Title

HemK2 functions for sufficient protein synthesis and RNA stability through

eRF1 methylation during *Drosophila* oogenesis

Running Title

HemK2 functions for translation and RNA stability

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Abstract

HemK2 is a highly conserved methyltransferase spanning from yeast to humans. Despite its conservation, the identification of its genuine substrates has been controversial, and its biological importance in higher organisms remains unclear. In this study, we elucidate the role of HemK2 in the methylation of eukaryotic Release Factor 1 (eRF1), a process essential for female germline development in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Knockdown of *hemK2* in the germline cells (*hemK2*-GLKD) induces apoptosis in these cells, accompanied by a pronounced decrease in both eRF1 methylation and protein synthesis. The overexpression of a methylation-deficient eRF1 variant recapitulates the defects observed in *hemK2*-GLKD, suggesting that eRF1 is a primary methylation target of HemK2. Furthermore, *hemK2*-GLKD leads to significant reduction mRNA levels in germline cell. We demonstrate that these defects in oogenesis and protein synthesis can be partially restored by inhibiting the No-Go Decay pathway. In addition, *hemK2* knockdown is associated with increased disome formation, suggesting that disruptions in eRF1 methylation may provoke ribosomal stalling, which subsequently activates translation-coupled mRNA surveillance mechanisms that degrade actively-translated mRNAs. We propose that HemK2-mediated methylation of eRF1 is critical for ensuring efficient protein production and mRNA stability, which are vital for the generation of high-quality eggs.

Introduction

Post-translational modifications (PTMs), such as methylation, phosphorylation, glycosylation, acetylation, and ubiquitination, are chemical alterations that occur after protein synthesis. PTMs profoundly influence protein function, interaction, stability, and enzymatic activity (Ramazi and Zahiri, 2021; Ryšlavá et al., 2013). Among the over 400 types of PTMs, methylation is one of the most pervasive. Methylation reactions are catalyzed by S-adenosylmethionine-dependent methyltransferases (MTases), which transfer methyl groups to a variety of biomolecules, including proteins, DNA, and RNA, targeting cytosines and adenines (Chen et al., 2013; Dai et al., 2021; Ping et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2016). In the *Drosophila* genome, 127 MTase genes have been annotated, and these MTases have been further classified based on their substrate specificities. Lysine MTases and arginine MTases constitute substantial groups among protein MTases. Prior studies on histone methylation have highlighted the importance of lysine/arginine modifications in transcriptional regulation (Gates et al., 2017; Zhao and Garcia, 2015). In addition to lysine and arginine residues, other amino acid residues such as histidine (Clarke, 2013), aspartic acid (Sprung et al., 2008), asparagine (Klotz et al., 1990), and glutamine (Heurgué-Hamard et al., 2002) are also subject to methylation.

HemK2 is a member of the unclassified protein MTases, distinct due to its broad substrate class. HemK2 has been previously shown to catalyze the methylation of histone H4 lysine 12 (H4K12), DNA N6-adenine (6mA), and eukaryotic translation release factor 1 (eRF1). HemK2-mediated H4K12 methylation is implicated in regulating the proliferation of prostate tumor cells

(Metzger et al., 2019), while diminished genomic DNA 6mA levels have been associated with tumorigenesis in cancer patients (Xiao et al., 2018). However, the enzymatic activity of HemK2 towards genomic DNA 6mA remains controversial (Kweon et al., 2019; Ratel et al., 2006; Woodcock et al., 2019). Conversely, HemK2's role as an MTase for eRF1 has been extensively investigated in yeast and mammalian cells. HemK2 (N6AMT1 in humans; YDR140w or Mtq2p in yeast) methylates the glutamine residue within the GGQ motif of eRF1 (Figaro et al., 2008; Heurgué-Hamard et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2010). Depletion of HemK2 in yeast (Mtq2p) resulted in sensitivity to translation-fidelity antibiotics (Polevoda et al., 2006). In mice, HemK2 (also known as N6AMT1) deficiency led to early embryonic lethality and impaired post-implantation development (Liu et al., 2010). Yet, the methylation of these potential substrates by HemK2 under physiological conditions in multicellular organisms is not well defined.

Drosophila oogenesis serves as an exemplary model for studying the genetic regulation of egg production. The female fly harbors a pair of ovaries, each comprising 18–20 ovarioles, which contain the germarium at the anterior tip, succeeded by sequentially maturing egg chambers (Avilés-Pagán and Orr-Weaver, 2018; Gleason et al., 2018; Rastegari et al., 2020). Each egg chamber encompasses one oocyte and 15 nurse cells that support oocyte growth, surrounded by a monolayer of somatic follicle cells. In nurse cells, the production of mRNAs and proteins for maternal deposition into eggs is critical for proper oogenesis. Consequently, *Drosophila* oogenesis is an energetically demanding process involving cellular proliferation and growth that necessitates extensive protein synthesis (Lasko, 2012).

The role of HemK2 as a methyltransferase (MTase) has been

extensively investigated in yeast and mammalian cell cultures. Nonetheless,

its function within multicellular organisms, particularly in the reproductive

system—characterized by active gene expression and protein synthesis—has

not been fully elucidated. In this study, we delineate the role of HemK2 in

eRF1 methylation during *Drosophila* oogenesis. Our findings indicate that

HemK2 is critical for egg production; knockdown of *hemK2* expression

arrested oogenesis at an intermediate stage and induced apoptosis in

germline cells. The disruption of *hemK2* expression resulted in a substantial

decrease in eRF1 methylation, whereas methylation of DNA 6mA and histone

H4 lysine 12 (H4K12) was not significantly affected. Moreover, the lack of

eRF1 methylation impaired translation efficiency, which in turn reduced mRNA

levels via the No-Go Decay pathway. Collectively, these results highlight the

indispensable function of HemK2-mediated eRF1 methylation in promoting

effective protein synthesis and mRNA stability, thus modulating gene

expression throughout *Drosophila* oogenesis.

Results

Germline knockdown of *hemK2* resulted in female sterility marked by the developmental arrest in the mid-oogenesis

To investigate the role of HemK2, a highly conserved methyltransferase encoded by *CG9960* in *Drosophila melanogaster*, we employed RNA interference to repress its expression. This knockdown was conducted by shRNA targeted to the 3'UTR (BL#40837) using the germline-specific driver *NGT40*; *NosGal4-VP16* (Grieder et al., 2000). In normal development, the oocyte accrues proteins and RNAs from 15 nurse cells through cytoplasmic channels (Fig. 1A, B). Females with germline-specific knockdown of *hemK2* (*hemK2*-GLKD) showed a ~65% decrease in mRNA levels (Fig. 1C, S1A) and exhibited sterility. These *hemK2*-GLKD females contained small ovaries and were incapable of laying eggs (Fig. 1B, D), indicative of developmental arrest at stages 7/8 before the vitellogenic stages. Conversely, *hemK2*-GLKD males, despite a similar reduction in its mRNA level to approximately 25%, did not exhibit notable fertility impairments (Fig. S1F, G).

HemK2 is expressed from a dicistronic transcript which is co-transcribed with the upstream open reading frame, *snapin*, in a single mRNA (Fig. S1A) (Wall et al., 2005). To confirm that the observed defects in *hemK2*-GLKD were due to diminished HemK2 protein expression, individual transgenes coding for N-terminal FLAG-tagged HemK2 or Snapin, lacking the shRNA target sequence, were expressed in the germline following knockdown of the dicistronic mRNA (Fig. 1E; Fig. S1E). Females expressing the *hemK2* transgene alone in their germline exhibited egg laying and hatching rates comparable to controls (Fig. 1D), thus rescuing the sterility defect. In contrast,

expression of *snapin* did not restore these defects (Fig. S1D). These results

confirm that the sterility observed was specifically due to compromised

hemK2 function resulting from knockdown of the dicistronic transcript,

establishing *hemK2*'s vital role in germline cells during oogenesis.

To investigate the function of *hemK2* in somatic cells, we knocked

down its expression in ovarian somatic cells, including follicle cells, using the

somatic driver *traffic jam-Gal4* (*tj-Gal4*). *hemK2*-STKD females became sterile

with rudimentary ovaries (Fig. S1B, C). These ovaries often presented with

fused egg chambers and disorganized follicle cells (Fig. S1C). Remarkably,

the fertility and developmental disruptions were nearly fully rescued by

expressing the *hemK2* transgene with *tj-Gal4* (Fig. S1B, C), suggesting that

hemK2 is crucial in both germline and somatic cell functions during

oogenesis.

Pleiotropic phenotypes in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries indicate essential roles

in oogenesis

Ovaries with *hemK2*-GLKD exhibited multiple phenotypic aberrations:

hyperplasia of the posterior follicle cells, chromosomal dispersion failure, and

extensive apoptosis in germline cells (Fig. 2). All egg chambers in the control

females were encapsulated by a monolayer of follicle cells, whereas the

majority of egg chambers in *hemK2*-GLKD females demonstrated multi-

layered follicle cells in the posterior region (Fig. 2A; 94%). In addition, an

increased presence of mitotic cells, marked by phospho-histone H3 (pH3),

was observed in the hyperplastic multi-layered follicle cells of *hemK2*-GLKD

during stages 7/8 (Fig. 2A).

Moreover, nurse cells in *hemK2*-GLKD displayed defective

chromosomal dispersion (Fig. 2B). Typically, wild-type nurse cells underwent

a distinct polytene chromosome condensation into a '5-blob' structure, which

was fully dispersed by stage 6 (Dej and Spradling, 1999). In stark contrast,

almost all *hemK2*-GLKD ovarioles contained nurse cell nuclei with

chromosomal configurations retained in a blob-like state beyond this stage

(Fig. 2B, Fig. S2A; 99%). To investigate the possible causes of this

chromosomal defect, we examined the expression levels of genes known to

be involved in chromosomal dispersion (Goodrich et al., 2004; Klusza et al.,

2013). qRT-PCR analysis showed that the mRNA level of *otu* was significantly

reduced in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries (Fig. 2C), suggesting a correlation between

otu expression and the chromosomal dispersion defect. The expression of N-

terminal FLAG-tagged Otu104 isoform in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries substantially

recovered the dispersion of chromosomes (Fig. S2A), suggesting that *hemK2*

supports chromosomal dispersion during oogenesis, partly by ensuring *otu*

expression.

Additionally, *hemK2*-GLKD led to pronounced degeneration of egg

chambers during mid-oogenesis, a process that is typically regulated by

germline cell viability in response to physiological and environmental cues

(Drummond-Barbosa and Spradling, 2001; McCall, 2004). Immunostaining for

p53, an apoptotic inducer, revealed a marked increase in p53 signal in the

nurse cell nuclei of most *hemK2*-GLKD ovarioles (Fig. 2D; 93%), suggesting

cell death in mid-oogenesis. Consistently, the simultaneous knockdown of *p53*

and *hemK2* significantly restored the progression of oogenesis in *hemK2*-

GLKD ovaries (Fig. S2B). Furthermore, expression of p35, an inhibitor of

caspases DrICE and Dcp-1 (Fuchs and Steller, 2015; Werz et al., 2005) also

suppressed the cell death in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries (Fig. S2B). While females

with either *p53* knockdown or ectopic p35 expression in *hemK2*-GLKD did not

fully recover egg-laying to control levels, the hatching rates of the resulting

eggs were comparable to that of controls (Fig. S2C). Collectively, these data

suggest that p53-dependent apoptosis occurs during mid-oogenesis in

hemK2-GLKD, although the precise initiating mechanisms remain to be

determined. Notably, chromosomal dispersion remained impaired in *hemK2*-

GLKD ovaries even after cell death suppression (Fig. S2B), indicating that

apoptosis and chromosomal dispersion defects are mediated by distinct

pathways affected by *hemK2* downregulation.

eRF1 methylation by HemK2's catalytic activity is required for oogenesis

Previous studies have identified HemK2 as a methyltransferase acting on

three different substrates: DNA N6-adenine (6mA) in human cultured cells

(Xiao et al., 2018), histone H4 lysine 12 (H4K12) in A549 lung

adenocarcinoma cells (Metzger et al., 2019), and a glutamine residue within

the GGQ motif of eRF1 in yeast (Heurgué-Hamard et al., 2005) and human

(Figaro et al., 2008). Nonetheless, the genuine substrate and functional role of

HemK2 in multicellular organisms have remained elusive. First, we

investigated the 6mA modification in genomic germline DNA of *hemK2*-GLKD

through immunostaining with an anti-6mA antibody. No alteration in the

pattern or signal intensity of 6mA staining was observed in *hemK2*-GLKD

germline cells (Fig. S3A), suggesting that HemK2 does not mediate the

methylation of genomic N6-adenine in the *Drosophila* germline. Moreover,

levels of methylated H4K12 were similar between *hemK2*-GLKD and control

ovaries (Fig. S3B), thereby excluding H4K12 as a primary substrate in the

Drosophila germline.

Subsequently, we evaluated the methylation status of endogenous

eRF1 in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries. Due to the ineffectiveness of the anti-methyl-

eRF1 antibody in Western blot analyses, we performed eRF1

immunoprecipitation followed by immunoblotting with an antibody against N5-

methyl-glutamine (methyl-Q). The eRF1 methylation in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries

was significantly reduced to 35% of control, likely reflecting the contribution

from unaffected somatic cells (Fig. 3A). Immunostaining with the anti-methyl-

eRF1 antibody showed a substantial reduction of eRF1 methylation

specifically in germline cells of *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries, while the expression

level of eRF1 remained consistent across cell types (Fig. 3B). This finding

was corroborated by the immunoprecipitation of FLAG-tagged eRF1

expressed in the germline, which exhibited minimal methylation in *hemK2*-

GLKD ovaries compared to control (Fig. 3C), confirming the role of *Drosophila*

HemK2 in eRF1 methylation. It is well documented that a glutamine residue

within the GGQ motif of eRF1, crucial for peptide release, is consistently

methylated by HemK2 across various species (Dinçbas-Renqvist et al., 2000;

Figaro et al., 2008; Gao et al., 2020; Kusevic et al., 2016; Svidritskiy and

Korostelev, 2018). To determine if the GGQ motif of eRF1 is the methylation

target in *Drosophila*, we mutated the corresponding glutamine (Q185) to

alanine (eRF1 Q185A) and examined their methylation in S2 cells (Fig. 3D).

Consistent with observations in other systems, methylation of the eRF1

Q185A mutant was nearly undetectable, irrespective of *hemK2* knockdown,

indicating that this mutation disrupts eRF1 methylation (Fig. 3D). Collectively,

these results suggest that Q185 is the predominant methylation site of eRF1

by *Drosophila* HemK2.

The abovementioned rescue experiments validated HemK2's

indispensable role *in vivo* for egg development (Fig. 1 and Fig. S1). We

proceeded to evaluate the significance of amino acid residues critical for

HemK2's methyltransferase activity during oogenesis. The NPPY motif of

HemK2, highly conserved and recognized as a substrate-binding pocket, is

vital for its methylation function in human cell lines (Fig. 4A) (Gao et al., 2020;

Metzger et al., 2019). It has been reported that mutations in residues proximal

to the substrate, specifically Asn122 and Tyr125 within the NPPY motif of

human HemK2, abolish its catalytic activity for eRF1 methylation *in vitro* (Fig.

4B) (Metzger et al., 2019). Correspondingly, we introduced mutations at

analogous positions in *Drosophila* HemK2, Asn116 and Tyr119, substituting

them with alanine (N116A and Y119A, respectively), and expressed these

mutants in the germline of *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries (Fig. 4C; Fig. S4A). The

Y119A mutant did not recover the observed defects, such as egg chamber

degeneration, egg laying and hatching rate, however, the N116A mutant

restored these parameters to levels comparable to the control (Fig. 4C, D).

These findings suggest that Tyr119, as opposed to Asn116, is critical for

HemK2's function within *Drosophila* germline cells.

Furthermore, we investigated HemK2's activity in catalyzing the

methylation of the glutamine residue within the GGQ motif of eRF1 in S2 cells.

After co-transfecting each FLAG-tagged HemK2 variant with Myc-tagged

eRF1 into S2 cells and knocking down endogenous *hemK2*, we assessed

eRF1 methylation (Fig. 4E). Immunoprecipitation of Myc-eRF1 followed by

immunoblotting with an anti-methyl-Q antibody showed significant reduction in

eRF1 methylation upon endogenous *hemK2* knockdown. This reduction was

rescued by expressing wildtype HemK2 and the N116A mutant, but not by the

Y119A mutant (Fig. 4E). This demonstrates that Tyr119, but not Asn116, is

indispensable for the methylation of eRF1 at the 185th glutamine by

Drosophila HemK2.

Additionally, given that HemK1, a paralog of HemK2 with a conserved

NPPY motif and 42% sequence homology, is known to methylate the

glutamine in the GGQ motif of mitochondrial release factors in human cells

(Fang et al., 2022; Ishizawa et al., 2008), we sought to determine the

specificity of cytosolic eRF1 methylation by HemK2. In S2 cells, where *hemK2*

knockdown reduced eRF1 methylation, expression of HemK2, but not

HemK1, rescued the methylation levels, signifying that cytosolic eRF1

methylation is an exclusive function of HemK2 (Fig. S4B).

HemK2-mediated eRF1 methylation is required for the efficient

translation and mRNA stability

We investigated the role of eRF1 methylation in oogenesis by knocking down

eRF1 expression in germline cells. *eRF1* germline knockdown (*eRF1*-GLKD)

led to rudimentary ovaries that failed to produce eggs, a phenotype more

severe than that of *hemK2*-GLKD (Fig. 1B, 5A, B). Immunostaining with Vasa

(Vas), a DEAD box RNA helicase and germline marker, indicated agametic

germaria with a stark reduction in germline cells in *eRF1*-GLKD ovaries (Fig.

5C). The defects in *eRF1*-GLKD were successfully rescued by expressing

FLAG-tagged wildtype eRF1, but not with the methylation-deficient Q185A

mutant in germline cells (Fig. 5B, C). This highlights the critical role of the

185th glutamine residue, and likely its methylation, in germline cell viability and

oogenesis progression. The less severe phenotype in *hemK2*-GLKD could

result from incomplete disruption of eRF1 methylation, potentially due to

residual *hemK2* expression or compensation by other methyltransferase(s).

Moreover, expressing FLAG-eRF1 Q185A mutant in germline cells of

wildtype ovaries disrupted egg production (Fig. 5D). This expression led to

developmental arrest at mid-oogenesis, with defects in chromosome

dispersion and extensive apoptosis, mirroring the *hemK2*-GLKD phenotype

(Fig. 5D; Fig. S5A, B). Over 80% of ovarioles expressing eRF1 Q185A

exhibited p53-positive egg chambers (Fig. S5C). Therefore, the expression of

eRF1 Q185A effectively recapitulates the *hemK2*-GLKD phenotype,

supporting that the absence of eRF1 methylation primarily causes the

observed defects.

Given that eRF1 GGQ motif methylation is essential for nascent

peptide release and translational termination efficiency, and that its

perturbation could lead to translational deficits by hindering ribosome

recycling, we assessed translation activity in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries using an

HPG incorporation assay *ex vivo*. HPG, a methionine analog with an alkyne

group, can be incorporated into newly synthesized proteins and is visualized

through a 'Click reaction' with a fluorescent dye (Shen et al., 2021). A notable

decrease in HPG signal in cytoplasm of germline cell was observed in

hemK2-GLKD ovaries (Fig. 5E), indicating a requirement for eRF1

methylation in maintaining translation efficiency. This translational reduction in

hemK2-GLKD was completely restored by expressing either wildtype HemK2

or the N116A mutant, but not by the Y119A mutant (Fig. 5E). Similarly,

germline expression of the methylation-deficient eRF1 Q185A mutant

abrogated translation activity (Fig. S5D). Collectively, these results

underscore the necessity of HemK2-mediated eRF1 methylation for efficient

translation in the *Drosophila* ovary.

To elucidate the molecular deficiencies resulting from *hemK2*-GLKD

and eRF1 dysfunction, we conducted ovarian mRNA-seq analysis using next-

generation sequencing technology. Late egg chambers in control ovaries

were selectively removed to minimize developmental discrepancies between

hemK2-GLKD and control samples. Aligning with our RT-PCR data (Fig. 1C

and Fig. 2C), mRNA-seq confirmed the marked downregulation of *hemK2*

(log2FC=-1.27) and *otu* (log2FC=-1.45) (Supplementary Table S4).

Additionally, we identified 478 upregulated and 325 downregulated genes

($log_2FC < -1$ or > 1; q-val < 0.01). Gene Ontology (GO) term analysis (Thomas

et al., 2022) of differentially expressed genes indicated a significant

downregulation in genes associated with female reproductive processes, such

as female gamete generation, oogenesis, and germ cell development (Fig.

6A), while genes unrelated to oogenesis were comparatively upregulated (Fig.

6B).

To further dissect the gene expression changes following germline

knockdown of *hemK2*, we referenced a previous study detailing gene

expression across different ovarian cell types from single-cell mRNA

analyses; many different cell types were distinguished based on gene

expression patterns. Focusing on genes expressed in one germline and five

somatic cell types representing early to mid-oogenesis, we observed a

significant downregulation (average $\log_2$FC = -0.55) in *hemK2*-GLKD for

genes enriched in germline 2 cell type (N=154), which are expressed from

germarium region 2 onward (Fig. 6C, D) (Jevitt et al., 2020). In contrast,

genes associated with the five somatic cell types did not show notable

changes (Fig. 6D; Fig. S6A-E), suggesting that *hemK2*-GLKD specifically

downregulates mRNAs in germline cells.

344   Previous research indicates that eRF1 methylation at the GGQ motif

substantially enhances the release of nascent peptides, accelerating

translation termination by 10 to 100-fold (Pierson et al., 2016). We

hypothesize that impaired methylation on eRF1 could decrease the peptide

release rate, leading to ribosome stalling at stop codons of actively translated

mRNAs. Such stalling is known to activate mRNA surveillance process,

targeting mRNAs with engaged ribosomes for degradation via the No-Go

Decay (NGD) pathway (Brandman and Hegde, 2016; Doma and Parker,

2006; Ikeuchi et al., 2019; Simms et al., 2017; Tomomatsu et al., 2023). To

investigate this hypothesis, we analyzed ribosome stalling in *hemK2*-GLKD by

performing a sucrose gradient sedimentation assay with ovarian lysates. The

lysates, treated with emetine to halt translation and RNase A to digest

unprotected mRNA regions, revealed a predominance of monosomes and a

negligible disome presence in the control, indicative of minimal ribosome

stalling and collision (Fig. 6E). However, in *hemK2*-GLKD, disome levels

increased approximately 2.1-fold (Fig. 6F, *hemK2*-GLKD), suggesting that

ineffective nascent polypeptide release due to unmethylated eRF1 leads to

ribosome collision.

363   Blockage of the No-Go Decay pathway restores mRNA destabilization

364   and mid-oogenesis arrest in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries

To ascertain if the No-Go Decay (NGD) pathway was responsible for the

pronounced defects observed in *hemK2*-GLKD, we conducted a simultaneous

knockdown of the mRNA surveillance pathway components along with *hemK2*

in germline cells (Fig. 7 and Fig. S7A). In the double-germline knockdown

(DGKD) of *hemK2* and *ski8*—a component of the Ski complex that

collaborates with the exosome and facilitates 3' to 5' mRNA degradation

(Zinoviev et al., 2020)—, developmental impairments associated with *hemK2*-

GLKD were partially restored (Fig. 7A). Females from the *ski8-hemK2* DGKD

had more advanced stages of egg chambers and laid a comparable number

of eggs to controls, though their hatching rate was reduced to 40% of the

control (Fig. 7A, B). Considering the Ski complex's role in general RNA decay,

we further investigated additional NGD factors, such as *pelota* (*pelo*), which is

crucial for dissociating stalled ribosomes and promoting RNA decay within the

NGD and No-Stop Decay (NSD) pathways (Becker et al., 2011; Jamar et al.,

2017; Kobayashi et al., 2010; Tsuboi et al., 2012). Remarkably, *pelo-hemK2*

DGKD females exhibited a similar phenotype to that of the *ski8-hemK2*

DGKD, with advanced egg chamber development and a 60% hatching rate,

comparable to the number of eggs laid (Fig. 7A, B). Furthermore, the mid-

oogenesis arrest induced by expressing the dominant-negative eRF1 Q185A

mutant was also partly rescued by the germline knockdown of either *ski8* or

pelo (Fig. S7B), reinforcing the notion that the eRF1 methylation defect

triggers mRNA surveillance mechanisms.

Investigating the role of the NGD pathway in the defects seen in

hemK2-GLKD ovaries, we assessed another putative NGD component, *nonu-*

1/*cue2*, an endonuclease identified in *C. elegans* and *S. cerevisiae* that

cleaves mRNA near a stalled ribosome during translation (D'Orazio et al.,

2019; Glover et al., 2020) (Fig. S7C). Contrasting with the partial rescue

observed with *ski8* and *pelo* knockdowns, the simultaneous germline

knockdown of *CG7139*, encoding the *Drosophila* ortholog of *nonu-1*/*cue2*, and

hemK2 did not ameliorate the observed phenotypic defects (Fig. 7A, B; Fig.

S7A). This indicates that *CG7139* may not be an essential component of the

NGD pathway in *Drosophila*, or it may act redundantly with other

endonucleases in the translation-coupled mRNA surveillance mechanism

compromised by *hemK2* knockdown. Further analysis revealed that a dual

germline knockdown of *hemK2* and *upf3*, a factor in Nonsense-Mediated

Decay (NMD) (Tan et al., 2022), did not reverse the phenotypic abnormalities

in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries (Fig. 7A, B), emphasizing a specific role of NGD in

mediating mRNA degradation. The efficiency of the knockdown for each

component was verified by qRT-PCR (Fig. S7A; ranging from 10 to 40%

relative to control), accounting for the contribution of non-knockdown somatic

cells to the total ovarian RNA, confirming a significant reduction in expression

levels. Consistent with their roles in rescuing developmental morphology, the

HPG incorporation assay demonstrated that knockdown of *ski8* or *pelo*, but

not *CG7139* or *upf3*, in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries partially restored translational

activity (Fig. 7C, D). These results support the hypothesis that disrupted eRF1

methylation in *hemK2*-GLKD leads to compromised translation termination

and ribosome stalling, specifically triggering mRNA degradation via the NGD

pathway.

In alignment with the recovery of oogenesis defects in *hemK2*-GLKD,

the expression levels of downregulated protein-coding RNAs were restored by

the additional germline knockdown of either *ski8* or *pelo* (Fig. 7E, Fig. S6F,

G), further validating the specific activation of NGD upon *hemK2*-GLKD. The

concurrent germline knockdown of *ski8* or *pelo* with *hemK2* also reinstated

general protein synthesis, despite the observation of ribosome stalling to a

similar degree as in the single *hemK2* knockdown (Fig. 6E, F). These findings

suggest that when mRNAs are not eliminated by NGD, translation re-initiation

may occur, enabling protein synthesis and partially recovering egg maturation

(Fig. 7A, B). Overall, our results indicate that perturbations in eRF1

methylation due to *hemK2*-GLKD result in the inefficient release of

synthesized peptides and the activation of the NGD pathway, likely due to

ribosome stalling.

Discussion

The reduction of *hemK2* expression led to female sterility, marked by a significant interruption of oogenesis in both germline and somatic cells of the ovary, culminating in developmental arrest during the mid-stages (Fig. 1; Fig. S1). Notably, *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries exhibited morphological aberrations, such as follicle cell hyperplasia and chromosomal dispersion failure (Fig. 2A, B). It has been previously reported that the expression of the Delta ligand in germline cells activates Notch-Delta signaling pathway, which prompts the transition from the mitotic cell cycle to the endocycle in follicle cells (Deng et al., 2001; Schaeffer et al., 2004; St. Johnston, 2001). The hyperplasia observed in the posterior follicle cells of *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries might be due to diminished Delta ligand expression in germline cells, leading to an extended period of mitotic division in follicle cells beyond the stage 6.

In egg chambers of stage 6 and beyond, *hemK2*-GLKD ovarioles predominantly contained nurse cell nuclei with unspread chromosomes (Fig. 2B; Fig. S2A). Inhibition of cell death in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries significantly improved egg chamber formation, yet the chromosomal dispersion defect persisted (Fig. S2B). These findings imply that germline cell death in *hemK2*-GLKD is not caused by the failure of chromosomal dispersion but likely due to ribosome stalling, which is a consequence of eRF1 methylation disturbance (Wu et al., 2020). It has been reported that ribosome collisions can initiate two distinct stress response pathways: a transient collision may trigger a GCN2-

mediated pathway promoting cell survival, while more severe collisions could

lead to the activation of MAPKK, inducing apoptosis in human cell lines (Wu

et al., 2020). Our data suggest that perturbation of methylation due to *hemK2*-

knockdown results in ribosome stalling and subsequent collisions, triggering

apoptosis in the translationally active environment of *Drosophila* ovaries.

Although HemK2 in yeast and mammalian cells has been shown to

mediate methylation of DNA 6mA, histone H4K12, and eRF1 (Figaro et al.,

2008; Metzger et al., 2019; Xiao et al., 2018), our findings indicate that in

Drosophila, HemK2 does not affect the methylation of DNA 6mA or histone

H4K12 (Fig. S3A, B). Instead, *hemK2* knockdown led to a substantial

decrease in eRF1 methylation (Fig. 3A-C), underscoring eRF1 as the specific

substrate for *Drosophila* HemK2. Notably, Tyr119, but not Asn116, is

essential for HemK2's methyltransferase activity, which is pivotal for

oogenesis and eRF1 methylation in *Drosophila* (Fig. 4C-E). This contrasts

with the necessity of both corresponding residues in human HemK2 for eRF1

methylation in vitro (Metzger et al., 2019). However, recent structural analyses

of human HemK2 revealed that the Asn122 side chain does not interact with

the methylated glutamine within the substrate binding pocket (Gao et al.,

2020), aligning with the dispensability of Asn116 in *Drosophila* HemK2's

methyltransferase activity.

Murine HemK2 substrate specificity studies using a peptide array have

delineated a putative consensus motif: G-Q-[SRYKLGAMTC]-

[ARFGLWYCSQKH]-[LARCQFYT]-R, where square brackets indicate any of

the residues listed therein (Kusevic et al., 2016). Employing this motif, we

have identified several *Drosophila* proteins, including CG17841, Spargel,

Chd1, Ythdc1, and eRF1, as potential HemK2 substrates. These candidates

may undergo methylation by HemK2 under certain conditions. However, the

phenotypes associated with the overexpression of the methylation-deficient

eRF1 Q185A mutant mirrored those observed in *hemK2*-GLKD (Fig. 5D),

proposing that in the context of *Drosophila* germline cells, eRF1 is the primary

substrate for HemK2.

Consistent with previous reports, methylation of the conserved GGQ motif

within release factors has been shown to significantly enhance nascent

peptide release, accelerating the termination rate of protein synthesis by 10 to

100-fold (Pierson et al., 2016). Corroborating this, our study found that

perturbation of eRF1 methylation by *hemK2*-GLKD led to a marked decrease

in translation efficiency (Fig. 5E). Notably, the reduced protein synthesis,

alongside the defects in oogenesis and the downregulation of mRNAs, were

substantially rescued by inhibiting general RNA degradation and NGD

pathway, while NMD blockade did not yield similar results (Fig. 7A-D). These

findings imply that the ribosome, even when associated with unmethylated

eRF1, can synthesize minimal yet essential polypeptides, provided that the

mRNAs are available for translation.

Our findings support the role of HemK2 as an authentic protein

methyltransferase in *Drosophila*, crucially involved in modulating eRF1 activity

via glutamine methylation, a modification vital for appropriate germline

development. Germline nurse cells efficiently produce proteins and mRNAs

destined for transfer to the oocyte, necessitating stringent regulation of

resource-intensive protein synthesis. Nonetheless, the specific regulatory

mechanisms governing eRF1 methylation by HemK2 remain elusive and

warrant additional exploration. It is plausible that this mechanism serves to

optimize egg production under favorable physiological conditions, while

downregulating it when conditions are less than ideal.

 Materials and Methods

 Fly stocks and cultures

All *Drosophila* stocks and crosses were raised at room temperature or at 25°C

on standard food (5% (w/v) dry yeast, 5% (w/v) corn flower, 2% (w/v) rice

bran, 10% (w/v) glucose, 0.7% (w/v) agar, 0.2% (v/v) propionic acid, and

0.05% (w/v) *p*-hydroxy butyl benzoic acid). For RNAi-mediated knockdown

experiments, the following transgenic RNAi Project (TRiP) lines from the

Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center (BDSC, USA), were utilized: *hemK2*

(HMS02003, #40837), *eRF1* (HMS05812, #67900), *upf3* (HMJ22158,

#58181), *cue2* (HMS02721, #44007), *ski8* (HMC04664, #57377), and *p53*

(HMS02286, #41720). The attP40 (#25709) and attP2 (#25710) lines were

employed for transgene injections. The following drivers were used to express

transgenes or shRNAs: *NGT40* and *nosGal4-VP16* (Grieder et al., 2000),

Matα-tub-Gal4 (#7063), and *traffic jam-Gal4* (Drosophila Genetic Resource

Center, Japan, #104055) (Hayashi et al., 2002). The UASp-P35 transgenic

line was generously provided by Dr. Bergmann (Werz et al., 2005). Controls

for each experiment were either the *y w* strain or the corresponding

heterozygous line.

Generation of transgenic fly lines

The transgenic fly lines generated were as follows: FLAG-HemK2 wildtype at

attP2, FLAG-HemK2 N116A at attP2, FLAG-HemK2 Y119A at attP2, FLAG-

Snapin at attP2, FLAG-eRF1 wildtype at attP2, FLAG-eRF1 Q185A at attP2,

and FLAG-Otu104 at attP2. In each instance, the coding sequence or its mutant

variant was amplified by PCR, utilizing *y w* genomic DNA or cDNA synthesized

from *y w* ovarian RNA as templates. A triple FLAG tag sequence was appended

to the N-terminal region of the amplification products. The purified PCR

fragments were subsequently cloned into the *Xba*I-linearized pUASp-K10-attB

vector (Koch et al., 2009) via In-Fusion reaction (#639648, Takara Bio, Japan).

Plasmids confirmed to be correct were injected into embryos of nos-

phiC31;;P{CaryP} attP2 (#25710) following standard protocols.

The *hemK2* TRiP construct at attP2 and *pelo* TRiP constructs at attP2

and attP40 sites, were also created. These TRiP constructs were produced by

ligating annealed oligonucleotides (TRiP-Fw/Rv) into the *Nhe*I- and *Eco*RI-

linearized pWalium22 vector (Perkins et al., 2015). UASp and Walium22

plasmids were then injected into embryos of nos-phiC31; P{CaryP}attP40

(#25709) or nos-phiC31;;P{CaryP} attP2 (#25710). The sequences of the

oligonucleotides used for annealing are provided in Supplementary Table S1.

Fluorescent immunostaining

Immunostaining was performed as previously described (Lim et al., 2022).

Ovaries were dissected and slightly teased apart in phosphate-buffered saline

(PBS), then fixed with 5.3% (v/v) paraformaldehyde (PFA, Electron Microscopy

Sciences, USA) in PBS for 10 min at room temperature. The fixed ovaries were

washed for 30 min with several changes of PBX (PBS containing 0.2% (v/v)

Triton X-100). This was followed by a blocking step involving incubation in PBX

containing 4% (w/v) bovine serum albumin (BSA) for a minimum of 30 min.

Ovaries were incubated with primary antibodies diluted in PBX containing 0.4%

(w/v) BSA overnight at 4°C, then washed for 1 h with several changes of PBX. Secondary antibodies were applied for over 2 hours at room temperature; following this, ovaries were washed for 1 h with PBX and stained with 1 µg/ml of 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) (SIGMA, USA) for 10 min in PBX. After a final rinse with PBS, the ovaries were mounted onto slides using Fluoro-KEEPER Antifade (Nacalai Tesque, Japan)

The following primary antibodies were used in the indicated dilution; mouse anti-FLAG (SIGMA [M2], F1804, 1:200), guinea pig anti-Vas (1:2,000) (Patil and Kai, 2010), rabbit anti-pH3 (Millipore, 06-570, 1:250), mouse anti-p53 (DSHB [25F4], 1:100), rabbit anti-Fibrillarin (Abcam, ab5821, 1:200), rabbit anti-DNA 6mA (Synaptic Systems, 202003, 1:1,000), rabbit anti-eRF1 (SIGMA, E8156, 1:200), and rabbit anti-methyl-eRF1 (1:100) (Lacoux et al., 2020). Secondary antibodies were Alexa Fluor 488-, 555- conjugated goat antibodies against rabbit, mouse, and guinea pig IgG (Invitrogen, A11029, A11034, A11073, A21424, A21429, A21435) at a 1:200 dilution in PBX containing 0.4% (w/v) BSA. Ovarian images were captured using a Zeiss LSM 900 confocal microscope and processed with Zen (Zeiss) and Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012) software.

Protein synthesis assay

Protein synthesis was assessed using the Click-iT® L-homopropargylglycine (HPG) Alexa Fluor 488 Protein Synthesis Assay Kit (Molecular Probes, USA), which measures newly synthesized proteins through quantification of the fluorescent HPG signal. Freshly dissected ovaries were incubated in 1 mM

HPG in PBS for 30 min and then fixed with 5.3% PFA in PBS for 10 min.

Subsequently, the ovaries were permeabilized by washing three times in PBX

for 30 minutes: the first wash utilized 3% BSA in PBX, followed by two additional

washes in PBX alone. The ovaries were then incubated with a freshly prepared

Click-iT® reaction cocktail for 30 min. After washing with Click-iT® reaction

rinse buffer, ovaries were stained with HCS NuclearMask™ Blue Stain working

solution (1:2,000 in PBX) for 30 min as per the manufacturer's instructions.

Subsequent immunostaining with antibodies and image acquisition were

performed as described above.

Quantification of HPG signal intensity for translation activity

Fluorescence intensity of HPG signals in nurse cells of egg chambers (between

stages 3 to 8), was quantified to assess translation activity. Identically sized

small squares were selected within the cytosolic areas, avoiding the nucleus.

The fluorescence intensity for each square was measured after background

subtraction, with the background defined as a blank region lacking any cells or

signals. For each egg chamber, 2 to 5 of these squares were analyzed. The

average fluorescence intensity across all squares within an image was

calculated to represent the translation activity. This process was repeated for a

total of 5 images per genotype. Image processing and analysis were conducted

using Fiji software.

Immunoprecipitation and Western blotting

For immunoprecipitation, 100 ovaries were dissected in cold PBS and

homogenized using a pestle in PBS with 0.1% (v/v) Tween-20 (PBST),

supplemented with a protease inhibitor cocktail (PIC, 11873580001, Roche,

Switzerland). After centrifugation at 15,000 xg for 10 min at 4°C, the

supernatant was collected. Protein G magnetic beads (TAMAGAWA SEIKI,

TAS8848N1173) were pre-incubated with anti-FLAG antibody (SIGMA [M2],

F1804) for more than 1 h at 4°C with gentle rotation before adding lysate. The

antibody-conjugated beads were washed twice with cold PBST and then

incubated with the lysate for 3-4 hours at 4°C. The proteins were washed three

times with cold PBST and eluted from the beads in 50 µl of sample buffer at

95°C for 5 min.

For Western blotting, ovary lysates or immunoprecipitates were

separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred onto a 0.45 µm Clear Trans® PVDF

membrane (Wako, Japan). The membrane was blocked in PBST with 3% (w/v)

skim milk (Nacalai Tesque, Japan) and incubated with primary antibodies

diluted in HIKARI signal enhancer (Nacalai Tesque). The primary antibodies

used included rabbit anti-eRF1 (SIGMA, E8156, 1:1,000), rabbit anti-methyl-Q

(Millipore, ABS2185, 1:1,000), mouse anti-FLAG (SIGMA [M2], F1804, 1:1,000),

mouse anti-c-Myc (Wako [9E10], 017-21871, 1:1,000), mouse anti-histone H4

(MAB Institute, 388-09171, 1:2,000), rabbit anti-H4K12met (PTM BIO, PTM-

685RM, 1:2,000), mouse anti-Tubulin (Santa Cruz [DM1A], sc-32293, 1:3,000),

rabbit anti-HA (Cell Signaling Technology [C29F4], 3724, 1:1,000). Horseradish

peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated secondary antibodies used were goat anti-rabbit

IgG or anti-mouse IgG (Bio-Rad, 170-6515 or 170-6516, 1:3,000). To prevent

signal overlap from IgG heavy chain with eRF1, VeriBlot-HRP (Abcam,

ab131366, 1:1,000) was used in Western blot analysis for immunoprecipitation

624 of endogenous eRF1 or FLAG-eRF1. Chemiluminescent signals were detected

625 using Chemi-Lumi One (Nacalai Tesque, 07880-70) and imaged by the

626 ChemiDoc™ Touch MP system (Bio-Rad). Band intensities were quantified

627 using Image Lab software (Bio-Rad) from independent experiments.

Quantitative RT-PCR

630 Total RNA was extracted from ovaries using TRIzol LS Reagent (Invitrogen)

631 strictly according to the manufacturer's instructions. The purified RNA (1 μg)

632 was then treated with DNase I (Invitrogen) to remove any genomic DNA

633 contamination. This was followed by inactivation of the DNase I with EDTA.

634 Reverse transcription to synthesize cDNA was conducted using the Superscript

635 III First-Strand Synthesis System (Invitrogen), as per the manufacturer's

636 protocol. Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed using the KAPA SYBR Fast

637 qPCR Master Mix (KAPA Biosystems) on the StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR

638 System (Applied Biosystems). Relative expression levels were normalized to

639 those of the reference gene *rp49* across three biological replicates. The primer

640 sequences used to determine gene expression levels are listed in

641 Supplementary Table S2.

S2 cell experiments

644 *Drosophila* S2 cells were maintained at 28°C in Schneider's medium,

645 supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (FBS) and antibiotics (penicillin

646 and streptomycin). Knockdown of endogenous *hemK2* was achieved using

647 double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) targeting a 186 bp region from the ATG start

codon of the *snapin* gene (refer to Fig. S1). The dsRNA was synthesized using the AmpliScribe T7 High Yield Transcription Kit (Lucigen, USA). Primer sequences for the PCR amplification are provided in Supplementary Table S3.

For transfection, plasmids employed were Myc-HemK2 wildtype, Myc-HemK2 N116A, Myc-HemK2 Y119A, FLAG-eRF1 wildtype, FLAG-eRF1 Q185A, and Myc-HemK1. These constructs were prepared using the Gateway Cloning System (Life Technologies) and transfected into S2 cells using HilyMax (Dojindo Molecular Technologies, Inc., Japan) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Fertility test

To assess female fertility, *y w* males were paired with three eclosed females of each genotype. Mating was allowed to proceed for several days in vials containing standard food. Subsequently, the flies were transferred to apple juice plates supplemented with a small quantity of moist yeast paste. The total count of eggs laid by the mated females was recorded. After a 24-hour period, the number of unhatched eggs was tallied to calculate the hatching rates. For the evaluation of male fertility in the *hemK2*-GLKD line, three *y w* virgin females were mated with *hemK2*-GLKD males over an extended duration. The fertility metrics for the males were documented in a manner analogous to that described above. Each fertility assessment was replicated across three independent biological samples.

mRNA-seq analyses

Total RNA for each genotype was extracted in duplicate from dissected ovaries

using TRIzol LS (Invitrogen) following the manufacturer's instructions. Because

hemK2 knockdown ovaries did not contain later stages, regions post-mid

oogenesis were excised from *hemK2* knockdown ovaries prior to RNA

extraction. Poly(A)-tailed RNAs were enriched and purified using oligo-dT

beads from the NEBNext Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic Isolation Module (New

England Biolabs, USA). These samples then underwent fragmentation, reverse

transcription, adapter ligation, and PCR amplification to prepare cDNA libraries

using the NEBNext Ultra II Directional RNA Library Prep Kit (New England

Biolabs, USA). Library preparation and next-generation sequencing were

outsourced to Rhelixa Inc. (Japan), yielding approximately 13 million paired-

end sequences per sample. The fastp program (Chen et al., 2018) was utilized

to remove the sequences of low quality and adapter. Alignment to the

Drosophila melanogaster reference genome (dm6) was conducted using the

STAR program (Dobin et al., 2013). Read quantification at the gene level was

performed with featureCounts (Liao et al., 2014). Differential expression

analysis was executed via DESeq2 (Love et al., 2014), selecting upregulated

(log_2FoldChange > 1, p-adj < 0.01) and downregulated (log_2FoldChange < -1,

p-adj < 0.01) genes for further GO term enrichment analysis using PANTHER

(Thomas et al., 2022).

Monosome/Disome profiling

Ovaries were dissected in polysome lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-Cl, pH 7.5, 5 mM

$MgCl_2$, 100 mM NaCl) with the addition of 0.1% NP-40, 200 µg/ml emetine

(Sigma, E2375), and PIC. Dissected ovaries were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen

and stored at -80ºC. Homogenization was performed with a plastic pestle in 500

μl of polysome lysis buffer supplemented with 0.1% CHAPS (Nacalai Tesque,

Japan), emetine, and PIC. The homogenate was subjected to sequential

centrifugations at 15,000 xg for 5 min, then for 15 min, both at 4ºC. A small

aliquot of the clear supernatant was taken for RNA quantification using the

Qubit RNA HS Assay Kit (Invitrogen, Q32852). The RNA concentration was

adjusted to 0.05 μg/μl with additional lysis buffer containing CHAPS, emetine,

and PIC. The supernatant was treated with RNase A (1 μg/ml) at 25ºC for 10

min to cleave unprotected RNA regions. After RNase treatment, 200 μl of

sample was applied to a 10-50% sucrose gradient prepared in polysome lysis

buffer and ultracentrifuged in a SW41Ti rotor at 30,000 xg for 3 h at 4ºC. After

centrifugation, gradients were fractionated from the top using a piston gradient

fractionator (BioComp, Canada).

Competing Interest Statement

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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Author Contributions

All authors contributed to the experiment design. XF, SR, KS, and KT performed all experiments. XF, SR and KS performed the computational analyses. XF, SR, KS, and KT wrote the paper. KS, IT, and KT supervised the project.

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Legends

Figure 1: HemK2 is essential for *Drosophila* germline development

(A) Diagrammatic illustration of *Drosophila* oogenesis. Each ovariole is composed of a germarium at the anterior end, followed by progressively developing egg chambers. A 16-cell germline cyst enclosed with somatic follicle cells buds out of germarium, forming an egg chamber. Of those 16 germline cells, one differentiates into the oocyte, while others become nurse cells.

(B) Representative images of ovarian morphology from control and *hemK2* germline knockdown (GLKD) samples. *hemK2*-GLKD leads to female sterility, characterized by arrested development of egg chambers at stages 7-8 and impaired vitellogenesis. Scale bar, 250 μm.

(C) Quantitative RT-PCR confirmation of knockdown efficacy in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries. Expression levels are normalized to *rp49* with *tubulin* serving as an internal control. Standard deviation is denoted by error bars (n=3).

(D) Analysis of egg laying and hatching rate. Infertility observed in *hemK2*-GLKD is rescued by expression of the wild-type FLAG-tagged HemK2 transgene using the germline-specific driver *NGT40*; *nosGal4-VP16*. Daily egg production by 3 females was recorded (n=3). Error bars represent standard deviation.

(E) Immunofluorescence of FLAG-tagged HemK2 (green) and DNA (DAPI, blue) in ovaries of the indicated genotypes corresponding to (D). Arrows highlight degenerated egg chambers in *hemK2*-GLKD and later-stage egg chambers following FLAG-HemK2

expression. Scale bars, 50 µm.

(F) Western blot analysis detecting FLAG epitope to demonstrate germline expression

of FLAG-HemK2 wildtype in ovarian extracts. Tubulin is utilized as a loading control.

Figure 2: Knockdown of hemK2 leads pleiotropic defects in germline

development

(A) Ovaries displaying mitotic marker phospho-histone H3 (pH3) (red) and DAPI (blue)

(left panel). Dotted rectangles highlight hyperplastic posterior follicle cells in *hemK2-*

GLKD (upper right panel). Scale bars, 20 µm. Quantification of ovarioles with single

versus multi-layered follicle cells is provided (right panel, n=100).

(B) Immunostaining for nucleolar marker Fibrillarin and DNA (DAPI) in stage 7/8 egg

chambers. Insets show enlarged views of nurse cell nuclei with either dispersed or

undispersed chromosomes. Scale bars, 10 µm.

(C) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of gene expression involved in chromosomal

dispersion, with standard deviation indicated by error bars (n=3).

(D) Immunostaining for apoptosis marker p53 and DNA (DAPI) in ovaries (left panel).

Arrows indicate p53 signal accumulation in nurse cell nuclei. Scale bars, 20 µm.

Percentage of ovarioles displaying p53 signals is quantified (right panel, n=100).

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Figure 3: HemK2 functions for eRF1 methylation in *Drosophila*

(A) Immunoprecipitation of endogenous eRF1 and subsequent Western blot analysis

for N5-methyl-glutamine (Methyl-Q) from ovarian lysates, indicating a significant

reduction in eRF1 methylation in *hemK2*-GLKD compared to control ovaries (bottom

panel). Quantification of methyl-Q band intensity normalized to eRF1 signal is shown

(right panel), with error bars representing standard deviation (n=3) and *p*-value

indicated (unpaired *t*-test).

(B) Immunostaining of methylated eRF1 (green) and total eRF1 (red) in control and

hemK2-GLKD ovaries. Arrows indicate the cytoplasm of germline cells. Scale bars, 20

µm.

(C) Immunoprecipitation of germline-expressed FLAG-tagged eRF1 from ovaries.

Western blot for methyl-Q illustrates a notable decrease in methylation of FLAG-eRF1

in *hemK2*-GLKD. Nonspecific bands are marked with asterisks. Right panel shows

quantification of methyl-Q band intensity normalized to FLAG-eRF1, as in (A), with

error bars denoting standard deviation (n=3) and *p*-value provided (unpaired *t*-test).

(D) Immunoprecipitation of Myc-tagged eRF1 (WT or Q185A mutant) in S2 cells, with

Western blot detection for methyl-Q. Quantifications of methyl-Q band intensities

normalized to Myc-eRF1 are shown with error bars representing standard deviation

(n=3).

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1032 **Figure 4: The conserved NPPY motif of HemK2 is critical for eRF1 methylation**

1033 (A) Illustration of the methyltransferase (MTase) domain within *Drosophila* HemK2,

highlighting the highly conserved NPPY motif across various species. Asn116 and Tyr119 of *Drosophila* HemK2 are mutated to Ala, generating N116A and Y119A, respectively.

(B) Crystal structure depiction of human HemK2-TRMT112 complexed with methyl-glutamine (Methyl-Q) and S-adenosylhomocysteine (SAH) (Gao et al., 2020), focusing on the active site proximal to methyl-Q. HemK2 is depicted in gray, methyl-Q in green with hydrogen bonds around the methyl-Q. N122 and Y125 of human HemK2 correspond to N116 and Y119 in *Drosophila* HemK2, respectively.

(C) Immunostaining for FLAG-tagged HemK2 variants against a DNA counterstain (DAPI) in ovaries of the respective genotypes. Perturbation of proper oogenesis in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries is restored by the expression of the N116A HemK2 variant but not the Y119A. Scale bars, 50 µm.

(D) Analysis of egg laying and hatching rate for each genotype as described in (C). The number of eggs were counted daily for groups of three females (n=3), with standard deviation shown as error bars.

(E) Immunoprecipitation followed by Western blot analysis for methyl-Q in S2 cells. Co-transfection of FLAG-tagged HemK2 and Myc-tagged eRF1, with or without *hemK2* knockdown (KD), demonstrates that eRF1 methylation loss in *hemK2*-KD is restored by wildtype HemK2 and the N116A mutant but not by the Y119A mutant. The lower panel provides quantification of methyl-Q intensity relative to Myc-eRF1 with standard deviation (n=3).

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Figure 5: eRF1 methylation ensures proper progression of oogenesis and

efficient translation

(A) Comparative morphological images of control and *eRF1* germline knockdown

(*eRF1*-GLKD) ovaries. Scale bar, 250 μm.

(B) Analysis of egg production and hatching rate across different genotypes. The

numbers of the eggs were counted daily for groups of three females (n=3), with error

bars representing standard deviation.

(C) Immunostaining of wild-type and Q185A mutant FLAG-tagged eRF1 (green), with

Vas (red) marking germline cells, and DAPI (blue) for DNA, in ovaries corresponding

to each genotype listed in (B). Loss of germline cells by *eRF1*-GLKD is restored with

wild-type eRF1 but not with the Q185A mutant. Scale bars, 20 μm.

(D) Immunostaining for FLAG-tagged eRF1 Q185A (red) and DNA (DAPI, blue) in

ovaries. Overexpression of FLAG-eRF1 Q185A in wild-type background recapitulates

the phenotypic consequences of *hemK2*-GLKD. Arrows point to degenerating egg

chambers. Insets show enlarged views of nurse cell nuclei. Scale bars, 50 μm.

(E) Protein synthesis assay using L-homopropargylglycine (HPG) in ovaries for each

genotype indicated (green in left panels), with concurrent immunostaining for FLAG-

HemK2 (red). Scale bars, 20 μm. The right panel shows quantification of HPG signal

intensity, with measurements from representative images (n=5) and standard deviation

as error bars.

Figure 6: Knockdown of *hemK2* leads mRNA reduction and ribosome stalling

(A) Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of genes downregulated in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries.

Enrichment of GO biological process terms is analyzed by PANTHER (version 18.0).

The fold enrichments are plotted and colored by their False Discovery Rate (FDR)

values.

(B) GO analysis for genes upregulated in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries, conducted similarly

to panel (A).

(C) Volcano plot representing the differential expression of germline-enriched genes

in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries, with significance threshold set at *p*-value < 0.05 and $\log_2$FC

< -1 or >1 (orange). Gene classification is based on single-cell mRNA-seq analysis of

Drosophila ovaries (Jevitt et al., 2020).

(D) $\log_2$-fold changes of cell-type enriched genes in *hemK2*-GLKD ovaries relative to

control, with mean values and standard deviation depicted.

(E) Ribosome profiling in ovarian lysates from control (blue), *hemK2*-GLKD (red), and

double-germline knockdown of *hemK2* and *ski8* (green). Monosome and disome were

separated using sucrose gradient sedimentation. Absorbance at 254 nm was recorded

to generate elution profiles, normalized to the monosome peak for each sample. Insets

highlight the disome peaks.

(F) Disome to monosome peak ratios were calculated across three experimental

1096 replicates. Bar graphs represent average ratios with standard deviation (n=3) and *p*-

1097 value (unpaired *t*-test).

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Figure 7: Blockage of No-Go-decay pathway restores oogenesis defects in

hemK2-**GLKD ovaries.**

(A) Fluorescent staining with DAPI for DNA in ovaries from various genotypes. Rescue

of the oogenesis defects observed in *hemK2*-GLKD is achieved through combined

knockdown of *ski8* or *pelo*, but not with *CG7139* or *upf3*. Scale bars, 50 µm.

(B) Analysis of egg production and hatching rate for the indicated genotypes. The

numbers of egg counted for groups of three females each day (n=3), with error bars

representing standard deviation.

(C) Assay of protein synthesis in ovaries using L-homopropargylglycine (HPG), across

the specified genotypes. Scale bars, 20 µm.

(D) Quantitative analysis of HPG fluorescence intensity for each genotype, with

measurements taken from representative images (n=5). Error bars denote standard

deviation.

(E) Box plot depicting the $\log_2$-fold changes of genes enriched in germline 2 cell type

in ovaries from *hemK2*-GLKD, *ski8*-*hemK2* DGKD, and *pelo*-*hemK2* DGKD compared

to control. Paired *t*-test *p*-values are presented, comparing *hemK2* single knockdown

with each respective double knockdown.

Figure 1

A *Drosophila* oogenesis

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

Control   *hemK2* GLKD

input: eRF1

eRF1 IP
eRF1

Methyl-Q

P=0.0007

Normalized Methyl-Q / eRF1

Control   *hemK2* GLKD

B

Control   *hemK2*-GLKD

methyl-eRF1

DAPI methyl-eRF1

Control   *hemK2*-GLKD

eRF1

DAPI eRF1

C

hemK2-GLKD: −   +
FLAG-eRF1:   WT   WT

input: FLAG

FLAG IP
FLAG

Methyl-Q

P=0.0001

Normalized Methyl-Q / FLAG-eRF1 WT

Control   *hemK2* GLKD

D

    1   2   3
hemK2-KD: −   +   −
Myc-eRF1:   WT   WT   Q185A

Myc IP
Myc

Methyl-Q

Normalized Methyl-Q / Myc-eRF1

1   2   3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7