 (RNAPIIS2p) of the C-terminal tail of the largest subunit of the complex.
Inspection of genome landscapes demonstrates the high quality of these profiles. For example, the
meiotic beta-tubulin variant gene *betaTub85D* is broadly coated with RNAPIIS2p in isolated
spermatocytes, while signal is absent across this gene in somatic cells (**Figure 3C**).

Elongating RNAPII is also detectable at many genes that accumulate transcripts in late
spermatocytes. For example, 14 genes encoding protamines that package the genome in sperm
(Chang et al., 2023) are heavily coated with RNAPII in isolated spermatocytes (**Figure 3E**).
Similarly, elongating RNAPII is detectable at genes normally thought to be expressed in post-
meiotic cells, such as *heineken-cup* (*h-cup*), implying that RNAPII is engaged at some genes well
before their transcripts are detected.
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While these results confirm the cell-type identity of the FACS-isolated cells, we noted that the
distribution of RNAPIIS2p across genes such as *betaTub85D* differs from the typical pattern across
active genes in somatic cells. Serine-2-phosphorylation of RNAPII is associated with transcriptional
elongation, but in Drosophila and in mammalian somatic cells it shows a prominent peak at the 5'
end of active genes (Kaya-Okur et al., 2019; Ahmad & Henikoff, 2021). The broad distribution of
elongating RNAPII across active genes is typical in spermatocytes. Genes with germline-enriched
expression show a broad distribution of elongating RNAPII downstream of their promoters, while
somatically expressed genes show a prominent 5' peak (**Figure 3F**).

To clearly compare RNAPII distributions between cell-types, we examined long genes that are
commonly expressed in both spermatocytes and in wing imaginal discs. One example is the *shuttle*
craft (*stc*) gene, which is almost 5 kb and is highly expressed. Strikingly, RNAPIIS2p signal at *stc*
shows a prominent peak near the promoter in somatic wing imaginal disc cells but is broadly
distributed across the gene in spermatocytes (**Figure 3D**). More generally, RNAPIIS2p is broadly
distributed across all active genes in spermatocytes, in contrast to the proximally peaked
distribution in somatic cells (**Supplementary Figure 2**)

The change from peaked to broad distributions of RNAPIIS2p is mirrored in the distributions of the
H3K4me2 modification, as this histone modification shows an atypical broad and low distribution
across the active *betaTub85D* and *stc* genes in spermatocytes (**Figure 3C,D**). As this histone
modification occurs co-transcriptionally, its change in distribution is likely the result of the altered
distribution of RNAPII across these genes.

The X *chromosome is not dosage compensated in spermatocytes*
In somatic cells of Drosophila males, the expression of genes on the single *X* chromosome is
approximately doubled to equalize expression to autosomal genes. Canonical dosage
compensation is accomplished by the Male Specific-Lethal (MSL) RNA-protein complex, which
coats the *X* chromosome, catalyzes acetylation of histone H4 at lysine 16, and increases RNAPII
density (Akhtar & Becker, 2000). However, in germline cells in the testis cytology detects no

enrichment of the H4K16Ac modification, suggesting that *X* chromosome dosage compensation
does not occur in this cell type (Rastelli & Kuroda, 1998). Transcriptomic profiling showed that
multiple components of the dosage compensation machinery are not expressed in the male
germline (Witt et al., 2021). In spite of this, single-cell RNA-seq studies have shown that a perhaps
non-canonical form of *X* chromosome dosage compensation occurs in early spermatogonial stages,
but disappears by spermatocyte stages (Mahadevaraju et al., 2021; Raz et al., 2023; Witt et al.,
2021).

The distribution of RNAPII in isolated spermatocytes is consistent with the lack of dosage
compensation by this stage of spermatogenesis. Plotting the distribution of RNAPIIS2p across
Drosophila chromosomes in wing imaginal discs shows a substantial enrichment across the *X*
chromosome, resulting from dosage compensation in these somatic cells (**Figure 4A**). This
enrichment of RNAPIIS2p across the *X* chromosome is lost in spermatocytes. To quantify
chromosomal changes, we summarized RNAPIIS2p signal for the autosomal *2nd* and *3rd*
chromosomes, the quasi-heterochromatic *4th* chromosome, and the sex chromosomes (**Figure
4B**). As the sex chromosomes are hemizygous, we doubled counts for genes on these
chromosomes to calculate polymerase densities per gene copy, and then scaled gene scores to the
median value of gene scores on the *2nd* and *3rd* autosomal chromosomes. As expected, the
median expression of *X*-linked genes in wing imaginal disc cells is close to twice that of the major
autosomes, showing they are dosage compensated. In contrast, median expression from *X*-linked
genes is equal to that of the major autosomes in spermatocytes (**Figure 4B**).

To assess the chromosomal distribution of the H4K16Ac modification, we profiled it in wing imaginal
discs and in isolated spermatocytes. This acetylation is widespread across the genome, consistent
with its association with transcriptional activity, and in wing imaginal disc cells it is noticeably
enriched across the dosage-compensated *X* chromosome (**Figure 4C**). In stark contrast, the *X*
chromosome is depleted for H4K16ac in spermatocytes. Thus, chromatin profiling for both
elongating RNAPII and the H4K16ac modification demonstrate there is no dosage compensation of
the *X* chromosome in spermatocytes.

RNAPII density on the quasi-heterochromatic *4th* chromosome is reduced in spermatocytes,
consistent with decreased transcript production from this chromosome in RNA-seq studies
(Mahadevaraju et al., 2021; Witt et al., 2021; Raz et al., 2023). The *4th* chromosome is an
evolutionary derivative of the *X* chromosome and it has been speculated that it may be subject to
similar chromosomal regulation as the *X* (Larsson & Meller, 2006); however, only 10 genes are
expressed from this small chromosome in spermatocytes, and this limits any inference about down-
regulation of this chromosome. In contrast, the specific activation and accumulation of RNAPIIS2p
on *Y* chromosome genes in spermatocytes is dramatic (**Figure 4A,B**). Likewise, the *Y* chromosome
becomes conspicuously enriched for the H4K16ac modification in spermatocytes (**Figure 4C**),
suggesting this modification is involved in gene activation from this chromosome.

Profiling silencing chromatin marks in spermatocytes
The sex chromosomes of male therian mammals form a cytological sex body in pre-meiotic cells
(Solari, 1974). This body is a manifestation of meiotic sex chromosome inactivation (MSCI), where
repressive histone modifications silence unpaired chromosomes (Turner, 2015). MSCI has been
suggested to occur in the Drosophila male germline to explain the mysterious dominant male

sterility of many *X*-to-autosome translocations (Lifschytz & Lindsley, 1972). However, transcriptional

profiling of the Drosophila testis has not observed silencing of the *X* chromosome (Mahadevaraju et

al., 2021; Witt et al., 2021; Raz et al., 2023). We therefore profiled silencing histone modifications in

isolated spermatocytes to determine if molecular marks of MSCI are enriched on the Drosophila *X*

chromosome. Methylation of histone H3 at lysine-9 (H3K9me) is generally associated with

heterochromatic silencing and marks the precociously silenced *X* chromosome in male mouse

spermatogenesis (Khalil et al., 2004; Ernst et al., 2019). In wing imaginal disc cells dimethylation of

H3K9 (H3K9me2) is enriched in silenced pericentromeric regions of all chromosomes, as well as

throughout the heterochromatic *Y* chromosome and the quasi-heterochromatic *4th* chromosome

(**Figure 5A**), consistent with the silencing of repetitive sequence regions in somatic cells. However,

the genome in spermatocytes gains the H3K9me2 modification throughout chromosome arms,

including those of the major autosomes and the *X* chromosome. In contrast the H3K9me2

modification is reduced across the *Y* chromosome, consistent with the activation of *Y*-linked genes

in this cell type (**Figure 5A**). Although the H3K9me2 mark is reduced across this chromosome and

across pericentromeric regions, substantial chromosomal methylation remains in spermatocytes.

A major system of chromatin repression uses trimethylation of histone H3 at lysine-27 (H3K27me3)

to direct developmental gene silencing (Grossniklaus & Paro, 2014). Although this mark is not

associated with MSCI in mammals (Mu et al., 2014), we profiled it in Drosophila spermatocytes.

There is little change in the chromosomal distribution of the H3K27me3 modification between wing

imaginal disc cells and spermatocytes (**Figure 5B**). There is a slight apparent reduction of this

modification across the *X* chromosome and a slight gain across the *Y* chromosome, but these

differences may be due to the developmental lineages of these two samples. Overall, the constancy

of chromosomal patterns of the H3K27me3 modification is consistent with the inactivation of the

histone methyltransferase *Enhancer of zeste* (*E(z)*) in spermatocytes (Chen et al., 2011).

Mono-ubiquitinylation of histone H2A marks the active Y *chromosome*

An additional histone modification associated with precocious silencing of the *X* chromosome in

male mammals is the mono-ubiquitinylation of histone H2A at lysine-119 (uH2A) (Baarends et al.,

1999). This modification is conserved at the homologous lysine-118 position of Drosophila histone

H2A, and is linked to Polycomb-mediated silencing across eukaryotes (Barbour et al., 2020). We

therefore profiled the distribution of the uH2A modification in wing imaginal discs and in isolated

spermatocytes to determine if this modification marked the *X* chromosome. The uH2A mark is

broadly enriched throughout the arms of autosomes in both cell types, but shows no enrichment

across the *X* chromosome in spermatocytes (**Figure 6A**). Thus, this chromatin marker of

mammalian MSCI is also absent from the Drosophila *X* chromosome. However, the active *Y*

chromosome is strikingly enriched for the uH2A modification in spermatocytes, with additional

moderate enrichment in the repetitive pericentromeric regions of all chromosomes (**Figure 6A**).

We confirmed the chromosomal enrichment of the uH2A modification by immunostaining

spermatocytes (**Figure 6B**). The subnuclear pattern of a Polycomb-GFP (PcGFP) fusion protein

distinguishes early from late spermatocytes (Dietzel et al., 1999; El-Sharnouby et al., 2013). Using

this marker, we see that uH2A is largely absent from the nucleus of early spermatocytes. In mid-

stage spermatocytes a stringy wedge of uH2A staining appears in the interchromosomal space

between the chromatin bodies and expands to one or two wedges in late spermatocytes (**Figure**

6B). The timing of appearance and position of these stained bodies resemble that of the
chromosome loops that unfold from *Y*-linked genes as they are expressed (Bonaccorsi et al., 1988).
We therefore engineered *XO* male flies lacking a *Y* chromosome and immunostained their
spermatocytes. The uH2A modification is present in these cells, but with a distinctly different focal
appearance, suggesting that the ubiquitinylated histone aggregates in spermatocytes without a *Y*
chromosome (**Figure 6B**). To confirm the timing of the appearance of the uH2A body, we
immunostained germline nuclei from *bam* and *aly* stage-arrest mutants. The spermatogonial nuclei
from *bam* mutant testes lack uH2A staining, while early spermatocyte nuclei from *aly* mutant testes
have only a small uH2A body that always abuts against the nucleolus (**Figure 6B**). Thus, the uH2A
body accumulates during the early spermatocyte stage and expands as spermatocytes develop.
The timing and position of the uH2A body is consistent with the idea that it contains the *Y*
chromosome, which is transcriptionally active in these stages.

To further characterize the relationship between transcriptional activity of the *Y* chromosome and
the uH2A modification, we plotted signal for the uH2A modification and for RNAPIIS2p at *Y*-linked
gene promoters (**Figure 6C**). In wing imaginal discs these promoters have little RNAPIIS2p or
uH2A modification, but there is strong relative enrichment for both features at these promoters in
spermatocytes, consistent with transcriptional activity of the *Y* chromosome. Since the uH2A
modification also becomes enriched in pericentromeric regions, we compared the enrichment of the
uH2A modification and RNAPIIS2p at repetitive transposons that constitute a large fraction of these
regions. A number of transposons gain RNAPIIS2p signal specifically in spermatocytes (**Figure 6D**;
Supplementary Table 4; **Supplementary Figure 3**), consistent with their transcriptional activation
(Lawlor et al., 2021). These activated transposons also gain the uH2A modification. These
correspondences suggest that the uH2A modification contributes to transcriptional activation of
heterochromatic regions in spermatocytes.

Discussion
Germline cells use distinctive variations on transcriptional gene regulation, and studies of
Drosophila spermatogenesis have detailed many specialized alterations of core general
transcription factors that direct expression programs as differentiation proceeds (Hiller et al., 2004).
However, the chromatin features of gene regulation in spermatogenesis have been less thoroughly
characterized, in part because of the complexity of the tissue and limiting numbers of germline cells.
We have addressed this by performing efficient CUT&Tag chromatin profiling for both active and
repressive chromatin marks in the Drosophila testis and in isolated spermatocytes. These profiles
reveal several notable features of the epigenome in the differentiating germline. First, integration of
chromatin marks with published gene expression data details a general correspondence between
gene promoter activation and mRNA production as expected, but for a fraction of genes their
promoters activate earlier than expected. Second, genes that are activated late in spermatogenesis
tend to have very reduced active chromatin marks at their promoters. Third, while many active
genes in somatic cells accumulate RNA polymerase II near their gene starts, such accumulation is
absent in spermatocytes. Fourth, integration of chromatin profiling for multiple chromatin marks and
profiling of RNA polymerase II demonstrate that the single *X* chromosome is neither dosage
compensated nor globally inactivated in spermatocytes. Finally, histone H2A mono-ubiquitinylation
appears to have a specialized role in activation of the heterochromatic *Y* chromosome.

Quirks of gene expression in the male germline
The uniform distribution of RNAPII throughout active genes in male germline cells is strikingly
different from the typical accumulation of RNAPII near promoters in somatic cells. Promoter-
proximal accumulation results from dynamic pausing of RNAPII before conversion into the
productive elongating isoform, and is a major control point for transcriptional regulation in somatic
cells (Muniz et al., 2021). Thus, the uniformity of RNAPII across expressed genes in spermatocytes
suggests that pausing does not occur, necessitating gene regulation solely by transcription factor
and RNAPII recruitment. This may allow for a simpler promoter architecture, and indeed
spermatogenic gene promoters are distinctively small (White-Cooper et al., 2010). Alternatively,
RNAPII progression through gene bodies may be slow, altering the steady-state distribution of
elongating polymerase. Further, either of these changes in RNAPII behavior would affect chromatin
features of active genes. RNAPII binds enzymes that progressively methylate the lysine-4 residue
of histone H3, and so active promoters in somatic cells are typically marked with both H3K4-
dimethylation and -trimethylation (Bernstein et al., 2005). A consequence of chaning the rate of
polymerase progression in spermatocytes would be reduced methylation of active promoters (which
we observe is most severe in late spermatocyte and post-meiotic stages), and thereby reduced
reliance of these marks for promoting transcription.

The X *chromosome is neither dosage-compensated nor inactivated in spermatocytes*
While protein and lncRNA components of the somatic dosage compensation machinery are not
produced in the male germline, transcriptional profiling described up-regulation of the single *X*
chromosome in early germline stages (Mahadevaraju et al., 2021; Witt et al., 2021). The
mechanism for this non-canonical dosage compensation remains unknown (Witt et al., 2021), but
by the spermatocyte stage *X*-linked genes are no longer up-regulated. Our profiling of RNAPII
confirms that there is no up-regulation of this chromosome in spermatocytes. There has been
substantial investigation into whether the *X* is inactivated in spermatocytes, inspired by the
regulation of sex chromosomes in mammals (Vibranovski, 2014; Turner, 2015) and the moderate
depletion of male-germline-expressed genes on the Drosophila *X* chromosome (Parisi et al., 2003).
In mammalian male germlines the *X* and *Y* chromosomes undergo Meiotic Sex Chromosome
Inactivation (MSCI), where these chromosomes are precociously silenced just before meiosis
(Turner, 2015). A variety of chromatin features accumulate across the sex chromosomes at this
time, including the enrichment of both H3K9me2 and uH2A histone modifications. However, we find
that neither of these histone modifications is enriched on the *X* chromosome in the Drosophila male
germline. This, combined with the equivalent amounts of RNA polymerase II on *X*-linked genes and
autosomal ones implies that there is no *X* chromosome inactivation in Drosophila.

Why do flies differ from mammals? Mammalian MSCI is considered to be an elaborated response
of germline cells to the detection of the unpaired sex chromosomes (Huynh & Lee, 2005). However,
meiosis in Drosophila males is unusual in that all the chromosomes do not synapse nor recombine
(McKee & Handel, 1993). Logically, the evolutionary loss of synapsis must have required the
concomitant loss of an unpaired chromosome response in Drosophila males. Indeed, many of the
proteins recruited to the mammalian sex body are normally involved in meiotic recombination but
have been repurposed for unpaired chromosome inactivation (Abe et al., 2022), supporting the idea
that MSCI is mechanistically linked to synapsis. Alternatively, mammalian MSCI may be a variant of
the X-inactivation system that operates in females for dosage compensation (Huynh & Lee, 2005)

but since Drosophila solved the dosage compensation problem without inactivation, this precluded
the evolution of MSCI. These possibilities are not mutually exclusive.

Activation of the Y *chromosome*
The *Y* chromosome in Drosophila is unique in that it is almost entirely composed of repetitive
sequence, but also carries some unique genes required for male fertility (Chang & Larracuente,
2019). Thus, in somatic cell types this a heterochromatic chromosome, but is heavily transcribed in
spermatocytes (Bonaccorsi et al., 1988). This activated chromosome accumulates multiple histone
modifications (Hennig & Weyrich, 2013), some of which we have profiled here. Surprisingly, one of
the histone modifications that coats the activated *Y* chromosome is mono-ubiquitinylation of histone
H2A modification. This modification is typically associated with Polycomb-mediated gene silencing
in somatic cells (Aloia et al., 2013), where it is catalyzed by the Sce/RING1B enzyme subunit of the
Polycomb Repressive Complex 1 (PRC1) (Gorfinkiel et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2004). However, the
Polycomb subunit of PRC1 does not co-localize with the uH2A-coated *Y* chromosome in
spermatocytes, suggesting that it is not catalyzed by Sce here. Indeed, uH2A also coats the *X* and
Y chromosomes in mammalian spermatocytes, where this modification is catalyzed by a distinct
enzyme, the UBR2 E3 ubiquitin ligase (An et al., 2010). The Drosophila genome encodes a
homolog of this protein family, as well as many other ubiquitin ligases, some of which target the
H2A histone (Tasaki et al., 2005). We do not know which enzyme is responsible for the uH2A
modification in the Drosophila male germline, although some candidates have male sterile
phenotypes when mutated (Rathke et al., 2007). While it is surprising to find a histone modification
conventionally associated with silencing enriched on an activated chromosome (and indeed the
reason we profiled it was as a putative MSCI marker), the roles of uH2A in gene regulation are
diverse even in somatic cells. The uH2A modification is associated with both silenced and some
active genes in developing eye tissue (Loubiere et al., 2020), and counters chromatin compaction in
the early embryo (Bonnet et al., 2022). In addition to the *Y* chromosome, a number of
heterochromatic transposons in the Drosophila male germline are also activated and accumulate
the uH2A modification. Thus, it is conceivable that this modification – perhaps in combination with
other marks – works generally to modulate transcription of extremely heterochromatic regions in
spermatocytes.

Methods
Fly strains
All crosses were performed at 25˚C. All mutations and chromosomal rearrangements used here are
described in Flybase (http://www.flybase.org). The w^{1118} strain was used as a wildtype control. The
heph-GFP males used for profiling have the genotype *y w/Y ; P[PTT-GC]heph^{CC00664}/TM3, Ser Sb*.
The *bam* mutant males have the genotype *w/Y ; e bam^{D86}/Df(3R)FDD-0089346*. The *aly* mutant
males have the genotype *P[ry11]ry2, mwh aly^1 ry^{506} e/Df(3L)BSC428*. Additional genotypes used for
cytological characterization were *y w P[bam-GAL4:VP16,w$^+$]1/Y ; P[UAS-RFP,w$^+$]2/2 ; P[PTT-*
GC]heph^{CC00664}/3 and *w^{1118}/Y ; P[Pc-eGFP,w$^+$]3*.

Antibodies
The following antibodies were used: Epicypher 13-0027 anti-H3-K4-dimethyl, Cell Signalling
Technology E1Z3G anti-RNAPII-Serine-2-phosphorylation, Cell Signalling Technology 8240 anti-
H2A-K119-ubiquitinylation, EMD Millipore 05-1249 anti-H3-K9-dimethyl, Cell Signalling Technology

C36B11 anti-H3-K27-trimethyl, Abcam ab109463 anti-H4-K16-acetyl, and Abcam ab5821 anti-
fibrillarin.
427

Imaging whole testes

429 Testes from one-day old adult males were dissected and fixed in 4% formaldehyde/PBS with 0.1%
430 Triton-X100 (PBST) for 10 minutes, stained with 0.5 µg/mL DAPI/PBS, and mounted in 80%
431 glycerol on slides. Testes were imaged by epifluorescence on an EVOS FL Auto 2 inverted
432 microscope (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with a 10X objective.

Imaging spermatocytes

Testes from third-instar male larvae were prepared as described [Bonaccorsi *et al*, 2000]. Briefly,
one testis was dissected in a drop of PBS on a Histobond glass slide (VWR 16004-406), squashed
gently with a RainX (ITW Global Brands) coated coverslip, then flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen. After
popping off the coverslip, the sample was fixed with 4% formaldehyde/PBST for 5 minutes, and
incubated with 0.3% sodium deoxycholate/PBST twice for 20 minutes each. Samples were
incubated with primary antiserum in PBST supplemented with 0.1% bovine serum albumin (BSA) at
4˚ overnight, and finally with fluorescently-labeled secondary antibodies (1:200 dilution, Jackson
ImmunoResearch). Slides were stained with 0.5 µg/mL DAPI/PBS, mounted in 80% glycerol, and
imaged by epifluorescence on an EVOS FL Auto 2 inverted microscope (Thermo Fisher Scientific)
with a 40X objective. Dissection and immunostaining was typically repeated at least 10 times to
confirm results. We also imaged stained spermatocytes from adult testes, but imaging of larval
spermatocytes was typically cleaner with less background. Pseudo-colored images were adjusted
and composited in Adobe Photoshop and Adobe Illustrator.

Whole-mount CUT&Tag

To perform CUT&Tag [6] for whole tissues ("whole-mount CUT&Tag"), we dissected 10 testes from
one-day-old adults or 10 imaginal wing discs from 3rd instar larvae in PBS buffer supplemented
with cOmplete protease inhibitor (Roche 11697498001). Dissected tissues were permeabilized with
0.1% Triton/PBS for 30 minutes at room temperature, and then manually transferred into the
following CUT&Tag solutions sequentially between wells of a glass dissection plate: primary
antibody solution (diluted in Wash+ buffer (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM
spermidine, 2 mM EDTA, 1% BSA, with cOmplete protease inhibitor)) overnight at 4˚, secondary
antibody solution (in Wash+ buffer) for 1 hour at room temperature, and then incubated with loaded
protein-A-Tn5 (in 300Wash+ buffer (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 300 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM spermidine with
cOmplete protease inhibitor) for 1 hour. After one wash with 300Wash+ buffer, samples were
incubated in 300Wash+ buffer supplemented with 10 mM MgCl2 for 1 hour at 37˚ to tagment
chromatin. Tissues were then dissociated with collagenase (2 mg/mL, Sigma C9407) in HEPESCA
(50mM HEPES buffer pH 7.5, 360 µM $CaCl_2$) solution at 37˚ for 1 hour. We then added SDS to
0.16%, protease K to 0.3 mg/mL, and EDTA to 16 mM and incubated at 58˚ for 1 hour, and DNA
was purified by phenol:chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitation. Libraries were prepared as
described (Kaya-Okur et al., 2019) (https://www.protocols.io/view/bench-top-cut-amp-tag-
kqdg34qdpl25/v3), with 14 cycles of PCR. Libraries were sequenced in PE50 mode on the Illumina
NextSeq 2000 platform at the Fred Hutchinson Cancer Center Genomics Shared Resource.

FACS-CUT&Tag of spermatocytes

40 testes were dissected from one-day old adult *heph-GFP* males and digested in 200 µL of 2
mg/mL collagenase (Sigma C9407) in HEPESCA solution at 37˚ for one hour. The sample was then
repeatedly pipetted with a P200 pipette tip to dissociate the tissue, then passed through a 35 µM
filter with 5 mL collection tube (Corning 352235) on ice. The filter was washed with PBS to bring the
total volume of collected filtrate to 1 mL. A Sony MA900 Multi-Application Cell Sorter with a 100 µM
nozzle, flow pressure of 2, GFP laser settings of 32% and FSC=1 was used for isolating cells.
Isolated cells were collected in 1 mL of PBS in 5 mL tubes. Benchtop CUT&Tag was performed on
these samples as described [Kaya-Okur *et al*, 2019], and sequenced in PE50 paired-end mode.

Genome mapping
To streamline analysis of repetitive transposons in the fly genome, we used a modified version of
the release r6.30 *D. melanogaster* genome for mapping where repetitive sequences are masked
out of the genome (http://hgdownload.cse.ucsc.edu/goldenPath/dm6/bigZips/dm6.fa.masked.gz)
and with consensus sequences for 128 transposon sequences
(https://github.com/bergmanlab/drosophila-
transposons/blob/master/misc/D_mel_transposon_sequence_set.fa) appended [Ashburner *et al*,
2021]. Paired-end reads were mapped to this assembly using Bowtie2 (using parameters, e.g.: --
end-to-end --very-sensitive --no-mixed --no-discordant -q --phred33 -I 10 -X 700).

Mapped reads from whole-tissue replicates were merged using samtools-merge and converted to
coverage tracks using bedtools-genomecov with options -scale -fs. For profiling FACS-isolated
spermatocytes, duplicate reads were removed from each library using Picard-remove duplicates,
and then replicates were merged using samtools-merge and converted to coverage tracks using
bedtools-genomecov with options -scale -fs. These tracks are hosted at UCSC
(https://genome.ucsc.edu/s/jamesanderson12358/analysis230508___UCSC_session_germline_MS
) for visualization, and selected regions were exported as PDF files.

Processing of FCA testis snRNA-seq data
We downloaded snRNA-seq data generated by the Fly Cell Atlas project (Li et al., 2022) as a
Seurat object linked in supplementary data of (Raz et al., 2023), summarizing gene expression data
of single nuclei from dissociated Drosophila adult testes. We used the Seurat function
AverageExpression() to get the average expression of all genes in each of 40 UMAP groups which
represent distinct cell types of the testis. This produced a 40 groups x 15,833 genes table.
The 18 germline groups and 22 somatic groups assigned in (Raz et al., 2023) are:

1. Spermatogonium
2. spermatogonium-spermatocyte transition
3. mid-late proliferating spermatogonia
4. spermatocyte 0
5. spermatocyte 1
6. spermatocyte 2
7. spermatocyte 3
8. spermatocyte 4
9. spermatocyte 5
10. spermatocyte 6
11. spermatocyte 7a

12. maturing primary spermatocyte
13. spermatocyte
14. late primary spermatocyte
15. early elongation stage spermatid
16. early-mid elongation-stage spermatid
17. mid-late elongation-stage spermatid
18. spermatid
19. hub
20. cyst stem cell
21. early cyst cell 1
22. early cyst cell 2
23. cyst cell intermediate
24. spermatocyte cyst cell branch a
25. spermatocyte cyst cell branch b
26. cyst cell branch a
27. cyst cell branch b
28. male gonad associated epithelium
29. seminal vesicle
30. adult tracheocyte
31. muscle cell
32. testis epithelium
33. hemocyte
34. hcc
35. tcc
36. pigment cell
37. adult fat body
38. secretory cell of the male reproductive tract
39. adult neuron
40. "Unannotated"
538
Promoter and gene scoring tables
We compiled a list of genes with male-germline-enriched expression as follows. We compiled a list
of unique protein-coding mRNAs and lncRNA genes from the Drosophila dmel_r6.31 genome
assembly (http://ftp.flybase.net/releases/FB2019_06/dmel_r6.31/gtf/), and matched FCA expression
data for 40 testis cell types [Raz 2023] to each gene with a lookup table. There were 1,062 genes
that are not represented in the expression dataset; these genes are listed with #N/A values for gene
expression.
546
For each gene, we calculated its average expression in the 18 germline groups (gexp) and its
average expression in 21 somatic groups (sexp). The 40th 'unannotated' group was not considered
for gexp or sexp values. We then used k-means clustering (k=10) to group genes by cell-type
expression within the testis (**Supplementary Figure 1**). The k-means groups 1-5 were associated
with gene expression in germline clusters 1-18. The remaining groups 6-10 were associated with

gene expression in somatic clusters 19-40, and we collapsed these into one somatic group called
"all somatic categories" (k-cluster group 11). We added these k-cluster annotations to each gene.
554
We then selected 6,419 genes with log_2Fold-change$\geq$1 average expression in germline groups than
in testis somatic groups (termed genes with germline-enriched expression). This table is included
as **Supplementary Table 3**. To assign alternative promoters to each gene, for each transcript in
the .gtf file with orientation "+" we assigned the minimum coordinate as its TSS position, and for
each transcript with orientation "-" we assigned the maximum coordinate as its TSS position. We
retained only one instance of duplicate TSSs for genes with TSS coordinates represented multiple
times. In 144 instances two gene names share the same TSS coordinate, and we retained a TSS
for each gene in the table. This table of 21,982 promoters is included as **Supplementary Table 2**.
563
For each gene, we determined the identity and distance to the nearest promoter of the next
upstream gene using the bedtools/closest with parameters: -D a -fu , and for the next downstream
gene with parameters: -D a -fd .

To summarize the enrichment of chromatin marks at promoters, we counted mapped reads in an
interval from -200 – +500 bp around each TSS in merged profiling data by summing reads using
deeptools/multiBamSummary with parameters: BED-file –BED

and scaled counts by the number of reads in each library (counts * 1,000,000) / (number of reads in
library) to give Counts per Million (CPM). Profiling counts were transformed into z-scores for each
promoter between *bam*, *aly*, and wildtype testis samples, and these values are appended to
Supplementary Table 2.

To summarize the enrichment of chromatin marks across genes, we counted mapped reads from
the start to the end of each gene in merged profiling data by summing reads using
deeptools/multiBamSummary with parameters: BED-file –BED

and scaled counts by the number of reads in each library and the length of the gene (counts *
1,000,000) / (number of reads in library * gene length in kb) to give Counts per Kilobase per Million
(CPKM), and these values are appended to **Supplementary Table 3**.

To summarize enrichment of chromatin marks across transposons, we counted mapped reads
across consensus transposon sequences using deeptools/multiBamSummary with parameters:
BED-file –BED

and scaled counts as CPKM. These values are provided in **Supplementary Table 4**.

Genomic display
For average plots of H3K4me2 signal around promoters, profiling coverage was summarized with
deepTools/bamCoverage $\pm$1 kb around annotated TSSs excluding regions with a second gene
promoter in the display window with 10 bp binning, and plotted using plotHeatmap.
588
For average plots of H3K4me2 signal around promoters, profiling coverage was summarized with
deepTools/bamCoverage $\pm$1 kb around annotated TSSs excluding regions with a second gene
promoter in the display window with 10 bp binning, and plotted using plotHeatmap.

For heatmapping of RNAPIIS2p signal at gene starts, we used deepTools/computeMatrix with
parameters: -b 2000 -a 2000 -R and then we used deepTools/plotHeatmap with parameters: --
colorMap viridis.
596

For visualizing the chromosomal distribution of CUT&Tag data as CIRCOS plots, we used the
circlize package in R with default settings (circlize version 0.4.15). Genome coverage files for
plotting were generated by deepTools/bamCoverage command, using parameters:

-bs 20000 --centerReads --effectiveGenomeSize 142573017 -of bedgraph

And plotted in consecutive 20 kb bins. The innermost 3 rings of each plot display genomic
coverage, with color-coding set independently per ring.The color of bins in the outer ring correspond
to the fold-change of signal in spermatocytes compared to wing imaginal discs calculated using
deepTools/multiBigwigSummary command, with parameters:

bins -bs 20000 –outRawCounts

For boxplots, the enrichment score for each gene was scaled by dividing its read count by the
median count in the "chromosome *2* & *3*" category and plotted, discarding genes with enrichment
score = 0 in either dissociated testes, in spermatocytes, or in wing imaginal discs.

Data availability

Data generated in this study is deposited in GEO under accession GSE225300.

Funding

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Profiling of the histone H3K4me2 modification in the Drosophila testis.
(**A**) Schematic of male germline stages in Drosophila. Germline stem cells (GSCs, fuschia) are
located in the apical tip of the testis. After an asymmetric division a progeny spermatogonium
(purple) undergoes 4 rounds of mitotic divisions. After one last S phase cells grow over ~3 days as
spermatocytes (blue, light green, dark green) before meiosis (red). Post-meiotic differentiation
produces mature sperm (black) with elongated nuclei. Somatic cell types of the testis are not
shown.
(**B-E**) Distribution of the H3K4me2 modification in testes from *bam* mutants, from *aly* mutants, from
wildtype animals, and from wing imaginal discs.

(**B**) H3K4me2 around the GSC-expressed *nanos* gene. Neighboring genes show peaks in all
samples, while low signal across *nanos* is highest in testes from *bam* mutants, and apparent in all
three testes samples.
(**C**) H3K4me2 around the spermatocyte-expressed *loopin-1* gene. H3K4me2 signal appears in *aly*
mutant samples (which contain early spermatocytes) and reach high levels in wildtype testes (which
include later stages of spermatogenesis).
(**D**) H3K4me2 around the meiotically-expressed genes *Mst36Fa* and *Mst36Fb* genes. Signal across
these genes only appears in wildtype testes.
(**E**) H3K4me2 around the *abd-A* and *Abd-B* genes, which are expressed in somatic cells of the
testis.
637
Figure 2. Changes in the histone H3K4me2 modification in germline-expressed genes.
H3K4me2 signal around gene promoters (-200–+500 bp) with transcripts enriched in specific
germline cell types. Transcript expression was derived from FCA snRNA-seq clustering [Raz *et al*,
2023].
(**A**) Expression (snRNA-seq) in wildtype testes and H3K4me2 enrichment in *bam* mutant, in *aly*
mutant, and in wildtype testes in germline stages. Z-scores for H3K4me2 signal were calculated
between the three genotypes. Notable germline-enriched genes are indicated, including those
expressed in GSCs, in meiosis, or for cell division (black), linked to the *Y* chromosome (purple), or
expressed post-meiotically (orange).
(**B**) Selected examples of promoters with germline-enriched expression. Expression z-scores from
FCA snRNA-seq across 18 germline clusters (Raz et al. 2023) and H3K4me2 enrichment in *bam*
mutant, in *aly* mutant, and in wildtype testes.
(**C**) Distribution of H3K4me2 around promoters with germline-enriched expression. The testis
somatic category comprises the top tercile of promoters with somatic cell-type expression in
snRNA-seq data (Raz et al. 2023). Only promoters with no promoter of a second gene within 1 kb
upstream are shown.
654
Figure 3. Profiling RNA Polymerase II in isolated spermatocytes.
(**A**) An adult testis carrying a *UASRFP* construct induced by a *bamGAL4* driver and a *hephGFP*
construct. Gonial cells are labeled red while spermatocytes are labeled green with fluorescent
proteins.
(**B**) FACS plots of recorded events from dissociated testes for forward scatter (FSC) and GFP
signal. Boxes indicate events collected for chromatin profiling.
(**C**) Distribution of RNAPIIS2p at the spermatocyte-expressed *betaTub85D* gene in isolated
spermatocytes and in wing imaginal discs.
(**D**) Distribution of RNAPIIS2p at the broadly-expressed *stc* gene in isolated spermatocytes and in
wing imaginal discs. RNAPIIS2p is strongly localized at the *stc* promoter in wing imaginal discs, but
more evenly distributed in spermatocytes.
(**E**) Selected examples of genes with late germline expression and for protamines. Expression z-
scores from FCA snRNA-seq across 18 germline clusters (Raz *et al.*, 2023) and RNAPIIS2p
enrichment in isolated spermatocytes.
(**F**) Enrichment of RNAPIIS2p in isolated spermatocytes and in wing imaginal discs across genes
with germline-enriched transcripts.

Figure 4. Chromosomal distribution of RNA polymerase II and H4K16ac in isolated spermatocytes.

(**A**) CIRCOS plot of RNAPIIS2p across Drosophila chromosomes. The signal (black) in IgG controls, in wing imaginal discs, and in isolated spermatocytes is shown in internal rings, and the log2 fold-change of signals between spermatocytes and wings is shown in the outer ring.

(**B**) Enrichment of RNAPIIs2p across gene bodies in wing imaginal discs, in whole dissociated testes, and in isolated spermatocytes separated by chromosomal location. Scores are scaled to the median score on the 2nd and 3rd chromosomes.

(**C**) CIRCOS plot of the dosage-compensation marker histone H4K16ac across Drosophila chromosomes. Signal (black) in IgG controls, in wing imaginal discs, and in isolated spermatocytes is shown in internal rings, and the log2 fold-change of signals between spermatocytes and wings is shown in the outer ring.

Figure 5. Chromosomal distribution of repressive histone modifications in isolated spermatocytes. CIRCOS plots across Drosophila chromosomes show signal (black) in IgG controls, in wing imaginal discs, and in isolated spermatocytes in internal rings, and the log2 fold-change of signals between spermatocytes and wings in the outer ring.

(**A**) Distribution of the heterochromatin-silencing marker H3K9me2.

(**B**) Distribution of the Polycomb-silencing marker H3K27me3.

Figure 6. Chromosomal distribution of ubiquitinylated histone H2A in isolated spermatocytes.

(**A**) CIRCOS plots of uH2A across Drosophila chromosomes in IgG controls, in wing imaginal discs, and in isolated spermatocytes.

(**B**) Immunostaining of uHA (blue) and the nucleolar marker fibrillarin (red) on germline nuclei. Early-, mid-, and late-spermatocyte stage were identified by PcGFP (green) localization pattern in wildtype spermatocytes and in *X/O* spermatocytes. Testes from *bam* mutants contain gonial cells, while testes from *aly* mutants contain mostly early spermatocytes.

(**C**) Correspondence of uH2A and RNAPIIS2p signals around the promoters of genes on the *Y* chromosome in wing imaginal discs and in isolated spermatocytes.

(**D**) Correspondence of uH2A and RNAPIIS2p signals across transposon consensus sequences in wing imaginal discs and in isolated spermatocytes.

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Supplementary Information

Supplementary Tables

Supplementary Table 1. Sample IDs and sequencing results.

Supplementary Table 2. snRNA-seq gene expression scores and H3K4me2 enrichment at
Drosophila promoters. This lists unique TSSs in the Flybase dm6 r6.31 assembly release and
associated gene expression scores (derived from Raz 2023) and H3K4me2 signal (in CPM) in a -
200–+500 bp window around each TSS.

Supplementary Table 3. Enrichment of RNAPIIS2p, H3K9me2, H3K27me3, and uH2A across
Drosophila genes in dissociated testes, in isolated spermatocytes, and in wing imaginal
discs. This lists unique genes in the Flybase dm6 r6.31 assembly release and associated gene
expression scores (derived from Raz 2023) and chromatin profiling signals (in CPKM) across each
gene length.

Supplementary Table 4. Enrichment of RNAPIIS2p, H3K9me2, H3K27me3, and uH2A across
consensus transposon sequences in dissociated testes, in isolated spermatocytes, and in
wing imaginal discs. This lists a subset of transposon consensus sequences

(https://github.com/bergmanlab/drosophila-
[transposons/blob/master/misc/D_mel_transposon_sequence_set.fa](https://github.com/bergmanlab/drosophila-transposons/blob/master/misc/D_mel_transposon_sequence_set.fa)) and associated chromatin
profiling signals (in CPKM) across each consensus length.

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Supplementary Figures

Supplementary Figure 1. Genes with germline-enriched expression in testes.
(**A**) FCA clustering. Number of promoters in each cluster is marked on the left.
(**B**) MA plot and threshold for germline-enriched genes (snRNA-seq data showing gexp/sexp with
$\geq$1 cut-off). Red marks genes in germline-expressed clusters 1-5, and blue marks genes in testes
somatic clusters 6-10. The threshold for assigning genes with germline-enriched expression is in
green.
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919   **Supplementary Figure 2. Distribution of elongating RNAPII in spermatocytes and in somatic**
920   **cells.** Heatmap of RNAPIIS2p signal around gene TSSs in spermatocytes, in dissociated testes,
921   and in wing imaginal discs.
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923   **Supplementary Figure 3. Chromatin features across transposon consensus sequences in**
924   **spermatocytes and in somatic cells.**
925   Selected transposons with increased RNAPIIS2p signal in spermatocytes *versus* wing imaginal
926   discs (log2FC$\geq$2).
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