A Constitutive Heterochromatic Region Shapes Genome Organization and Impacts Gene Expression in *Neurospora crassa*

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Abstract

Background: Organization of the eukaryotic genome is essential for proper function, including gene expression. In metazoans, chromatin loops and Topologically Associated Domains (TADs) organize genes into transcription factories, while chromosomes occupy nuclear territories in which silent heterochromatin is compartmentalized at the nuclear periphery and active euchromatin localizes to the nucleus center. A similar hierarchical organization occurs in the fungus *Neurospora crassa* where its seven chromosomes form a Rabl conformation typified by heterochromatic centromeres and telomeres independently clustering at the nuclear membrane, while interspersed heterochromatic loci aggregate across Megabases of linear genomic distance to loop chromatin in TAD-like structures. However, the role of individual heterochromatic loci in normal genome organization and function is unknown.

Results: We examined the genome organization of a Neurospora strain harboring a ~47.4 kilobase deletion within a temporarily silent, facultative heterochromatic region, as well as the genome organization of a strain deleted of a 110.6 kilobase permanently silent constitutive heterochromatic region. While the facultative heterochromatin deletion minimally effects local chromatin structure or telomere clustering, the constitutive heterochromatin deletion alters local chromatin structure, the predicted three-dimensional chromosome conformation, and the expression of some genes, which are qualitatively repositioned into the nucleus center, while increasing Hi-C variability.

Conclusions: Our work elucidates how an individual constitutive heterochromatic region impacts genome organization and function. Specifically, one silent region indirectly assists in the hierarchical folding of the entire Neurospora genome by aggregating into the "typical" heterochromatin bundle normally observed in wild type nuclei, which may promote normal gene expression by positioning euchromatin in the nucleus center.

43   **Keywords:** genome organization, chromosome conformation, heterochromatin, *Neurospora crassa*,

44   gene expression

Introduction

Correct genome organization, including proper chromosome folding, is necessary for DNA-templated processes to function normally, including for wild type (WT) control of gene expression [1–5]. Indeed, improper DNA folding altering transcriptional patterns occurs in human cancer cells [6–8]. Eukaryotic genomes hierarchically fold, as DNA molecules wrap around histone octamers to form chromatin fibers, which are extruded into globules ("loops") by cohesin, and multiple loops compact into Topologically Associated Domains (TADs) [9–17]. TADs of similar transcriptional activity compartmentalize in the nucleus [10, 11, 17]. Specifically, the more open, gene-rich, and actively transcribed euchromatin primarily localizes to the nucleus center, while the silent, gene-poor, and compact heterochromatin is confined to the nuclear periphery [18–20]. Heterochromatin segregation may drive chromatin compartmentalization, although transcriptional activity might force silent genomic loci to the nuclear periphery [19, 21]. In metazoans, the formation of individual chromosome territories – typified by extensive intra-chromosomal contacts – leads to the clustering of heterochromatic regions within chromosomes [22, 23]. In contrast, the independent aggregation of the heterochromatic centromeres and telomeres of fungal chromosomes into a Rabl conformation promotes widespread intra- and inter-chromosomal heterochromatic contacts [9, 24–26]. All told, heterochromatin bundling is a conserved feature of eukaryote genome organization.

Fungi are excellent genome organization models. Fungal genomes are partitioned into euchromatin and heterochromatin, resembling the genomes of metazoans, and the heterochromatin of many filamentous fungi, including *Neurospora crassa*, is subdivided into permanently silent constitutive heterochromatin and temporarily silent facultative heterochromatin [27–29]. The adenine and thymine (AT)-rich, gene-poor, and repetitive constitutive heterochromatic regions, comprising ~16% of the Neurospora genome, are marked by the tri-methylation of lysine 9 on histone H3 (H3K9me3); this mark is catalyzed by the histone methyltransferase DIM-5 (KMT1) [28,

30–32]. Specific H3K9me3-marked regions found within the seven Neurospora chromosomes

("Linkage Groups" [LGs]) include the regional centromeres, the 14 telomeres, and ~200

interspersed heterochromatic regions [28, 32]. In contrast, Neurospora facultative heterochromatin

is delineated by the subtelomeric di- or tri-methylation of lysine 27 on histone H3 (H3K27me2/3)

catalyzed by the SET-7 (KMT6) histone methyltransferase subunit of the Polycomb Repressive

Complex 2 (PRC2) [33–35]. In the Neurospora three-dimensional (3D) genome organization, as

assessed by in-nucleus chromosome conformation capture with high-throughput sequencing (*in*

situ Hi-C), robust intra- and inter-chromosomal heterochromatic contacts occur across Megabases

of linear genomic distance, yet heterochromatin minimally interacts with euchromatin, highlighting

the compartmentalization of fungal chromatin [9, 24, 25]. Several Ascomycete fungi cluster

heterochromatic regions at the base of TAD-like structures, suggesting heterochromatin aggregation

may be a conserved mechanism organizing fungal genomes [9, 24–26, 36]. Further, subtelomeric

facultative heterochromatin helps chromosome ends associate with the Neurospora nuclear

periphery [37]. Together, both heterochromatin types organize the Neurospora genome in a Rabl

chromosome conformation.

To understand the importance of individual facultative and constitutive heterochromatic regions

in Neurospora 3D genome organization, we performed chromatin-specific *in situ* Hi-C on a strain

deleted of ~47.4 kilobases (kb) within a H3K27me2/3 domain on the LG VI left arm [34], as well as

a strain deleted of an ~110 kb H3K9me3 domain on the LG II right arm ("ΔLGIIK9het25"). While the

H3K27me2/3 deletion minimally impacts genome organization, the ΔLGIIK9het25 allele alters the

inter-heterochromatic region aggregation, which may increase 3D genome organization variability,

and changes the chromatin structure at the deletion site, while nearby AT-rich loci still retain

substantial H3K9me3 enrichment. Individual chromosomes in a ΔLGIIK9het25 strain are predicted

to have qualitatively different 3D structures than those in a WT strain, and numerous genes are

upregulated with the LGIIK9het25 deletion, possibly due to altered gene positioning within the 3D

genome. We conclude that a single constitutive heterochromatic region helps form the "typical"

genome organization and promotes normal genome function in WT Neurospora.

Materials and Methods

Strains and growth conditions

Neurospora crassa strains WT N150 (derived from the strain 74-OR23-IVA [Fungal Genetics

Stock Center #2489]), N2930 (*mat A his-3; Δmus52::bar⁺*), N3944 (mat x; *Δdim-5::bar⁺*), and N4933

(*mat a*; Δ47.4 kb::*hph⁺*) were gifts from Eric U. Selker (University of Oregon). All strains were grown

with 1x Vogels minimal medium + 1.5% sucrose and supplements at 32°C [38].

The ΔLGIIK9het25 (NKL2) strain, which replaces 110,609 basepairs (bp) of AT-rich DNA in

H3K9me3-enriched region number 25 on LG II (between bp 3,602,033 and 3,712,857 of Neurospora

reference genome version 14 [nc14]) [24] with 1,401 bp of the *P$_{trpC}$::hph* hygromycin resistance

cassette (a net genome deletion of 109,208 bp), was created by split marker gene replacement.

Briefly, the ~1,000 bp upstream of LGIIK9het25 was PCR amplified with oligonucleotides ("oligos")

oKL14 and oKL15, while the ~1,000 bp downstream of LGIIK9het25 was amplified with oligos

oKL18 and oKL19, by Phusion DNA polymerase (cat# F530-L; ThermoFisher Scientific) using the

manufacturer's conditions; oligos oKL15 and oKL18 had ten 5' complementary nucleotides specific

to the *P$_{trpC}$* promoter and *hph* gene 3' end, respectively. Oligo sequences are provided in Table S1.

DNA fragments were gel purified using the GenCatch Gel Extraction Kit (cat# 2260250; Epoch Life

Sciences), and split marker fragments fusing the LGIIK9het25 upstream to the *P$_{trpC}$* promoter ("UP";

oKL14 and 2955) or fusing the *hph* gene to the LGIIK9het25 downstream ("DOWN"; oligos 2954 and

oKL19) were PCR amplified with the upstream and downstream fragments and a plasmid encoding

the *hph* gene (p3xFLAG::hph::LoxP) [39] using LA Taq (cat# RR002M; Takara), and gel purified. The

UP and DOWN split marker fragments were transformed into N2930 by electroporation (BioRad

MicroPulser Electroporator, cat# 1652100EDU). Hygromycin resistant colonies were selected on 1x

Vogels+FGS media with 100 µg/mL hygromycin (cat# ant-hg-5; Invivogen). Genomic DNA was

isolated from resultant colonies using standard protocols [40], and tests of proper hygromycin

cassette integration at the LGIIK9het25 locus was performed by PCR using oKL49 and 2955 for the

left border, 2954 and oKL50 for the right border, and oKL49 and oKL50 for the entire integrated

$P_{trpC}::hph$ gene. Positive integrant strain tKL1A-2 was crossed to N150 (xKL9AR) and genomic DNA

was isolated from hygromycin resistant progeny; similar PCR reactions were performed to confirm

the presence of the ΔLGIIK9het25 allele in individual cross progeny. PCR with oligos oKL55 and

oKL56 determined Δ*mus-52::bar* allele absence, and the strain mating type was established by

crosses with known mating type strains. The final homokaryotic strain, NKL2, from cross progeny

xKL9AR-17 contains only the ΔLGIIK9het25 deletion (NKL2 genotype: *mat A; ΔLGIIK9het25::hph*).

Hi-C library construction and bioinformatic analyses

In situ Hi-C was performed as described [24, 25]. Hi-C libraries were Illumina sequenced at the

Genomics and Cell Characterization Core Facility (GC3F; University of Oregon), either on a Hi-Seq

2500 as PE100 reads or a NovaSeq 6000 as PE59 reads. For comparison to mutant Hi-C datasets,

WT *Dpn*II and *Mse*I *in situ* Hi-C datasets (NCBI Gene Expresssion Omnibus (GEO) accession number

GSE173593) [24] were generated by extracting the number of total reads from WT datasets using

the sed command for similar numbers of valid reads as mutant datasets. Merged fastq file reads, or

individual replicate reads, were mapped with bowtie2 [41] to nc14 [24], or the nc14-derived

reference "NKL2 genome" where the LGIIK9het25 sequence is replaced with the $P_{trpC}::hph$ sequence.

Output sam files were used to build the initial contact probability matrix at a high [1 kb] resolution

with hicExplorer software package [42]. Merged contact probability matrices were used to generate

lower resolution contact matrices (hicMergeMatrixBins), compare WT and mutant datasets

(hicCompareMatrices), KR correct matrices (hicCorrectMatrix), assess TADs (hicFindTADs [using --

correctForMultipleTesting fdr [false discovery rate], --thresholdComparisons 0.3, and --delta 0.15

values for TAD bed files] and hicPlotTADs), and generate images (hicPlotMatrix); replicate similarity

was analyzed with (hicCorrelate); additional TAD prediction was performed with Topdom [43].

Chromosome 3D structure prediction was performed with 3DMax (https://github.com/BDM-

Lab/3DMax) [44] while Neurospora 3D genome structure prediction was performed by LorDG [45],

using custom scripts tailored to fungal chromosome biology; scripts are available on the Oluwadare

lab GitHub (https://github.com/OluwadareLab/Fungi_3DGenome). Structure prediction contact

matrices were made by merging *Dpn*II and *Mse*I matrices (hicSumMatrices) and converting the .h5

output to NxN text files with a custom script [24] (https://github.com/Klocko-Lab). Output PDB

files were displayed on ChimeraX [46] with bins containing differentially expressed genes or

chromosomal features manually colored, and high-resolution images were used to create figures.

PDB files for all 3D structures are available on Zenodo (10.5281/zenodo.11245552).

ChIP-seq library construction and bioinformatic analyses

Chromatin Immunoprecipitation-sequencing (ChIP-seq) was performed as described [47], using

anti-H3K9me3 (Active Motif; cat# 39161, lot# 30220003) and anti-H3K27me2/3 (Active Motif; cat#

39535, lot# 23120014) antibodies. All ChIP-seq libraries were Illumina sequenced at the GC3F on a

NovaSeq 6000 as SR118 reads. Fastq dataset files were mapped to nc14 or the NKL2 genome with

bowtie2 [41], converted to bam files, sorted, and indexed with samtools [48], made into bigwig files

with Deeptools [49], and displayed on Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV) [50], with saved png

images used for figure creation. Previously published NCBI GEO or the NCBI Sequence Read Archive

(SRA) datasets for WT H3K9me3 (GEO accession numbers GSE68897 and GSE98911), WT

H3K27me2/3 (GEO accession numbers GSE68897 and GSE100770), Δ*dim-5* H3K27me2/3 (GEO

accession number GSE68897 and SRA accession number SRP058573), and input Neurospora DNA

(GEO accession number GSE150758) [32, 51–54], were mapped to the nc14 genome [24] and used

to create bigwig files, as above, for image generation.

Total RNA isolation, polyadenylated RNA-seq library construction, and bioinformatic analyses

Total RNA was isolated from overnight liquid cultures of Neurospora strains grown in 1x Vogels,

1.5% sucrose plus supplements [33, 37]. Cultures were harvested by vacuum filtration, placed in

2.0mL screw-top tubes, and 300μL of acid washed glass beads suspended in dH_2O (150-212μm,

Sigma Aldrich cat# G1145-10G), 350μL Acid Phenol:chloroform (5:1; ThermoFisher cat# AM9720),

and 350μL NETS (300mM NaCl, 1mM EDTA, 10mM Tris pH 7.5, 0.2% SDS) were added. Samples

were vortexed for 10 minutes at maximum speed and centrifuged at 4°C for 5 minutes at 13k rpm.

The aqueous layer was transferred to two tubes (~250μL each), 650μL of cold 100% EtOH was

added, and RNA was precipitated on ice for 10 minutes and pelleted by microcentrifugation at 4°C

for 10 minutes at 13k rpm. The pellet was washed with cold 70% EtOH (made with DECP-treated

dH_2O), the supernatant was removed, and pellets were allowed to air dry for 15 minutes and

resuspended in 50μL DEPC-treated dH_2O. Insoluble material was removed by centrifugation, and

the initial RNA concentration was measured by Nanodrop. Total RNA (10μg) was resuspended in

50μL of DEPC-treated dH_2O, and the Zymo RNA Clean and Concentrator kit (Zymo Research cat#

R1013) was used for RNA cleanup per the manufacturer's protocol; the 15μL elution was divided

into 4μL for Qubit concentration (RNA HS assay kit; ThermoFisher Scientific, cat# Q32852) and

TapeStation (Agilent) quality control analysis, while the remaining 11μL was stored at -80oC. Only

total RNA samples with high ribosomal RNA to messenger RNA (mRNA) ratios were used for library

construction. Polyadenylated mRNA (polyA mRNA) was selected with the NEBNext Poly(A) mRNA

Magnetic Isolation Module (New England Biolabs [NEB], cat# E7490L) and polyA mRNA sequencing

libraries were generated with the NEBNext Ultra II Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina

(NEB, cat# E7760L and E7765L) per the manufacturer's protocols; quadruplicate polyA mRNA-seq

replicate libraries were constructed for each strain. All polyA mRNA-seq libraries were Illumina

sequenced at the GC3F on a NovaSeq 6000 as SR118 reads. Raw fastq files were mapped to the nc14

genome using HiSat2 [55], and htseq-count [56] generated gene count files. Differential Expression

analysis between strains was performed with DESeq2 [57] in R/Rstudio [58, 59], selecting

significantly changed genes as those with expression $\log_2 > 3.0$ or $\log_2 < -3.0$ and an adjusted p-value

< 0.001; bed files for display on IGV were generated from the DESeq2 output gene lists in Microsoft

Excel, and volcano plots of $\log_2$ fold change vs. adjusted p-value were generated in R/R studio.

Results

Loss of a H3K27me2/3-enriched region minimally affects the local chromatin landscape.

Since interactions between regions of similar heterochromatin type comprise many of the

strongest intra-chromosomal contacts in the Neurospora genome [24, 25], we examined how

deletions of either type, facultative or constitutive heterochromatin, could impact fungal

heterochromatin clustering. Starting with facultative heterochromatin, we examined a previously

constructed strain, N4933, originally used to assess position-dependent signals for H3K27me2/3

deposition in the Neurospora genome [34]. N4933 harbors a 47.4 kb deletion, from basepairs

175,121 to 222,557 on LG VIL, which removes fourteen H3K27me2/3-enriched genes within a

larger facultative heterochromatin domain (this strain is named "ΔK27" for brevity). To assess how

ΔK27 impacts genome organization, we performed two *in situ* Hi-C replicates with *Dpn*II to capture

chromatin interactions within gene-rich DNA of a higher guanine and cytosine percentage, including

in facultative heterochromatic regions. Our replicates show highly similar Hi-C contact matrices

across LG VI and are highly correlated (Figure S1), allowing replicate merging into a single Hi-C

dataset with 9.2 million (M) valid reads. For comparison, we processed an identical number of valid

Hi-C reads from our WT *in situ Dpn*II Hi-C dataset [24]. Our initial observation is that, despite having

similar valid read numbers, the ΔK27 dataset is slightly biased in capturing more local contacts and

less heterochromatin interactions, likely due to variability in ΔK27 Hi-C experiments, with reduced

AT-rich heterochromatin ligation since the underlying DNA has less *Dpn*II sites. Indeed, decreased

inter-centromeric contacts in the ΔK27 dataset, relative to the WT dataset, occur in raw contact

matrices (Figures 1, S2-S3). Inter-centromeric interactions are present upon Knight-Ruiz (KR) [60]

correction (Figure S2-S3), indicating capture of biologically relevant structures. However, the

decrease in moderate and long-range contacts in the ΔK27 dataset is evident when this contact

matrix is directly compared to the WT dataset (Figure S3). Therefore, we focused on the local

chromatin changes on LG VI that manifest with the ΔK27 deletion.

On WT LG VI, we observe consistent off-diagonal contacts that decrease with genomic distance,

in addition to strong inter-telomeric contacts and the insulation of centromeric DNA from local

euchromatin, in both raw and KR corrected heatmaps (Figure 1A). A higher resolution (5kb) WT

heatmap of the 500 kb surrounding the region targeted for deletion in N4933 shows a similar

inverse relationship between contact strength and genomic distance (Figure 1A). In contrast, the

ΔK27 deletion Hi-C, mapped to the Neurospora reference genome version 14 (nc14) [24], appears

as a white cross emanating from the deletion locus indicating a gap in mappable Hi-C reads (Figure

1B), since this DNA was not present during Hi-C ligation capture. This gap occurs in both the raw

and KR corrected contact probability heatmaps, although the diagonal base in the KR corrected

heatmap presents with signal (Figures 1B-C), due to miniscule contact probabilities assigned to bins

covering repeated DNA sequences prior to matrix correction (Figure S4); KR correction enhances

this bias. Importantly, stronger off diagonal signal at the boundary intersections of the facultative

heterochromatin deletion appear (Figures 1B-C, black arrowheads), showing how new interactions

occur between the H3K27me2/3-enriched chromatin flanking the ΔK27 deletion. Interestingly, the

sly1-1 transposase gene NCU09969 (Figure 1C, gray arrowhead) is devoid of Hi-C signal in N4933,

suggesting the ΔK27 strain had a transposition event. Regarding telomere clustering, the ΔK27

strain still forms intra- and inter-chromosomal subtelomeric contacts (Figures 1D-E), with strong

interactions between the terminal ~100kb of H3K27me2/3-enriched chromatin at chromosome

ends. We conclude a deletion of a H3K27me2/3-enriched region minimally impacts the organization

of the remaining facultative heterochromatic regions on LGVIL.

Deletion of a ~110 kb constitutive heterochromatic region alters silent region clustering.

In Neurospora nuclei, gene-poor AT-rich constitutive heterochromatin is compartmentalized

from gene-rich euchromatin and most facultative heterochromatin [24, 47]. To ask if an individual

constitutive heterochromatic region impacts Neurospora genome organization and function, we

deleted a 110,609 bp H3K9me3-enriched region on LG IIR, aptly called "LGIIK9het25" as this region

is the 25th constitutive heterochromatic region from the LG II left telomere. We chose to delete this

second largest AT-rich region on LG II, since there would be a high probability of observing genome

organization changes without compromising chromosome function if the centromere was removed.

Using split-marker homologous recombination in a Δ*mus-52* strain [61], we replaced the 110.6 kb

LGIIK9het25 with a hygromycin resistance gene (hygromycin phosphotransferase; *hph*) controlled

by a strong constitutive *trpC* promoter (a $P_{trpC}::hph$ cassette; Figure S5A). We note a similar-sized

DNA replacement could have more accurately represented the LG II chromosome length, but we

wanted to avoid cryptic promoters, repetitive sequences for RIP [28, 62, 63], or AT-rich DNA

sequences forming novel constitutive heterochromatic regions within the inserted DNA; progressive

LGIIK9het25 region deletions might have elucidated additional changes to heterochromatic loci

bundling patterns. We also attempted other heterochromatic region deletions using the

nourseothricin acetyltransferase (*nat1*) resistance gene [64], but did not get primary transformants,

possibly due to immediate silencing of the AT-rich *nat1* gene at the targeted constitutive

heterochromatic loci. We successfully obtained hygromycin-resistant primary transformants

deleted of LGIIK9het25 (ΔLGIIK9het25), in which 109,208 bp are removed from the Neurospora

genome, given that $P_{trpC}::hph$ inserts 1,401 bp. A hygromycin-resistant progeny from a sexual cross,

xKL9AR-17, was characterized by PCR analysis as harboring both the ΔLGIIK9het25 allele (Figure

S5B) and a wild type *mus-52*+ allele. The final strain, NKL2 (genotype: *mat A*; *ΔLGIIK9het25::hph*),

had no noticeable growth defect from a WT strain (Figure S5C-D).

We performed chromatin-specific Hi-C [24], using either *Dpn*II to monitor gene-rich chromatin

contacts or *Mse*I to capture the interactions of AT-rich, gene-poor constitutive heterochromatin. Our

ΔLGIIK9het25 Hi-C replicates (four *Dpn*II and two *Mse*I replicates) show highly reproducible and

correlated interactions (Figure S6), allowing us to merge replicates into enzyme-specific datasets,

with the NKL2 *Dpn*II dataset containing 20.6M valid reads and the NKL2 *Mse*I dataset comprising

12.2M valid reads. All Hi-C datasets display the inter-chromosomal centromeric interactions that

occur independently from telomere clusters, indicating capture of biologically relevant structures

(Figures S7-S8); these chromosomal features were originally detailed in microscopic observations

of fluorescently labeled centromeric and telomeric proteins [25, 37]. As before, we selected similar

valid read numbers from previously published WT *Dpn*II and *Mse*I datasets for comparisons [24].

Compared to a WT *Dpn*II Hi-C dataset (Figure 2A), the deleted LGIIK9het25 region appears as a

large white "cross" devoid of Hi-C interactions on LGII in the NKL2 *Dpn*II contact probability matrix

(Figure 2B). Looking specifically at a 500 kb region surrounding LGIIK9het25, the WT dataset has

extensive intra-heterochromatic interactions within LGIIK9het25, and less prominent, but present,

heterochromatin-euchromatin contacts (Figure 2A). In contrast, the NKL2 has contact probability

loss, as few interactions occur in the raw interaction heatmap and sparse contacts at the diagonal in

the KR corrected dataset (Figure 2B), which, like the ΔK27 datasets (Figure S4), is due to a few reads

in both the ΔLGIIK9het25 *Dpn*II and MseI datasets mapping to repetitive DNA sequences present in

LGIIK9het25, within the nc14 reference genome, increasing contact probability bias (Figure S9). The

Hi-C contacts surrounding ΔLGIIK9het25 in NKL2 appear enhanced, as the flanking euchromatin

moderately gains contacts in the NKL2 *Dpn*II dataset, relative to a WT dataset (Figure 2A-B). Similar

contact probability changes occur in WT and NKL2 *Mse*I datasets, where in the WT dataset the

LGIIK9het25 region extensively contacts internal heterochromatin yet is isolated from surrounding

euchromatin, but the NKL2 dataset loses intra-LGIIK9het25 heterochromatic contacts yet gains

flanking euchromatin interactions (Figure 2C-D). Direct comparison of the WT and NKL2 *Dpn*II and

*Mse*I datasets surrounding LGIIK9het25 shows the contact probability gain between flanking

euchromatic regions when this separating heterochromatic region is deleted (Figure 2E-F,

arrowheads). The surrounding euchromatin may gain local, on-diagonal interactions, as shown in

the *Mse*I comparison (Figure 2F), possibly due to either reduced heterochromatic interactions or a

local contact capture bias in the NKL2 dataset. Between LG I and LG II, the LGIIK9het25 deletion

causes a loss of inter-heterochromatic region contacts, including from the largest non-centromeric

heterochromatic region on LG I (Figure 2G, white arrowhead), while the LG II centromere loses

inter-centromeric contacts but modestly gains interactions with interspersed heterochromatic

regions (Figure 2G, black arrowhead). Similar gains in inter-heterochromatic region interactions are

evident across the genome in the NKL2 *Mse*I Hi-C dataset, when compared to the WT *Mse*I dataset

(Figure S10), implying a dramatic shift in the heterochromatin bundle with LGIIK9het25 deletion.

When comparing the NKL2 *Dpn*II contact matrix to that of a WT strain, the inter-chromosomal

contact strength between centromere-proximal euchromatin and more-distant euchromatin on

chromosome arms is increased, yet chromosome-internal euchromatic contacts are reduced (Figure

S11), consistent with altered bundling between centromeres and interspersed heterochromatic

regions. Similarly, both ΔLGIIK9het25 Hi-C datasets have depleted inter-centromeric contacts; KR

correction reduces *Dpn*II contact biases (Figures S10-S11). While it is possible that the LGIIK9het25

deletion causes significant genome organization changes, these results may also highlight moderate

levels of variability in the Hi-C data derived from the population of nuclei in the NKL2 strain source

tissue. Here, valid genome organization differences would be amplified by subtle disparities in Hi-C

experiments. These biases occurred despite our use of the same *in situ* Hi-C protocol to generate

highly correlated NKL2 replicates (Figure S6), and how we performed the *Dpn*II NKL2 and *Mse*I WT

Hi-C experiments at the same time, which hypothetically would minimize experimental bias.

To assess changes between the WT and NKL2 strains independent of Hi-C restriction enzymes

and to compare datasets generated at the same time, we summed the *Dpn*II and *Mse*I datasets from

each strain and compared the summed contact probability matrices. The WT and NKL2 summed

datasets are similar, with more complete coverage in heterochromatic regions (Figure 12A-B), yet

moderately distant contacts in the NKL2 dataset are reduced. Direct comparison of the summed

matrices showed the NKL2 dataset with more local contacts and reduction of more distant

interactions, with the loss of contacts within the LGIIK9het25 region readily apparent (Figure S12C).

Thus, even when some Hi-C experiments performed at the same time are assessed, variation in

contact probability, hypothetically due to differences in genome organization that are enhanced in

individual Hi-C experiments, is evident. All told, the LGIIK9het25 deletion may affect the

organization of the entire Neurospora genome.

The LGIIK9het25 deletion still allows H3K9me3 deposition at nearby AT-rich loci but alters TAD-

like structures.

Upon deleting LGIIK9het25, the possibility exists that genome function, specifically H3K9me3

deposition on nearby AT-rich loci, is impacted. To assess if LGIIK9het25 loss prevents histone PTM

enrichment on surrounding heterochromatic regions, we performed H3K9me3-specific Chromatin

Immunoprecipitation-sequencing (ChIP-seq) on the NKL2 strain. The two NKL2 H3K9me3 ChIP-seq

replicates are highly reproducible (Figure S13) for merging into a single file that was normalized by

Reads Per Kilobase per Million (RPKM) for direct comparison to previously published WT H3K9me3

ChIP-seq datasets, although using spike-in DNA controls in ChIP-seq experiments performed at the

same time may be the best practice for assessing strain differences or relative enrichment levels [65,

66]. We mapped the ChIP-seq reads to either the nc14 WT genome or a "NKL2 genome", a reference

genome in which the $P_{trpC}::hph$ sequence replaces the AT-rich DNA of LGIIK9het25; enhanced images

show low levels of background signal across the $P_{trpC}::hph$ sequence in an NKL2 H3K9me3 ChIP-seq

dataset that are absent in WT H3K9me3 data (Figure S5E).

LG II exhibits an identical pattern of absolute H3K9me3 ChIP-seq enrichment across the AT-rich

regions surrounding LGIIK9het25, independent of the reference genome used for mapping reads.

For ChIP-seq data mapped to the WT nc14 genome, equal H3K9me3-enriched regions are observed,

except peaks to the right of LGIIK9het25 are shifted by ~110kb from the deletion site (Figure 3A),

given that genomic elements positions within our bigwig enrichment count files are shifted based

on input bam files having altered read mapping positions across this region. Qualitatively, the NKL2

H3K9me3 peaks may be higher (Figure 3A), possibly reflecting increased H3K9me3 purification

from the remaining constitutive heterochromatic regions or enhanced sequencing depth limiting

background signal, although we cannot make strict conclusions about relative H3K9me3

enrichment from experiments not performed at the same time. When H3K9me3 ChIP-seq data from

both strains was mapped to the NKL2 reference genome, the loss of LGIIK9het25 signal from the

WT dataset is apparent, while the remaining constitutive heterochromatic regions have identical LG

II genomic positions and absolute enrichment (Figure 3B).

To further assess local chromatin changes resulting from the LGIIK9het25 deletion, we examined

TAD-like loop structures on LG IIR. We chose parameters in TAD prediction that mostly placed TAD

borders for heterochromatic regions within H3K9me3-enriched domains to increase our chances of

predicting biologically relevant TADs, although TAD structure prediction within the same dataset

can vary [67]. We started by predicting TAD-like structures in WT and NKL2 *Dpn*II and *Mse*I datasets

mapped to the NKL2 reference genome to examine strain-specific changes in chromatin folding

without the LGIIK9het25 deletion signal gap. Clear TAD-like structure changes are observed at the

deletion site, with the euchromatin in the NKL2 ΔLGIIK9het25 *Dpn*II dataset having larger TAD-like

structures, while the NKL2 *Mse*I dataset has smaller on-diagonal TAD-like structures (Figures 4A-B,

black arrowheads); this difference likely stems from the chromatin monitored – and the density of

restriction sites, with AT-rich heterochromatin having more *Mse*I sites – in each Hi-C experiment.

The flanking TAD-like structures are nearly identical in both datasets, except for two larger TADs-

like structures in the NKL2 *Mse*I data (Figure 4A-B, open arrowheads). The use of Topdom [43] as

second TAD prediction program also showed TAD changes in the NKL2 *Dpn*II Hi-C data relative to

WT (Figure S14A), although the TAD changes differ from those predicted by hicExplorer[42]; the

Topdom TADs are highly similar in both WT and NKL2 *Mse*I Hi-C datasets (Figure S14B), highlighting

the challenges of fungal TAD prediction. Similar TAD-like structure changes across euchromatin are

observed in WT and NKL2 *Dpn*II datasets mapped to the nc14 (WT) genome, with larger TAD-like

structures predicted with the ΔLGIIK9het25 allele, as opposed to the smaller TAD-like structures in

WT datasets (Figure S14C). Interestingly, at the $P_{trpC}::hph$ insertion, two novel yet small TAD-like

structures are observed in both NKL2 datasets, combined with additional stronger Hi-C interactions

in *Mse*I data (Figure 4A, purple line), and comparing the NKL2 contact probability and TADs to those

in the WT data highlighted the contact probability increase that alters chromatin folding in NKL2

(Figure 4B). These data suggest the constitutive P_{trpC} promoter could influence the local contacts

and expression of genes in this region. Finally, when TADs are predicted in contact probability

heatmaps independent of restriction enzyme used (e.g., in summed *Dpn*II and *Mse*I contact

probability matrices, mapped to either the nc14 or NKL2 reference genomes), subtle TAD changes

are seen across the ΔLGK9het25 deletion site despite good agreement between heterochromatin-

euchromatin boundaries and TAD borders (Figures 4C and S14D). Overall, it appears the

LGIIK9het25 deletion alters the local chromatin folding surrounding the deletion site.

The LGIIK9het25 deletion alters the three-dimensional folding of Neurospora chromosomes.

It remains possible that this large constitutive heterochromatic region deletion alters

chromosome folding. To assess the 3D folding of LG II, we computationally predicted the LG II 3D

structure using WT and NKL2 ΔLGIIK9het25 Hi-C datasets. We chose to merge all *Dpn*II and *Mse*I

data together from each strain to maximize the possible Hi-C contacts across their genomes; we did

not combine *Dpn*II and *Mse*I data at ratios equivalent to the Neurospora chromatin distribution, as

previously performed [24]. With these summed contact probability matrices, we generated LG II 3D

structures using 3DMax [44] customized for biologically relevant structures in fungal genomes;

multiple structure prediction iterations occur prior to producing the final 3D structure.

In the WT strain, LG II has an elongated structure with condensed chromosome arms, a more

isolated centromere, telomeres localized to a single "side", and extensive intervening chromatin

loops (Figure 5A). Similar 3D structure prediction changes are observed on the other six WT

chromosomes (Figure S14). The LGIIK9het25 region forms a loop and associates with nearby

chromatin loops (Figure 5A), consistent with nine, moderately sized heterochromatic regions

present in the terminal 800 kb of the LG II right arm (Figure 3A). In contrast, the chromosome arms

within the LG II 3D structure of the NKL2 LGIIK9het25 deletion are more compact and wider, despite

similar centromere isolation, telomere locations, and looping of intervening chromatin (Figure 5B).

However, the terminal right arm of the output 3D structure for NKL2 LG II does not form any loops,

which suggests that our requirement for maintaining telomere clusters in fungal 3D structure

prediction influences how this NKL2 chromosome folds (Figure 5B). Similar folding differences

occur on each LG in NKL2, with some chromosomes, particularly LG I and LG IV - having drastically

altered 3D structures relative to WT (Figures S14, S15). Together, the LGIIK9het25 deletion modifies

the predicted 3D structures of Neurospora LGs.

The LGIIK9het25 deletion alters gene expression, which is correlated to differences in 3D

genome folding.

To understand if the removal of LGIIK9het25 could influence genome function by altering gene

expression, we assessed changes in polyadenylation messenger RNA sequencing (polyA mRNA-seq)

in WT and NKL2 strains. As a control for complete loss of constitutive heterochromatin function, we

examined gene expression changes in a Δ*dim-5* strain devoid of H3K9me3 genome-wide [30].

Volcano plots displaying the significant gene expression changes ($\log_2 > 3.0$ or < -3.0; adjusted p-

value < 0.001) in the NKL2 strain relative to the WT strain show 84 genes become significantly

upregulated and no genes significantly downregulated, (Figure 6A, left; Supplementary File S1);

additional differentially expressed genes (DEGs) could be indicated with less stringent cutoff values.

In contrast, the Δ*dim-5* strain has 175 DEGs compared to WT, and many genes have either increased

or decreased transcription (Figure 6A, right; Supplementary File S2), including the strong reduction

of the gene NCU04402 encoding DIM-5 (Figure 6B), confirming the Δ*dim-5* strain genotype. Many

Δ*dim-5* DEGs are found within altered H3K27me2/3 peaks (Figure S16) to possibly explain these

transcriptional changes, as facultative heterochromatin relocates to constitutive heterochromatic

regions in a Δ*dim-5* strain [51, 52]. The ΔLGIIK9het25 and Δ*dim-5* datasets each have unique DEGs,

as only 25 DEGs overlap both datasets. Notably, ΔLGIIK9het25 causes less drastic expression

changes relative to the Δ*dim-5* polyA mRNA-seq (Figure 6A-B). Further, no DEGs in the

ΔLGIIK9het25 dataset regulate chromatin or transcription (Supplementary File S3), although many

DEGs are hypothetical genes without defined functions, preventing a complete tally of the putative

regulatory genes. Interestingly, gene expression changes in the ΔLGIIK9het25 strain occur on each

chromosome (Figures 6B, S17), with many genes near H3K9me3-marked heterochromatic regions.

To assess if linear chromosome distance between DEGs and heterochromatic regions affects gene

expression, we measured the closest distance between each DEG transcription start site (TSS) and

the nearest heterochromatic region border, plotting the distance in groups (from 1-1,000 bp; 1,001-

10,000 bp; 10,001-100,000 bp; and 100,001-1 million [M] bp apart). Most DEGs (n = 51) are 10,001-

100,000 bp distant from the nearest H3K9me3-enriched border, with the second most DEGs (n =

23) found up to 1M bp distant (Figure S18), suggesting linear genomic distance has a minor

regulatory role. The single gene within 1,000 bp of a heterochromatic region, NCU08696, is directly

adjacent to LGIIK9het25 and is downregulated in the Δ*dim-5* strain but upregulated in

ΔLGIIK9het25 (Figure 6B, zoomed region), the latter possibly due to its proximity to the strong P$_{trpC}$

promoter. While longer chromosomes would be expected to have more DEGs, the short ~4.3 Mb LG

VII has more genes with changed expression (n = 24 DEGs) than either the ~10 Mb LG I (n = 20

DEGs) or the 6.0 Mb LG IV (n =11 DEGs) (Figures 6B and S16, Supplementary File S2). We conclude

that a single constitutive heterochromatic region impacts gene expression across the fungal genome.

To assess if altered 3D chromosome folding could explain the transcriptional changes in the

ΔLGIIK9het25 strain, we colored bins harboring DEGs on NKL2 chromosome models. Qualitatively,

the positions of the bins containing DEGs are modified on ΔLGIIK9het25 chromosome structures

relative to the WT chromosomes (Figures 6C-D, S19, S20). Specifically, on LG II, the bins with DEGs

appear more "enclosed" within the WT structure, while these same bins are repositioned to another

"face" of the NKL2 LG II structure (Figure 6C-D). Similar qualitative bin movements altering DEG

positions are observed on other LGs (Figures S19, S20).

Finally, we examined the positions of ΔLGIIK9het25 DEGs relative to the 3D folding predicted for

the entire WT and NKL2 genomes. Our 3D genome models maintain the biologically relevant [25,

37] single centromere cluster which is distinct from telomere bundles (Figure S21). The WT genome

model forms an elongated structure with the LGIIK9het25 region close to the structure top (Figure

7A), consistent with the "stretched" conformation of individual chromosomes (Figures 5, S18-S19)

and a previous report [68], despite different programs predicting each 3D structure. The NKL2

genome deleted of LGIIK9het25 is wider and less elongated (Figure 7B), similar to the individual

NKL2 chromosomes. Intriguingly, the 20 kb bins with ΔLGIIK9het25 DEGs are qualitatively oriented

towards the WT genome periphery, while the same bins are more centrally localized in the NKL2

genome, consistent with a hypothesis where enhanced transcription machinery access increases

gene expression. We conclude that the deletion of a single heterochromatic region alters the 3D

genome conformation and disrupts normal genome function in the Neurospora nucleus.

Discussion

Here, we examined if facultative and constitutive heterochromatic regions organize the fungal

genome by performing Hi-C on strains harboring silent region deletions. Our results suggest that

gene-rich facultative heterochromatic loci are plastic in nature, as a facultative heterochromatin

deletion simply fuses nearby H3K27me2/3-enriched regions within the linear chromosome, which

minimally impacts facultative heterochromatin clusters. Specifically, the subtelomere bundling at

the terminal ~150 kb of each LG is maintained in the ΔK27 strain. Subtelomere clustering may be

compromised by larger deletions or deletions that target the terminal ~150 kb of chromosome ends.

Consistent with these hypotheses, genome-wide loss of H3K27me2/3 in a Neurospora Δ*set-7* (Δ*kmt-*

6) strain can release subtelomere clusters from the nuclear periphery [37], suggesting at least some

subtelomeric H3K27me2/3 is needed for telomeres to associate with the nuclear membrane. It is

possible that larger or more telomere-proximal deletions would disrupt subtelomere clustering, but

further facultative heterochromatin deletions have not been attempted [34]. Still, it is likely that

Neurospora tolerates alterations to gene-rich genomic loci, assuming no essential genes are deleted,

given the absence of wide-ranging topological or physiological consequences. Since most genes

enriched with H3K27me2/3 are novel genes with hypothetical functions [33], perhaps Neurospora

tolerates subtelomeric structural variants if facultative heterochromatin is present. In contrast,

some Fusarium species require H3K27me2/3 for normal growth [69], meaning structural variants

in facultative heterochromatic regions may be lethal in other fungi.

We also assessed the role of a constitutive heterochromatic region for organizing the Neurospora

genome. The most recent Neurospora reference genome (nc14) [24] has ~200 interspersed

H3K9me3-enriched regions distributed over seven chromosomes, and apart from the centromeres

and telomeres on each LG necessary for chromosome function, the remaining interspersed

heterochromatic regions have been dismissed as "junk DNA". However, when we delete the largest,

non-centromeric heterochromatic region on LG II, genome organization and function are impacted

without a severe phenotypic effect. Specifically, the heterochromatic regions still present in NKL2

uniquely cluster when LGIIK9het25 is deleted, as we observe gains in intra- and inter-chromosomal

heterochromatin contacts, including between interspersed heterochromatic regions and

centromeres. Any altered inter-heterochromatic region bundling may reflect valid genome

organization changes in NKL2 nuclei, as hypothetically, the LGIIK9het25 deletion would cause the

remaining interspersed heterochromatic regions to form novel and variable inter-heterochromatin

contacts in each nucleus. These organizational changes may then be amplified by the Hi-C protocol,

resulting in the increased contact probability variation we observe. Therefore, a limitation of this

study is that we cannot differentiate between these two sources of variability. Still, since genome

organization can vary between individual cells across a population [70], it is likely that LGIIK9het25

removal causes contact probability matrix variation from altered heterochromatin bundling. Future

controlled fungal Hi-C experiments coupled with computational modeling are warranted to assess

the day-to-day Hi-C experiment variability to shed light on valid genome organization changes in

WT and ΔLGIIK9het25 strains. Nevertheless, LGIIK9het25 appears to primarily have a structural

role in anchoring silent regions on Neurospora chromosomes, while other heterochromatic regions

may impact genome function to a greater extent. Additional H3K9me3-enriched region deletions, or

progressive truncations of LGIIK9het25, could have elucidated other effects on heterochromatin

bundling or fungal genome function. Further, it is possible that additional WT or NKL2 genome

organization or function effects could have been discovered with different growth conditions, such

as alternative carbon or nitrogen sources, osmolarities, or temperatures, in a manner synonymous

to the jet-like chromatin structures across secondary metabolite clusters observed when *Fusarium*

graminearum is cultured in excess nitrogen [71].

Our ΔLGIIK9het25 data favor a model where the Neurospora heterochromatin bundle is

dynamic, but we cannot exclude the possibility that proteins binding to specific DNA motifs in AT-

rich DNA promote heterochromatin aggregation. We suggest that any dynamic heterochromatin

clustering could be mediated by Liquid Liquid Phase Separation or a chromatin binding protein,

such as Heterochromatin Protein-1 (HP1) [72–74]. Since HP1 loss does not radically disrupt the

Neurospora heterochromatin bundle [25], multiple factors, acting redundantly, could drive fungal

heterochromatin aggregation. Consistent with this hypothesis, HP1-independent pericentromere

clusters are observed in Drosophila [75]. It is currently unknown how eukaryotic constitutive

heterochromatic regions bundle, although histone post-translational modifications and/or DNA

methylation contribute to fungal genome organization. Specifically in Neurospora, subtelomeric

H3K27me2/3 loss causes genome disorder and reduced telomere tethering, while deletion of the

HCHC histone deacetylase complex causes constitutive heterochromatin hyperacetylation to

increase inter-heterochromatic region contacts; heterochromatin hyperacetylation coupled with

5^mC loss, reduces heterochromatin compartmentalization [37, 47]. Future experiments should

elucidate other chromatin-specific mechanisms for organizing eukaryotic genomes.

The LGIIK9het25 deletion also changes local chromatin structure and 3D genome folding. In a

manner synonymous to the ΔK27 strain, the LGIIK9het25 deletion fuses flanking chromatin

segments, as shown by contact gains between neighboring euchromatin bins. However, this deletion

of LGIIK9het25 alters the predicted TADs, and therefore the regional chromatin looping, across the

fused chromatin in two TAD prediction programs. Since interspersed heterochromatic regions in

filamentous fungi anchor the bases of TAD-like structures [9, 24–26, 36], in a mechanism

tantamount to CTCF forming metazoan loops [10], removing a heterochromatic region could allow

interactions between distant euchromatic regions. However, the extensive inter-TAD interactions in

fungi [24–26] complicate TAD prediction, and non-uniform TAD-like structures in Neurospora could

minimize the functional consequences of altered chromatin loops. While we used TAD prediction

parameters to keep heterochromatic region TADs in domains of H3K9me3 to accurately report

biologically relevant TADs, one limitation of our study is that euchromatic TAD/loop prediction is

particularly challenging in Neurospora. In fact, variable intra- and inter-heterochromatin bundling

across chromosomes could cause variability in euchromatin loops in nuclei populations, similar to

the variable TAD boundaries reported in different human cell types [76]. Still, our study has

functional implications for higher eukaryotic systems. While fungi and metazoans employ some

unique chromatin folding mechanisms, the deletion of a metazoan constitutive heterochromatic

region could also disrupt TADs to promote new contacts across the normally isolated TAD-internal

chromatin, in a manner synonymous to our results in fungi. Thus, loss of a H3K9me3-enriched

region from a metazoan genome could alter TAD compartmentalization or misregulate gene

expression if several smaller TADs are merged into a larger TAD. Unfortunately, the consequences to

metazoan genome function would be more dire, given how TAD boundary dysfunction compromises

proper gene expression [6–8]. In fact, our chromosome and genome structure predictions suggest

local looping changes could manifest into a unique folding pattern for the entire genome. Here, the

ΔLGIIK9het25 deletion caused each chromosome, and the genome, to qualitatively form

conformations distinct from the WT genome. While these models are merely predictions and should

be interpreted lightly, it is impactful that the repositioning of a single locus has the potential to alter

the 3D structure of a whole genome. Hypothetically, despite the species-specific differences in TADs

or loops, syntenic changes of linear chromosomal DNA could disorganize a species' genome, causing

functional changes.

Our results also suggest a single constitutive heterochromatic region impacts the transcription

of distant genes in the WT Neurospora genome. The gene expression changes we observe in the

LGIIK9het25 deletion differ from those in a Δ*dim-5* strain if all H3K9me3 is removed, the latter strain

causing numerous genes both strongly up- and down-regulated [37], suggesting LGIIK9het25 has a

minor but real impact on genome function. Overall, this single constitutive heterochromatic region

may subtly repress Neurospora gene expression. Control of gene expression by H3K9me3-enriched

regions in Neurospora was hypothesized from observations of strong contacts between genes and

constitutive heterochromatic regions in high-resolution Hi-C datasets [24]. However, it is difficult to

imagine that a single LGIIK9het25 region deletion directly causes gene expression changes genome

wide. More likely, the ΔLGIIK9het25 allele alters the positioning of the heterochromatin bundle –

and the nearby euchromatin – at the nuclear periphery, which repositions some gene promoters for

increased transcription machinery accessibility. This hypothesis is supported by modeling the gene

expression changes on the ΔLGIIK9het25 chromosomes and across the genome and reasonably

explains gene activation in the NKL2 strain. Of course, altered promoters can also drive gene

expression changes, as observed by the strong P_{trpC} promoter in the NKL2 deletion strain increasing

transcription of gene NCU08696 immediately adjacent to LGIIK9het25, although the possibility

exists that these changes are a consequence of the loss of AT-rich DNA. In contrast, NCU08696, and

other genes near constitutive heterochromatic regions, are downregulated in the Δ*dim-5* strain

lacking H3K9me3, suggesting that some H3K9me3-enriched regions directly control transcription.

Similarly, the proper expression of the Neurospora *met-8* gene requires the immediately adjacent

interspersed constitutive heterochromatic region [77]. Together, our results show gene regulation

across the fungal genome – even genes on different chromosomes – may depend on a single

constitutive heterochromatic region. In metazoans, H3K9me3 enrichment at a gene promoter can

repress expression, as the control of mouse embryonic stem cell identity requires the co-deposition

of H3K9me3 and H3K36me3 for transcriptional repression [78]. Thus, in addition to the canonical

repression of transposable elements and repetitive sequences in eukaryotic genomes [79–82],

H3K9me3 can directly regulate transcription. We propose that heterochromatin-mediated gene

regulation also occurs through 3D organization, where genes interact with H3K9me3-enriched

regions. In this model, genes would associate with constitutive heterochromatic regions at the more

repressive periphery for reducing transcription; should these genes be reoriented to the active

nuclear center, transcription would increase. It is feasible that constitutive heterochromatic regions

could indirectly regulate more "evolutionarily new" or fungal specific genes, in a similar manner as

facultative heterochromatin in Neurospora [33], and examining all genes regulated by constitutive

heterochromatin in RNA-seq datasets from multiple region deletion strains could assess the

evolutionary age of genes controlled by H3K9me3-marked regions. Currently, it is unknown how

constitutive heterochromatic regions may regulate gene expression, but an attractive model

includes HP1 binding to small amounts of H3K9me3 deposited at gene promoters to allow

aggregation with the constitutive heterochromatin bundle; the amount of H3K9me3 needed to

implement this regulation is unknown, but could be minor or occur only in a sub-population of

nuclei, given the near background levels of H3K9me3 across Neurospora genic regions in ChIP-seq

of mycelial populations. Still, fungi may be more apt to employ this hypothetical mechanism to

regulate transcription, as opposed to metazoans, given the more-promiscuous contacts across

fungal TAD-like structures and the extensive inter-chromosomal contacts in a Rabl chromosome

conformation [9, 24–26, 36]. Recently, the histone methyltransferase SETDB1, which catalyzes

H3K9me3 in metazoans, was shown to maintain gene expression and drive chromatin

compartmentalization [83]. Thus, constitutive heterochromatic regions have additional,

underappreciated roles in both genome organization and function across diverse species.

Conclusions

Our work here has directly assessed how one large H3K9me3-marked silent genomic region impacts

fungal genome organization and function. Here, the deletion of a 110.6kb H3K9me3-enriched region

alters the hierarchical 3D genome organization in *Neurospora crassa*, with chromatin fibers, TAD-

like structures, individual chromosomes, and the fungal genome all having altered conformations.

The H3K9me3 deposition on neighboring gene poor regions still occurs despite this 110.6 kb

constitutive heterochromatic region deletion, yet this deletion increases gene expression genome

wide, which 3D genome modeling suggests is due to upregulated genes being mispositioned into the

transcriptionally active nucleus center. Since the Neurospora genome contains 200+ other

H3K9me3-regions, it is likely that each silent region similarly contributes to genome function. Since

many eukaryotic genomes have H3K9me3-enriched constitutive heterochromatic regions, including

many metazoans, the aggregation of constitutive heterochromatin may be a conserved mechanism

for organizing eukaryotic genomes and that individual H3K9me3-enriched regions may regulate

eukaryotic transcription. Further research in multiple species should help elucidate novel functional

roles for this pervasive yet evolutionarily conserved "junk DNA" retained in eukaryotic genomes.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Availability of Data and Materials

All genomic datasets are deposited in the NCBI GEO under the SuperSeries accession number

GSE269235. Individual datasets have the subseries numbers GSE269228 (ChIP-seq), GSE269229

(Hi-C), and GSE269230 (polyA mRNA-seq). All Neurospora strains are available upon request.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Authors' contributions

A.T.R. and A.D.K. designed research; A.T.R., A.P., J.V., C.G.C, O.O. and A.D.K. performed research; A.T.R., A.P., J.V., C.G.C., O.O. and A.D.K. analyzed data; and A.T.R., A.P., J.V., C.G.C., O.O. and A.D.K. wrote the paper.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. A strain harboring a 47.4 kilobase deletion of a H3K27me2/3-enriched domain has

minimal genome organization change. (A-B) Contact probability heatmaps of *Dpn*II

(euchromatin-specific) *in situ* Hi-C datasets at 20 kb resolution across Linkage Group VI (LG VI) of

the (A) WT or (B) N4933 strains, the latter deleted of a 47.4kb H3K27me2/3-enriched region

("ΔK27"). Enhanced heatmaps show the terminal 500 kb of LG VI, harboring ΔK27, at 5 kb

resolution. Each Hi-C image displays the raw contact probability heatmap above the diagonal and

the Knight Ruiz (KR) [60] corrected contact probability heatmap below the diagonal; KR correction

reduces inherent biases in contact probability matrices. Scalebars shown below the images. Images

of wild type H3K9me3 (green) and H3K27me2/3 (purple) ChIP-seq tracks, displayed on IGV [50],

above and to the right. The purple line in (A) shows the WT location of the H3K27me2/3-enriched

region deleted in the ΔK27 strain, while the black arrowhead in (B) shows the increased contact

probability of flanking euchromatin in ΔK27. (C) KR corrected contact probability heatmaps of the

*Dpn*II *in situ* Hi-C datasets of WT and ΔK27 strains primarily showing on-diagonal contacts at 5 kb

bin resolution. Wild type H3K9me3 ChIP-seq (green), H3K27me2/3 ChIP-seq (purple), and gene

(gray) tracks shown below. Scalebar to the left. The black arrowhead shows the increased contact

probability of euchromatin flanking the ΔK27 deletion, while the gray arrowhead shows the contact

probability loss at a putative transposable element (*sly-1*, gene NCU09969). (D-E) Contact

probability heatmaps of the WT and ΔK27 telomere interactions, with the (D) intra-chromosomal

(LG VI left and right telomeres) or inter-chromosomal (LG VI left telomere and LG V right telomere)

contacts shown. Telomere schematic (with the green circle showing the telomere repeat position),

and tracks of H3K27me2/3 ChIP-seq (purple) or genes (gray) shown above and right. The red "X"

covers the deleted H3K27me2/3 domain, while the black arrowhead shows the deletion site contact

depletion.

Figure 2. A ~110 kb H3K9me3-enriched domain deletion alters constitutive heterochromatic

region clustering. (A-D) Contact probability heatmaps, presented as in Figure 1, of (A-B) *Dpn*II

(euchromatin-specific) and (C-D) *Mse*I (heterochromatin specific) *in situ* Hi-C datasets at 20 kb

resolution across LG II of (A, C) WT or (B, D) NKL2 strains, the latter deleted of the 25th H3K9me3-

enriched region from the LG II left telomere ("ΔLGIIK9het25"). The purple line in A shows the

deleted LGIIK9het25 region. Enhanced (5 kb) resolution heatmaps show the 500 kb surrounding

the ΔLGIIK9het25 allele, as in Figure 1A-B. (E-F) Images showing the log$_2$ change in Hi-C contact

probability between WT and ΔLGIIK9het25 strains in (E) *Dpn*II (euchromatin-specific) or (F) *Mse*I

(heterochromatin-specific) 5 kb resolution datasets over the 500 kb surrounding the ΔLGIIK9het25

allele. The scalebar of contact probability changes is shown below. (G) Images showing the change

in inter-chromosomal *Mse*I Hi-C contact probability between LG I and the (top) LG II centromere or

(bottom) LGIIK9het25 interspersed heterochromatic region.

Figure 3. The LGIIK9het25 deletion does not compromise H3K9me3 deposition at other

constitutive heterochromatic regions in the NKL2 strain. (A-B) Images of WT (dark green) or

NKL2 ΔLGIIK9het25 (light green) H3K9me3 ChIP-seq and gene (gray) tracks, displayed on IGV, of

the entire LG II chromosome or enhanced regions. H3K9me3 ChIP-seq reads were mapped to the

(A) WT nc14 or (B) NKL2 ΔLGIIK9het25 reference genomes. Numbers in the Figure 3A enhanced

panel count the heterochromatic regions from the LG II left telomere, while the black arrowheads

show the LGIIK9het25 DNA deletion. The purple line shows the ~110 kb of DNA missing from the

NKL2 genome (shifting all H3K9me3 peaks to the right of the deletion by ~110 kb). The red arrow

in B shows the position of the inserted $P_{trpC}::hph$ gene in NKL2.

Figure 4. The LGIIK9het25 deletion alters the predicted TAD-like structures in the

surrounding chromatin. (A) Contact probability heatmaps of *Dpn*II (KR corrected) or *Mse*I (raw)

in situ Hi-C datasets of WT and ΔLGIIK9het25 strains primarily showing on-diagonal contacts at 5

kb bin resolution, mapped to the NKL2 ΔLGIIK9het25 reference genome. Wild type H3K9me3 ChIP-

seq (green) and gene (gray) tracks shown below. The contact probability scalebar is shown to the

left of each heatmap. Predicted TAD-like structures, as determined by hicFindTADs in hicExplorer,

are indicated by black triangles. Black arrowheads indicate altered TAD-like structures surrounding

the LGIIK9het25 deletion, while white arrowheads show changed TAD-like structures in flanking

euchromatin. The red arrow shows the position of the $P_{trpC}::hph$ gene inserted within the NKL2

reference genome, while the purple line shows increased chromatin contacts at the P_{trpC} promoter.

(B) A heatmap of the changes in contact probability between *Mse*I Hi-C datasets of WT and

ΔLGIIK9het25 strains, displayed as in A. The TAD-like structures predicted in WT (black) or

ΔLGIIK9het25 (blue) strains by hicFindTADs in hicExplorer are shown (triangles). (C) Contact

probability heatmaps, presented as in A, of WT and ΔLGIIK9het25 strains in which *Dpn*II and *Mse*I

Hi-C dataset were summed prior to KR correction.

Figure 5. The predicted 3D folding of a single chromosome is changed with the LGIIK9het25

deletion. (A-B) Images depicting the predicted 3D structures of LG II from (A) WT or (B) NKL2

ΔLGIIK9het25 strains at 20 kb resolution. The green region highlights the LGIIK9het25 region in the WT structure. The enhanced image shows the chromatin folding of the LG II right arm surrounding the LGIIK9het25 region in a WT strain. The arrow shows the LGIIK9het25 deletion site.

Figure 6. The LGIIK9het25 region deletion causes increased gene expression genome wide. (A) Volcano plots showing the $\log_2$ fold change from WT expression levels of all Neurospora genes verses adjusted p-values from (left) the NKL2 ΔLGIIK9het25 or (right) the Δ*dim-5* strains. Red points are genes with significant expression changes ($\log_2$ fold changes > 3.0 or < -3.0 and adjusted p-values < 0.001). The number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) is indicated at the top. (B) Images of IGV tracks showing WT H3K9me3 ChIP-seq (green), genes (gray), or the "up" ($\log_2$ > 3.0; red) or "down" ($\log_2$ < -3.0; blue) DEGs. The purple "X" symbols cover LGIIK9het25 deleted in the NKL2 strain, while the black arrows show the positions of genes NCU08696 or *dim-5* (NCU04402). (C-D) Images depicting the predicted 3D modeling of LG II from (C) WT or (D) NKL2 ΔLGIIK9het25 strains at 20 kb resolution. The green region highlights the LGIIK9het25 region in the WT structure, while 20 kb bins containing DEGs in the NKL2 strain, relative to a WT strain are colored red; the same bins are marked on both structures. The arrow in D shows the LGIIK9het25 deletion site.

Figure 7. The predicted 3D genome structure and DEG positions are altered upon LGIIK9het25 deletion. (A-B) Images depicting the predicted 3D genome structure of (A) WT or (B) NKL2 ΔLGIIK9het25 strains. The left image is the side view of the genome structure; the right image is where the genome structure is rotated up 90°, showing the centromere cluster. The green region highlights the LGIIK9het25 region in the WT structure, while the 20 kb bins containing DEGs in the NKL2 ΔLGIIK9het25 strain are colored red.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

A

RNA-seq comparison WT vs. NKL2

n = 84

-log$_{10}$(adjusted p-value)

log$_2$ Fold Change of all Neurospora genes

log$_2$ Fold Change > 3.0 or < -3.0; adjusted p-value < 0.001

RNA-seq comparison WT vs. Δdim-5

n = 175

log$_2$ Fold Change of all Neurospora genes

log$_2$ Fold Change > 3.0 or < -3.0; adjusted p-value < 0.001

B

3.5 Mb · 4.1 Mb

WT H3K9me3 · NCU08696

NKL2 - 4x up

genes

Δdim-5 · 4x up · 4x down

Linkage Group II

0 Mb · 4 Mb

WT H3K9me3

NKL2 - 4x up

genes

Δdim-5 · 4x up · 4x down

Linkage Group IV

0 Mb · 6 Mb

WT H3K9me3

NKL2 - 4x up

genes

Δdim-5 · 4x up · 4x down

dim-5 (NCU04402)

C

WT LG II

D

NKL2 LG II

20 kb bins with
Differentially Expressed Genes

Figure 6

A

B

Figure 7

WT genome

NKL2 genome

90°

90°

20 kb bins with Differentially Expressed Genes