Title: Cell type- and chromosome-specific chromatin landscapes and DNA replication programs of

***Drosophila* testicular stem cells**

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Running title: Chromatin and replication programs in stem cells

Key words: transcriptome, chromatin, replication, stem cells, *Drosophila*, testis

ABSTRACT

Stem cells have the unique ability to self-renew and differentiate into specialized cell types.

Epigenetic mechanisms, including histones and their post-translational modifications, play a crucial role

in regulating programs integral to a cell's identity, like gene expression and DNA replication. However,

the transcriptional, chromatin, and replication timing profiles of adult stem cells *in vivo* remain poorly

understood. Containing germline stem cells (GSCs) and somatic cyst stem cells (CySCs), the *Drosophila*

testis provides an excellent *in vivo* model for studying adult stem cells. However, the small number of

stem cells and cellular heterogeneity of this tissue have limited comprehensive genomic studies.

In this study, we developed cell type-specific genomic techniques to analyze the transcriptome,

histone modification patterns, and replication timing of GSC-like and CySC-like cells. Single cell RNA-

sequencing validated previous findings on GSC-CySC intercellular communication and revealed high

expression of chromatin regulators in GSCs. To characterize chromatin landscapes, we developed a cell-

type-specific chromatin profiling assay to map H3K4me3-, H3K27me3-, and H3K9me3-enriched regions,

corresponding to euchromatic, facultative heterochromatic, and constitutive heterochromatic domains,

respectively. Finally, we determined cell type-specific replication timing profiles, integrating our *in vivo*

datasets with published data using cultured cell lines. Our results reveal that GSCs display a distinct

replication program compared to somatic lineages, that aligns with chromatin state differences.

Collectively, our integrated transcriptomic, chromatin, and replication datasets provide a comprehensive

framework for understanding genome regulation differences between these *in vivo* stem cell populations,

demonstrating the power of multi-omics in uncovering cell type-specific regulatory features.

INTRODUCTION

Stem cells are defined by their ability to self-renew and differentiate into specialized cell types.

During development and tissue homeostasis, asymmetric cell division of stem cells produces two

genetically identical daughter cells that adopt distinct cell fates. It is hypothesized that the asymmetric

distribution and inheritance of cell fate determinants play a critical role in specifying these identities.

Epigenetic mechanisms, such as histones and their post-translational modifications, regulate chromatin

compaction, transcription, and DNA replication timing, to influence cell fate decisions. In stem cells,

epigenetic regulation is thought to be a key contributor to their differentiation potential. However, its

precise roles in *in vivo* stem cell systems remain to be fully elucidated.

The *Drosophila* male germline is a well-established model for studying stem cell biology with well-

defined cell lineages and differentiation programs. Germline stem cells (GSCs) reside near the stem cell

niche and undergo asymmetric cell divisions to generate a self-renewing GSC and a differentiating

gonialblast (GB, Figure 1A) (Fuller and Spradling 2007; Matunis et al. 2012). Concurrently, cyst stem

cells (CySCs) divide to produce a CySC and a cyst cell (CC) (Cheng et al. 2011; Gönczy and Dinardo

1996). The GB, encapsulated by two CCs, undergoes four mitotic divisions with incomplete cytokinesis,

forming a 16-cell spermatogonial (SG) cyst that subsequently enters meiosis (Figure 1A) (Matunis et al.

2012).

Germline and cyst cell lineages interact through cell-cell adhesion molecules and signaling pathways,

ensuring proper germline cyst differentiation to become mature sperm (Matunis et al. 2012). Notably, the

germline differentiation process is partially reversible. For example, partially differentiated SG cells can

dedifferentiate, reverting to a GSC-like state (Brawley and Matunis 2004; Sheng et al. 2009). Even

though their redifferentiation potency remains unclear and needs further investigation, this ability for

differentiated cells to dedifferentiate makes the male germline a powerful system for studying factors that

regulate changes in cellular identity.

In the *Drosophila* male germline, traditional genetic and cell biological approaches have provided key

insights into lineage-specific differences between GSCs and CySCs, as well as how these two lineages

interact to ensure normal stem cell functions. However, due to the cell heterogeneity and limited number

of stem cells in wild-type testis tissue, comprehensive cell-type-specific genomic datasets defining their

global transcriptional, chromatin, and replication landscapes have remained elusive. To address this, we

developed cell-type-specific genomic strategies for testicular stem cells, enabling a detailed analysis of

their transcriptome, chromatin landscapes, and replication timing dynamics. This approach uncovered

previously unrecognized chromosome-specific differences in chromatin regulation between GSCs and

CySCs, shedding new light on the molecular mechanisms regulating stem cell identity and activity.

Figure 1: Single-Cell RNA-seq of *Upd*-tumor Testes Classifies Two Stem Cell Populations

A: Schematic of a wild-type testis alongside a single z-slice confocal image demonstrating the

differentiation process of germline (green) and cyst (magenta) cells. At the apical tip, GSCs and CySCs

surround the stem cell niche (FasIII, blue cell cluster). Individual spermatogonial (SG) cysts are identified

by the spectrosome/fusome and the cell adhesion protein armadillo (blue).

B: A schematic and single z-slice confocal image of the *upd*-tumor. The tumor lacks a stem cell niche and

is composed of GSC-like (green) and CySC-like (magenta) cells. In blue, is the spectrosome, a spectrin-

containing structure that appears as a dot in GSCs.

C: The *upd*-tumor is composed of approximately five cell clusters, with the two largest groups

representing GSC-like and CySC-like cells.

D-I. Uniform Manifold Approximation Projection (UMAP) graphs show the cell- and stage-specific log

normalized expression of known marker transcripts that accurately define the GSC-like and CySC-like

clusters.

RESULTS

Using a GSC and CySC tumor model for genomic studies

Our understanding of the transcriptional, chromatin, and replication landscapes of *Drosophila*

GSCs is limited due to their small number in wild-type testes (Figure 1A, S1A). GSCs were

underrepresented in previous bulk genomic analyses of wild-type or early-stage germ cell-enriched testes

(Gan et al. 2010; Vedelek et al. 2018). Furthermore, even single-cell or single-nucleus transcriptomic

methods using whole wild-type testes yielded sparse GSC data (Witt et al. 2019; Yu et al. 2023; Raz et al.

2023; Shi et al. 2020).

To overcome this limitation, we used testes enriched with GSC-like and somatic CySC-like cells

by over-expressing the Janus kinase (JAK)-signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT)

pathway ligand, Unpaired (Upd) (Figure 1B, S1B). Hyper-activation of the JAK-STAT pathway in the

testis results in over-proliferation of both stem cell types (Kiger et al. 2001; Tulina and Matunis 2001;

Leatherman and Dinardo 2010), resulting in a less heterogeneous tissue composition for genomic

profiling of stem cells from both germline and somatic lineages.

In our experimental design, we used two different cell type-specific drivers to overexpress Upd in

the fly testes. Driving expression of Upd with either a germline driver (*nanos* or *nos*-Gal4) or somatic

driver (*traffic jam* or *tj*-Gal4) leads to testis tumors with over-proliferative GSC-like and CySC-like cells.

For validation, a GFP-tagged histone H3 (H3-GFP) was driven along with Upd in either GSC-like cells

(*nos>upd*, *H3-GFP*) or CySC-like cells (*tj>upd*, *H3-GFP*). This tumor model reduces cellular

heterogeneity, making it an ideal system for studying GSC- or CySC-specific transcriptional, chromatin,

and replication landscapes.

scRNA-seq profiling of GSC-like and CySC-like cells

We performed single cell RNA-sequencing (scRNA-seq) on *nos*- and *tj*-driven Upd-

overexpressing tumor samples (*upd*-tumors), with two replicates each. Across these four samples, we

consistently identified distinct germline and somatic lineages, demonstrated through single-cell

integration, principal component analysis (PCA), and clustering (Figure S1C, S1D).

After individually clustering each sample, we integrated them to reduce batch effect variance, and

subset the data to GSC and CySC clusters. The majority of transcriptional variance was orthogonal to

tumor genotype variable (PC 1 *vs. nos>upd, H3-GFP/tj>upd, H3-GFP*: $R^2 = 0.06$, Figure S1D, S1E).

Consequently, most cells are clustered into two groups: GSC-like cells (expressing *vasa* and *nanos*) or

CySC-like cells (expressing *tj* and *zfh1*) (Figure 1C-G, Supplemental Table 1). Beyond these two main

clusters, we identified three additional clusters: primary spermatocytes (*mst87f*-expressing), muscle cells

(*act57B*-expressing), and an unidentified *wb*-expressing somatic lineage (Figure 1C, S1F, Supplemental

Table 1) (Kuhn et al. 1991; Kelly et al. 2002). For this study, we focus on the GSC-like and CySC-like

clusters.

The GSC-like and CySC-like clusters followed expected gene expression patterns for known cell

type- and stage-specific markers. For example, GSC-like cells, but not CySC-like cells, express *vasa* and

nanos (Figure 1D, 1E, Supplemental Table 1). On the other hand, CySC-like cells, but not GSC-like cells,

express *zfh1* and *tj* (Figure 1F, 1G, Supplemental Table 1). As a negative control, *eyeless* (*ey*), a gene

required for eye development, was not detected in any clusters (Figure S1G) (Halder et al. 1995).

The expression of stage-specific transcripts further confirms that the *upd*-tumor is enriched with

stem cell-like germline and cyst cells. As expected, *stat92E* is detected in both clusters, indicating JAK-

STAT pathway activation due to *upd* overexpression (Figure S1G, Supplemental Table 1) (Amoyel and

Bach 2012). Additionally, as expected for GSCs, neither *bag-of-marbles* (*bam*), which is a marker of

spermatogonia, nor *cannonball* (*can*), a spermatocyte-specific transcript, are strongly expressed in the

GSC-like cell cluster (Figure 1H, S1G, Supplemental Table 1) (McKearin and Spradling 1990; Hiller et

al. 2001). Consistently, *eyes-absent* (*eya*), a late-stage cyst cell marker, is not expressed in the CySC-like

cell cluster (Figure 1I, Supplemental Table 1) (Fabrizio et al. 2003).

Thus, the two major clusters from the *upd*-tumors correspond to GSCs and CySCs, expressing

characteristic cell type- and stage-specific transcripts. The size and purity of these clusters provide an

opportunity to robustly profile the transcriptomes of GSC- and CySC-like cells.

CySC-like cells highly express intercellular communication genes while GSC-like cells enrich for

chromatin regulators

To identify cell-type-enriched transcripts, we performed differential gene expression analysis. A

transcript was considered as having significantly higher expression in GSC-like cells if it had a fold

change >1.5 (GSC/CySC) and an S-value < 10^{-4} (estimated false sign rate) (Figure 2A, Supplemental

Table 2). We identified 827 genes enriched in GSC-like cells and 1,794 in CySC-like cells. These GSC-

like and CySC-like enriched gene sets contained expected markers, supporting cluster identity and the

robustness of our analysis (Figure 2B, Supplemental Table 2). First, the long-noncoding RNAs, *roX1* and

roX2 (*RNA on the X*), components of the male dosage compensation complex found in somatic but not

germ cells (Shevelyov et al. 2022), rank among the top 100 genes with significantly higher expression in

CySC-like cells (Figure 2B, Supplemental Table 2). Second, *ago3*, encoding a germline-specific

Argonaute required for piRNA-mediated transposon repression (Williams and Rubin 2002), is among the

top 200 genes with significantly higher expression in GSC-like cells (Figure 2B, Supplemental Table 2).

Figure 2: Intercellular communication in CySC-like cells and chromatin-based regulation in GSC-like cells

166 A: Differential gene expression analysis between the transcriptomes of the GSC-like and CySC-like

167 datasets. Differentially expressed transcripts are defined as having an absolute fold change difference

168 >1.5 (GSC/CySC) and an estimated false sign rate (S-value) <10^{-4}.

169 B: UMAP graphs of two known differentially expressed transcripts demonstrate the accuracy of cluster

170 identification. *roX1:* Log_2 FC= -6.01, S-value= 0; *ago3:* Log_2FC= 3.91, S-value= 0.

171 C-D: Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of the top 500 highest expressed genes in the GSC-like (at least

172 258.44274 CPM) and CySC-like (at least 246.321917 CPM) cell clusters. Shown are heatmaps of the

173 Log_2 Fold Enrichment (FE) and negative Log_{10} False Discovery Rate (FDR) results from the GO analysis.

174 E-F: Gene Ontology results for the significantly differentially expressed genes in GSC-like and CySC-

175 like cells. Shown are heatmaps of the Log_2 Fold Enrichment (FE) and negative Log_{10} False Discovery

176 Rate (FDR) results from the GO analysis.

177 G: Differential transcript expression (Log_2 GSC/CySC) for select genes involved in DNA replication,

178 shows the higher expression of these genes in GSC-like cells (green bars). One gene, Cdc45, is

179 differentially expressed in the CySC-like cells (magenta bar).

180 H: Confocal images of testis tips from fly strains with the indicated endogenously tagged GFP fusion

181 protein. Expression of each protein is restricted within the mitotically active spermatogonial region. The

182 inset displays a representative z-stack image containing a GSC (outlined in green) and CySC (outlined in

183 magenta) that would be used for quantification.

184 I: The amount of GFP fluorescence within the volume of the nucleus of a GSC or CySC was normalized

185 to the amount of Hoechst staining to produce the GFP signal value for that cell. The spectrosome, a germ

186 cell-specific organelle, and CySC-specific transcription factor Zfh1 were used to distinguish between

187 GSCs and CySCs (Leatherman and Di Nardo 2008; Lin et al. 1994). Two-tailed Mann-Whitney test,

188 ****= p<0.0001.

We performed Gene Ontology (GO) analysis to compare gene functions of expressed genes in

GSC-like and CySC-like cells. We first analyzed the top 500 expressed transcripts based on their CPM

(counts-per-million) values (top ~2.8%). CySCs are enriched with transcripts encoding cell-cell adhesion

molecules and signaling pathway components (Figure 2C, Supplemental Table 3). For example,

Cadherin-N (*cadN*) transcript level in the CySC-like cells (256.04 CPM) was significantly higher than in

GSC-like cells (0.17 CPM) (Supplemental Table 1). Components from several signaling pathways,

including the ErbB, Epidermal Growth Factor (EGF), Hippo, Wnt, and Notch pathways, were identified

as expressed highly in CySC-like cells (Figure 2C, Supplemental Table 3), consistent with their roles in

regulating CySC fate specification, division, and germline cyst enclosure (Schulz et al. 2002; Parrott et al.

2012; Kiger et al. 2000; Hudson et al. 2013; Ng et al. 2019). We also performed GO analysis on the 1,794

significantly higher expressed transcripts in CySCs. These transcripts are also enriched for genes involved

in intercellular communication, including paracrine signaling pathway components and adhesion proteins

(Figure 2E, S2A, Supplemental Table 3). For example, non-cell-autonomous Bone Morphogenic Protein

(BMP) signaling in somatic gonadal cells is essential for GSC maintenance and differentiation

(Shivdasani and Ingham 2003; Leatherman and Dinardo 2010; Kawase et al. 2004). Components of this

pathway, including the receptor Thickveins (Tkv) and the ligands Decapentaplegic (Dpp) and Glass

bottom boat (Gbb), are significantly higher expressed in GSC-like cells in our analysis (Supplemental

Table 2). Together, these profiles align with the known supportive roles of somatic gonadal cells in

spermatogenesis.

In contrast to CySC-like cells, the GO analysis of transcripts in GSC-like cells indicates the top

500 genes expressed in GSC-like cells are primarily chromatin regulators, such as the Facilitates

Chromatin Transcription (FACT), Imitation Switch (ISWI), and Brahma complexes (Figure 2D,

Supplemental Table 3) (Formosa and Winston 2020; Tyagi et al. 2016; Hu et al. 2021). For example,

FACT complex subunits were expressed approximately five times higher in GSCs than in CySCs

(Supplemental Table 1). We next examined the 827 significantly higher expressed genes in the GSC-like

cell cluster. The GSC-like transcriptome is differentially enriched for protein complexes involved in

chromatin regulation, such as DNA replication, heterochromatin maintenance, and chromatin accessibility

(Figures 2F, 2G, S2A, S2C-D, Table 1, Supplemental Table 3). Further, several chromatin-associated

complexes contain multiple components, all significantly differentially expressed in GSC-like cells (Table

1). For example, genes encoding both FACT complex subunits, five Minichromosome Maintenance 2-7

(MCM2-7) complex components, and four Origin Recognition Complex (ORC) components, are all

enriched in GSC-like cells compared to CySC-like cells (Table 1).

Complex Name	Component Names	Function
Origin Recognition Complex	**Orc1**, **Orc2**, Orc3, **Orc4**, **Orc5**, Orc6	Binds to origins of DNA replication
Minichromosome Maintenance Complex	**Mcm2**, **Mcm3**, **dpa**, **Mcm5**, Mcm6, **Mcm7, Mcm10**	DNA helicase unwinds dsDNA
Replication Factors	Cdc45, dup, **geminin**, **cdc6**	Factors regulating initiation of the replisome
Replication Protein A	RPA1, RPA2, RPA3	Binds to single stranded DNA
DNA polymerase epsilon	**Chrac-14**, PolE1, **PolE2**, PolE4	Synthesizes leading strand DNA
DNA polymerase alpha	**PolA1**, **PolA2**, **Prim1**, **Prim2**	Synthesizes the RNA primer that initiates DNA synthesis
DNA polymerase delta	**PolD1**, **PolD2**, PolD3	Synthesizes lagging strand DNA
Other DNA polymerases	PolH, PolZ1, PolZ2, PolI, PolG1, PolG2, PolQ	Varied polymerases for DNA Repair and mitochrondrial DNA synthesis
Replication Factor C/ Egl1 Complex	CG8142, **elg1**, **RfC3**, **RfC4**, **RfC38**	Regulate chromatin association of PCNA
DNA Ligases	**DNAlig1**, DNAlig3, DNAlig4	Joins DNA strands
DNA Helicases	Dna2, **RecQ4**, RecQ5, Pif1	DNA helicases functioning in DNA repair
DNA N-glycosylases	Tdg, Ogg1, Nthl1	Enzymes that remove damaged bases from DNA
DNA polymerase Rev1	**Rev1**	DNA polymerase involved in translesion synthesis
DNA Repair	**Brca2**	Involved in DNA Repair
Chromatin assembly factor 1	Caf-180, **Caf-105**, Caf-55	Assembles nucleosomes on newly synthesized DNA
Chromatin Accessibility Complex	**Acf**, **Chrac-14**, Chrac-16, Iswi	Regulates chromatin accessibility through nucleosome sliding
Histone Variants	His4r, **Cid**, **His2Av**	Histone variants
Histone Chaperones	Hira, Nap1	Histone chaperones
Nucleosome Remodeling Factor	Nurf-38, Caf1-55, E(bx), Iswi	Nucleosome sliding complex regulates accessibility for transcription

Remodeling and Spacing Factor Complex	CG8677, Iswi	Remodeling and spacing factor complex
SNF2-like Chromatin Remodelers and NuRD	Mi-2, dom, chd3	Disrupts DNA-histone interactions
FACT	**dre4**, **Ssrp**	Interacts with H2A-H2B dimers and facilitates nucleosome formation

Table 1: Composition and function of select DNA replication and chromatin regulation complexes.

Components in bold are differentially enriched in GSC-like cells.

To rule out potential bias caused by differences in cell cycles, we tested whether the enrichment

of DNA replication transcripts in GSC-like cells resulted from an over-representation of GSC-like cells in

G1- or S-phase on the dataset compared with CySC-like cells in these two cell cycle stages (Figure S2E).

Normalizing transcript representation across cell cycle phases such that both cell types have equivalent

percentages of cells in each cell cycle stage (33% G1, 33% S, 33% G2/M), did not change the enrichment

pattern of genes in GSC-like and CySC-like clusters (Figure S2F). Specifically, all assayed *mcm* and *orc*

genes remained GSC-enriched. Thus, the enrichment of DNA replication transcripts in GSC-like cells

reflects a true biological difference rather than an artifact of differences in their cell cycle phase

distribution.

We next tested whether the enrichment of DNA replication factors detected in GSC-like cells

from the *upd*-tumor also occurs in GSCs from non-tumor wild-type testes. Using genome editing, we

generated knock-in fly lines with *gfp*-tagged endogenous *mcm2*, *orc1*, and *caf1-p105*, genes considered

differentially enriched in GSC-like cells (Figure 2G, S2D, Table 1). We then performed immunostaining

on non-tumor testes to examine the expression patterns of these GFP-fusion proteins and quantified GFP

signals in wild-type GSCs and CySCs (Figure2H, 2I, S2G). In all instances, normalized GFP signal was

significantly higher in GSCs compared to CySCs (Figure 2I), demonstrating that the protein levels in

wild-type testes recapitulate the transcript enrichment identified in *upd*-tumor samples. Together, these

scRNA-seq data support the usage of *upd*-tumor testes in uncovering key characteristics of wild-type stem

cells through genomic strategies.

Cell type-specific chromatin landscapes profiled by H3K4me3, H3K27me3, and H3K9me3

The high expression of chromatin regulators in GSC-like cells, revealed by our scRNA-seq

analysis, suggests their potential roles in shaping distinct chromatin landscapes to regulate germline

functions. This prompted us to investigate cell-type-specific chromatin patterns in GSC-like and CySC-

like cells, respectively. To achieve this, we optimized a low-input cell-type-specific chromatin profiling

method using *upd*-tumor testes, which employs micrococcal nuclease (MNase) digestion of targeted

chromatin (Figure 3A). In this method, we co-expressed the Upd ligand and histone H3-GFP fusion

protein in either GSC-like cells (*nos>upd*, *H3-GFP*) or CySC-like cells (*tj>upd*, *H3-GFP*), as described

earlier. MNase digestion specifically targeted chromatin containing H3-GFP using an anti-GFP antibody

(Figure 3A). After separating the soluble (GFP-containing) from insoluble (GFP-negative) chromatin, 5%

of the soluble chromatin was sequenced as 'input', while the remaining chromatin was prepared for low

input ChIP-sequencing (ChIP-seq) using antibodies against H3K4me3, H3K27me3, or H3K9me3 (Figure

3A). We chose these histone modifications because they represent distinct chromatin domains: H3K4me3

(euchromatin), H3K27me3 (facultative heterochromatin), and H3K9me3 (constitutive heterochromatin)

(Kouzarides 2007). We quantified histone mark enrichment using a multiple regression model that

includes the input log-enrichment as intercept, a ChIP Log_2 Fold Enrichment (L_2FE) coefficient, and

covariates. The L_2FE coefficients robustly characterize the chromatin of the *Drosophila* chromosomes in

each sample (Figure 3B, S3A).

In agreement with previous findings (Kharchenko et al. 2011), H3K4me3 and H3K27me3 are

enriched along the euchromatic chromosome arms but depleted in the pericentromeric regions of

chromosomes 2, 3, and X (Figure 3B, S3A). In contrast, H3K9me3, which associates with constitutive

heterochromatin, shows enrichment at pericentromeric regions (Figure 3B, S3A). Together, these results

demonstrate that our cell-type-specific chromatin profiling assay accurately recapitulates chromatin

signatures consistent with the known distributions of H3K4me3, H3K27me3, and H3K9me3 (Kharchenko

et al. 2011).

To investigate relationships between chromatin patterns and cell-type-specific gene expression,

we integrated our cell-type-specific chromatin profiles with the scRNA-seq results. Focusing on the GSC-

like and CySC-like clusters, we defined a transcript as expressed ('on') if its CPM was above 5, a

threshold that reliably separates known cell-type-specifically expressed genes from non-expressed genes

(CPM< 5, 'off'). For example, using this cutoff, *ago3* is classified as 'off' in the CySC-like cluster (CPM

= 2.11), but is robustly expressed in the GSC-like cluster (CPM = 697.21) (Figure 2D, Supplemental

Table 1), indicating strong cell type-specific expression (Williams and Rubin 2002). We further classified

'on' genes into three categories based on their transcript levels: low, medium, and high (Figure 3C). The

GSC-like and CySC-like clusters contained similar numbers of 'on' and 'off' genes (GSCs: 6,842 'on'

and 10,716 'off'; CySCs: 6,484 'on' and 10,775 'off'), while the remaining three smaller clusters

displayed comparable numbers of 'on' and 'off' genes (Figure S3B).

Using these categories, we plotted mononucleosomal enrichment (as a density estimation of input

monosomal fragment midpoints) to understand how nucleosomal position and density influence gene

expression. The phased distribution of the H3 signal, indicative of nucleosome positioning, displays the

characteristic mononucleosomal pattern generated by the MNase (Figure 3D). This approach reveals the

strongly positioned +1 nucleosome near the transcription start sites (TSSs) of actively expressed genes in

both cell types, with positioning strength diminishing as gene expression levels decrease (Figure 3D,

Supplemental Table 4). This observation aligns with the known association between strongly positioned

nucleosomes and chromatin organization at active genes, underscoring the role of nucleosome positioning

in regulating gene expression and further validating our experimental approach (Chereji et al. 2018).

Figure 3: The cell-specific chromatin profiles of H3K4me3, H3K27me3, and H3K9me3

A: Schematic of the cell-specific chromatin immunocleavage (ChIC) coupled with chromatin

immunoprecipitation (ChIP) protocol. Chromatin containing a histone H3-GFP fusion protein is targeted

for digestion by antibody-guided MNase. After enriching for digested chromatin, a low-input ChIP

protocol is performed for either the H3K4me3, H3K27me3, or H3K9me3 chromatin modification.

B: The Log2 Fold Enrichment (L2FE) of H3K4me3, H3K27me3, and H3K9me3 along the euchromatic

arms and pericentromeric region of Chromosome 2. Enrichment tracks from GSC-like cells are in green,

whereas the tracks associated with CySC-like cells are in magenta.

C: Using a cut-off of CPM>5 as "on", the transcriptomes of the GSC-like and CySC-like clusters

obtained from the scRNA-seq were divided into three equal parts to define genes as either off, low,

medium, or high expression.

D: Enrichment of mononucleosome fragments is plotted at transcription start sites (TSS) of genes

separated by their expression level as defined in C. Normalized enrichment of mononucleosome

fragments was determined by normalizing to the median mononucleosomal fragment count on autosomes.

The +1 nucleosome is indicated in each graph. Enrichment at the maximum L_2FE value was compared to

the "off" gene value using a T-test for each CPM group, indicating a strong significant difference in

fragment enrichment (Supplemental Table 4).

E&F: Cell-specific histone modification enrichment was calculated as the Log2 Fold Enrichment

Log_2(Average mark signal / H3 (input) signal), then plotted at the TSS of genes categorized by their

expression level. The arrowheads indicate the position of nucleosomes where a difference in H3K27me3

enrichment is observed between GSC-like and CySC-like chromatin profiles. As done earlier, enrichment

at the maximum L_2FE value for each CPM group was compared to the "off" gene value using a T-test,

indicating a strong significant difference in modification enrichment (Supplemental Table 4).

G: Comparing the average gene profiles of L_2FE along gene bodies between GSC-like and CySC-like

cells shows no difference in enrichment for H3K4me3, but a significant increase in H3K27me3

enrichment in CySC-like cells (Supplemental Table 4).

H3K27me3 plays a more prominent role in CySC-like cells compared to GSC-like cells

To investigate the relationship between histone modifications and gene expression, we analyzed

modification enrichments at TSSs relative to transcript levels using the input-normalized Log_2 Fold

Enrichment (L_2FE) of H3K4me3, H3K27me3, and H3K9me3 for GSC-like and CySC-like cells. We

applied a LOESS model, regressing the histone modification L_2FE at TSSs with the gene expression

levels ($Log_{10}CPM$), to estimate mean L_2FE values for genes categorized as 'off', 'low', 'medium', and

'high' based on their median $Log_{10}CPM$ values (Figure S3C, S3E). In both GSC-like and CySC-like cells,

highly expressed genes are enriched for H3K4me3 but show depletion of H3K27me3 and H3K9me3

(Figure S3C). In contrast, silenced genes in both GSC-like and CySC-like cells display higher H3K9me3

enrichment compared to expressed genes (Figure S3C).

When examining the average histone modification enrichment at TSSs, we detected a significant

H3K4me3 peak at the +1 nucleosome for all expressed genes in both cell types (Figure 3E-F,

Supplemental Table 4). The H3K4me3 enrichment positively correlates with gene expression (Figures

S3C, S3E), as anticipated. Conversely, H3K9me3 shows minimal enrichment at expressed genes (Figures

3E-F, S3C, S3E), but is highly enriched at transposable elements, consistent with its known role in

marking constitutively repressed genomic regions (Figure S3D, Supplemental Table 4).

Among the three profiled histone modifications, H3K27me3 displays distinguishable cell-type-

specific differences between GSC-like and CySC-like cells, indicating potentially distinct roles in these

two cell types (Figure S3C, S3E). In GSC-like cells, H3K27me3 shows moderate enrichment across all

expressed gene categories (Figure 3E, S3C, S3E), whereas silenced genes display stronger enrichment

despite lacking well-positioned nucleosomes (Figure 3E). This non-canonical H3K27me3 enrichment

resembles the pattern observed in female *Drosophila* GSCs, where H3K27me3 is detectable at both

inactive and active gene loci (Deluca et al. 2020).

In contrast, in CySC-like cells, H3K27me3 is most enriched at the lowest-expressed genes and

gradually decreases with increasing gene expression levels (Figure 3F, S3C, S3E). Notably, this

H3K27me3 pattern is more consistent with its well-established role in gene repression. Further, in CySC-

like cells, H3K27me3 enrichment increases at the +3 nucleosome position and extends into the gene body

for medium- and low-expression genes, a distinct feature not observed in GSC-like cells (Figure 3E, 3F).

Previous studies demonstrate that broad H3K4me3 domains mark genes critical for cell identity

and function in stem and progenitor cells. As cells differentiate and lose potency, these broad H3K4me3

domains become refined (Zhang et al. 2021). Further, broad H3K27me3 enrichment across gene bodies is

associated with gene repression (Young et al. 2011). To investigate whether broad histone modification

patterns are present in the two populations of stem cells in testis, we analyzed histone modification

enrichment across gene bodies in genes expressed in both GSC-like and CySC-like cells (Figure 3G). Our

analysis revealed similar H3K4me3 enrichment along gene bodies in both cell types (Figure 3G,

Supplemental Table 4). However, H3K27me3 was significantly enriched along gene bodies in CySC-like

cells (Figure 3G, Supplemental Table 4). This differential enrichment indicates a cell-type-specific

regulatory mechanism for which H3K27me3 plays a more prominent role in CySC-like cells than in

GSC-like cells.

Previous functional studies in *Drosophila* testes demonstrate that the histone methyltransferase

Enhancer of Zeste [E(z)], which generates H3K27me3, plays a critical non-cell autonomous role in the

CySC lineage by preventing ectopic expression of a key somatic transcription factor in germ cells (Eun et

al. 2014). Conversely, inactivation of E(z) in the germline results in only mild defects, which arise in

later-stage germ cells rather than GSCs (Eun et al. 2017). This indicates H3K27me3 may not play a large

role in the early germline. Consistent with these findings, our scRNA-seq data show moderate *E(z)*

expression in both GSC-like and CySC-like cells (GSC-like CPM = 74.33, CySC-like CPM = 20.89,

Figure S3F, Supplemental Table S1). However, the transcripts for the demethylases responsible for

erasing the H3K27me3 modification, *Jarid2* and *Utx,* are more highly expressed in the GSC-like cell

cluster (*Jarid:* GSC-like CPM = 138.24, CySC-like CPM = 68.11; *Utx:* GSC-like CPM = 64.17, CySC-

like CPM = 31.06) (Figure S3G, S3H, Supplemental Table S1). Together, these findings highlight a non-

cell-autonomous role for E(z) and H3K27me3 in the CySC lineage, where they regulate the identity and

activity of the GSC lineage. Moreover, these data suggest a non-canonical H3K27me3 chromatin pattern

in male GSC-like cells, resembling the pattern detected in female GSCs (Deluca et al. 2020).

Distinct replication timing profiles in GSC-like and CySC-like cells

Chromatin organization plays an integral role in regulating transcription and DNA replication.

Given the differences in chromatin landscapes between GSC-like and CySC-like cells, we aimed to

understand how replication timing differs between these cell types using Replication-sequencing (Repli-

seq) (Figure 4A, S4A-C) (Marchal et al. 2018). First, we dissected *upd*-tumors expressing H3-GFP in

either GSC-like or CySC-like cells and incubated them with the thymidine analog Bromodeoxyuridine

(BrdU) to label replicating DNA. Next, GSC-like or CySC-like nuclei were extracted and sorted *via* flow

cytometry into four S-phase fractions corresponding to early, early-mid, late-mid, and late S-phase, based

on their DNA content (Figure 4A, S4A-C). BrdU-labeled DNA was then immunoprecipitated, followed

by library preparation and sequencing (Figure 4A).

We generated replication timing profiles, identifying early and late replicating genomic regions

on each chromosome. In these profiles, enrichment of Repli-seq reads in the early fraction yields a

positive score, just as late fraction enrichment yields a negative score. Consistent with known replication

timing patterns, pericentromeric heterochromatin is largely late-replicating in both GSC-like and CySC-

like cells (Figure 4B, 4C). On the other hand, in both cell types, replication timing oscillates between

early and late across the chromosomal arms of chromosomes 2, 3, and X (Figure 4B, 4C). The 2nd and 3rd

chromosomes comprise 70-80% of the *Drosophila* genome and display distinct chromatin landscapes

between the chromosome arms and pericentromeric regions (Figure 3B, S3A). To examine replication

progression relative to these chromatin domains, we plotted replication timing values for these two major

autosomes, separating the arms from the pericentromeric regions. Minimal replication timing differences

were detected between GSC-like and CySC-like cells along the major autosomal arms (Figure 4C).

Notably, while pericentromeric regions for both major autosomes were consistently late-replicating in

CySC-like cells, they displayed early replication features in GSC-like cells (Figures 4B, 4C,

Supplemental Table 5). Surprisingly, the 4th chromosome replicates early in GSC-like cells, despite its

known heterochromatic nature (Figure 4B, 4C) (Haynes et al. 2007). Overall, GSC-like cells exhibited a

trend where traditionally heterochromatic regions replicate earlier than expected, suggesting previously

unrecognized roles for these regions in regulating GSC functions.

We next compared replication timing values between GSC-like and CySC-like cells to identify

genomic regions with significantly different timing regimes. Using 3kb sliding windows, we tested the

null hypothesis that replication timing is equal between the two stem cell types. Nested peak calling was

then performed to identify regions at least 20kb in size with significant timing differences between the

two cell types. Regions were then categorized as 'GSC earlier' or 'CySC earlier' depending on whether

they replicate earlier in GSC-like or CySC-like cells. Overall, 25,12 Mb of the genome replicates earlier

in GSC-like cells compared to CySC-like cells, while 14.588 Mb replicates earlier in CySCs-like cells

(Figure 4D, 4E, Supplemental Table 6). The total genomic size of earlier replicating regions is similar

between GSC-like and CySC-like cells across the major autosomal arms and the X chromosome (Figure

4D). A notable exception is the right arm of chromosome 3, where the total amount of kb replicating

earlier in GSC-like cells is much greater than CySC-like cells (Figure 4D, Supplemental Table 6).

In heterochromatic regions, GSC-like cells exhibited a greater total genomic size of earlier-

replicating DNA compared with CySC-like cells (Figure 4E). A notable exception is the Y chromosome,

where most differentially timed regions replicate earlier in CySC-like cells than in GSC-like cells (Figure

4E). To examine whether differences in replication timing align with differences in histone modification

enrichment, we analyzed L_2FE values from our cell type-specific histone modification data. As expected,

regions that replicate earlier in GSC-like cells show significantly greater H3K4me3 enrichment in this cell

type (Figure 4F, Supplemental Table 5). Similarly, earlier replicating regions in CySC-like cells are

enriched for H3K4me3 in these cells (Figure 4F, Supplemental Table 5). These results indicate that cell

type-specific replication timing differences align with cell type-specific chromatin features. For the first

time, our results enable precise identification of specific chromosomal regions that differ in replication

timing and chromatin landscapes between germline and somatic stem cell populations in the *in vivo*

context.

Figure 4: The replication timing profiles of GSC-like and CySC-like cells are distinct

A: A schematic of the Repli-seq protocol. First, dissected *upd*-tumors are incubated with BrdU, followed

by nuclei isolation. GFP-positive nuclei are then sorted by DNA content, separating into one of four S-

phase fractions: early, early-mid, late-mid, or late replicating. Next, the BrdU-containing DNA is

immunoprecipitated and prepared for sequencing to identify genomic locations undergoing replication

within the specific stages of S-phase.

B: Replication timing is scored from -1 to 1, where positive values represent early replicating and

negative values represent late replicating. Replication timing line plots for GSC-like (green) and CySC-

like (magenta) are separated for each chromosome. Beneath the line plots are the genomic windows

where replication timing significantly differed between GSC-like and CySC-like cells, where the color

indicates the cell type with earlier replication.

C: The replication timing values for each chromosome are plotted as violin plots and separated by

heterochromatic or euchromatic regions. A T-test of the logit-transformed violins indicated there is a

significant difference in the replication timing values for all comparisons between GSC-like and CySC-

like distributions, except the X chromosome. Cen = pericentromeric heterochromatin.

D&E: The total genomic size in kb for each chromosome for which we rejected the null hypothesis of no

difference in timing among GSC-like or CySC-like cells, grouped by the earlier-replicating cell type. In

general, heterochromatic regions are earlier replicating in GSC-like cells.

F: The Log_2 Fold Enrichment values for H3K4me3 are significantly elevated in regions that are cell-

specifically earlier replicating.

Replication timing of GSC-like cells is distinct from that of CySC-like and cultured *Drosophila* cells

As most studies on replication timing have focused on cultured cell lines, there are only a few

studies from cells *in vivo* in a normal developmental context (Armstrong et al. 2018; Pratto et al. 2021).

To gain cell-type specific insights and compare replication timing between *in vivo* and *in vitro* cells, we

compared our datasets with published replication timing data from two well-studied *Drosophila* cell lines,

Kc167 and S2 (Lubelsky et al. 2014). Clustering analysis on Euclidean distance demonstrated that the

replication timing profile of GSC-like cells is distinct from the other three cell types, while the two cell

lines cluster together (Figure 5A).

To facilitate cross-cell-type comparisons, we standardized replication timing along the reference

genome to have unit variance, yielding RT z-scores. We next categorized the genome into 12

chromosomal domains with their mean RT z-scores: two major autosomal arms and their pericentromeric

regions, the 4th, X, and Y chromosomes, and a gene consensus for the rDNA locus (Figure 5C). This

allowed us to characterize negatively and positively correlated cell type profiles (Figure 5B).

Interestingly, among the four cell types, GSC-like and Kc167 cells show the strongest correlation in their

chromosomal region RT z-score profiles (Figure 5B). This is intriguing because Kc167 cells are female

(XX karyotype) (Cherbas and Gong 2014). Similarly, CySC-like and S2 cells display positively

correlated RT z-scores, likely due to their shared somatic identity and male (XY) karyotype.

461   We additionally summarized the chromosomal region RT z-scores by their arithmetic mean

(Figure 5C). These summarized z-scores, relative to the combined dataset mean, indicate how each

genomic region in each cell type deviates from the dataset's average (Figure 5C). While chromosomal

arms display no overall trends, this method identified earlier replication timing in GSC-like cells for the

pericentromeric region of Chromosome 2L (Early-Mid), the 4th chromosome (Early), and the rDNA locus

(Early) (Figure 5C). Although replication timing for the X chromosome was found to be Early-Mid and

the Y chromosome to be Late-Mid in both GSC-like and CySC-like cells (Supplemental Table 5), the z-

scores revealed more genomic regions on both sex chromosomes that replicate earlier in CySC-like cells

(Figure 5C).

470   Pairwise comparisons of replication timing profiles across the four cell types identified genomic

471   windows with distinct replication timing. As shown above, we quantified the total size (kb) of earlier-

472   replicating regions and mapped their genomic locations by cell type. The chromosome arms of the 2nd and

473   3rd chromosomes show minimal differences in the amount or location of earlier-replicating regions across

474   cell types (Figure 5D, 5E, S5A, S5B). Thus, while small differences in replication timing may be present

475   along the chromosome arms, there are no apparent large-scale cell-specific differences.

476   We next focused on regions where the mean RT z-score suggests earlier replication in GSC-like

cells, such as the pericentromeric region of chromosome 2L and the 4th. In both cases, the total genomic

size of earlier replicating regions is greater in GSC-like cells than in other cell types (Figure 5F, 5G, S5C,

S5D, Supplemental Table 6). The pericentromeric region does not exhibit specific locations with

significantly different replication timing; rather, the entire region displays earlier replication in GSC-like

cells (Figure 5F). In contrast, the 4th chromosome contains three distinct regions with comparatively

earlier replication timing in GSC-like cells (Figure 5G, S5D).

The Y chromosome generally replicates late in S-phase across all three male cell types (Figure

5H). However, CySC-like cells show a relatively earlier replication timing profile, as reflected by their

mean RT z-score (Figure 5C). Indeed, the total genomic size of earlier-replicating regions is larger in both

CySC-like and S2 cells compared to GSC-like cells, while CySC-like and S2 cells show similar values

(Figure 5H, Supplemental Table 6). Unlike the 4th chromosome, replication timing for the Y chromosome

does not reveal any consistent earlier-replicating regions. However, a few specific loci show dramatically

different replication timing when comparing GSC-like to CySC-like cells, which are subject for

subsequent analyses (Figure 5H).

Finally, when comparing male cells (GSC-like, CySC-like, or S2) to female Kc167 cells, the X

chromosome consistently replicates earlier in the male cell, whereas the average replication timing of the

X chromosome was remarkably similar among male cell types (all with a summary RT value of $0.48 \pm$

0.01) (Figure 5I, S5E, Supplemental Table 5). This predominance of early-replication of the X

chromosome in male cells likely reflects the accessible chromatin environment that facilitates male-

specific X chromosome dosage compensation (Urban et al. 2017). Interestingly, early X chromosome

replication is preserved in GSC-like cells, despite the absence of dosage compensation in this cell type

(Figure 2D) (Meiklejohn et al. 2011). Our scRNA-seq further supports this note, showing no evidence of

X-linked gene dosage compensation in GSC-like cells or primary spermatocytes, based on the X-to-

autosome (X:A) transcript abundance ratios (Figure S5F). Overall, our analysis identifies key genomic

regions with cell type-specific replication timing differences, including heterochromatic pericentromeric

regions and the 4th, X, and Y chromosomes, suggesting distinct functional requirements for these domains

across different cell types.

Figure 5: GSC-like cells have a distinct replication timing program from CySC-like and cultured

***Drosophila* cells**

A: Hierarchical comparison of replication timing indicates that the GSC-like cell replication program is

dissimilar to the other three replication programs. On the y-axis, tree branches are shown at the root mean

squared z-score differences of all genomic windows (Euclidean distance), and cell-cell distances at each

tree branch are combined using the average method.

B: Replication timing (RT) z-scores were determined by standardizing variance at each window on the

genome, then averaged across 11 chromosomal regions and scored at the ribosomal DNA (rDNA) locus,

yielding cell-type profiles with a dynamic Pearson correlation. In terms of these shifts in timing of distinct

chromatin locations, the GSC-like and Kc167 replication programs share significant similarities (positive

correlation), as to a lesser extent do the programs of the CySC-like and S2 cells.

C: The mean replication timing z-score for 11 defined chromosomal regions, and the z-score of the rDNA

unit replication timing, indicate how this summary of the genome hierarchically explains the cell types'

epigenomes.

D: Pairwise comparison of replication timing differences for Chromosome 2, where domains (reaching a

size at least 20 kb) are evaluated against the null hypothesis of having equal replication timing. Shown is

the location and identification of regions that are replicating earlier in the indicated comparison.

E: Total genomic size of pairwise comparisons for total amount of the genome replicating earlier in a

specific cell type on the left and right arms of Chromosome 2.

F: Replication timing line plots for each cell type within the pericentromeric region of Chromosome 2

demonstrates the locations where the GSC-like cells replicate early in comparison to the other cell types.

A quantification of the total genomic size where GSC-like cells replicate earlier is presented on the right.

G: Compared to the other cell types, the 4th chromosome has more genomic regions that replicate earlier

in GSC-like cells. Three of these genomic windows are consistent when comparing to the other three cell

types and marked with an arrowhead.

H: Comparison of replication timing between male cell types for the Y chromosome shows the generally

late replication timing of this chromosome.

I: Compared to female Kc cells, all male cells have a greater total genomic size of earlier replicating DNA

on the X chromosome. These early-replicating domains span the entirety of the X chromosome.

Cell-type-specific replication timing correlates with histone modification patterns

The temporal order of genome duplication in eukaryotic cells is intricately linked to chromatin

structure and gene expression, both of which are cell-type-specific (Rhind and Gilbert 2013). To

investigate this relationship, we integrated our replication timing data with the cell-type-specific histone

modification profiles generated in this study. Additionally, we reanalyzed published Repli-seq and ChIP-

chip data from Kc167 and S2 cells to compare those *in vitro* datasets with our *in vivo* results (Kharchenko

et al. 2011; Lubelsky et al. 2014).

Consistent with previous findings in Kc167 and S2 cells (Eaton et al. 2011), H3K4me3 is

enriched at early replicating regions, coinciding with genes that have the highest expression levels (Figure

6A-B, S6A-C). Accordingly, elevated H3K4me3 is present at the TSSs of genes located in the early-

replicating fraction in both GSC-like and CySC-like cells (Figure S6E-F). In contrast, H3K9me3 is found

in gene-poor and late-replicating regions across all cell types (Figure 6A-B, S6A-B, S6D).

On the other hand, H3K27me3 displays distinct enrichment patterns at different S-phase stages

across cell types. In CySC-like cells, H3K27me3 is present throughout early and early-mid S-phase

(Figure 6B-C), overlapping with H3K4me3, and is enriched at TSSs of genes replicating in these stages

(Figure S6F). Notably, this H3K27me3 pattern is distinct from the other three cell types, further

supporting the observation that there is a unique H3K27me3 chromatin signature in CySC-like cells. In

contrast, H3K27me3 is predominantly enriched during mid S-phase in GSC-like, Kc167, and S2 cells

(Figure 6A, 6C, S6A-B). Consistently, in GSC-like cells, H3K27me3 is most enriched at TSSs of genes

replicated during early-mid S-phase (Figure S6E).

Our replication timing analysis revealed cell-type-specific timing regimes for pericentromeric

heterochromatin on Chromosome 2L and globally for the 4th, X, and Y chromosomes (Figure 5). We next

tested whether these regions have corresponding differences in chromatin landscapes. To compare histone

modification differences across genomic regions between GSC-like and CySC-like cells, we defined a

given locus as having cell-type-specific histone modification enrichment if its L_2FE was >0.2 in one cell

type and <-0.2 in the other. This analysis revealed strong overall correlations, suggesting broadly similar

histone modification landscapes (Figure S6G). However, distinct GSC- or CySC-enriched histone

modification regimes were also identified (Figure 6D, S6G, green and purple boxes). To quantify cell-

type-specific chromatin features, we calculated the percentage of specific genomic regions enriched with

each histone modification (Figure 6D). For example, 7.4% of the pericentromeric region of Chromosome

2L in GSC-like cells is enriched for H3K4me3, compared to only 3.2% in CySC-like cells (Figure 6D,

Supplemental Table 7), aligning with its earlier replication timing in GSC-like cells (Figure 5C). In

contrast, the 4th chromosome in GSC-like cells shows almost no specific enrichment of H3K4me3 or

H3K27me3 (Figure 6D, Supplemental Table 7), despite its markedly early replication in this cell type. In

CySC-like cells, a greater percentage of chromatin on the X and Y chromosomes is enriched with both

H3K4me3 and H3K27me3 (Figure 6D).

We next evaluated histone modification enrichment scores at regions with distinct replication

timing to evaluate correlations between cell-type-specific replication timing and chromatin features. In

GSC-like cells, earlier replicating regions in Chr2L pericentromeric heterochromatin displayed higher

H3K4me3 enrichment than in CySC-like cells (Figure 6E, Supplemental Table 5). Interestingly, regions

on the 4th chromosome that replicate earlier in GSC-like cells do not display a similar increase in

H3K4me3 L$_2$FE values when compared with CySC-like cells (Figure 6F, Supplemental Table 5),

suggesting that the early replication of this chromosome may not be linked to a chromatin mark like

H3K4me3.

In CySCs, the X and Y chromosomes replicate earlier (Figure 5C), and their earlier-replicating

regions show higher levels of H3K4me3 and H3K27me3 compared to those in GSC-like cells (Figures

6G-H, Supplemental Table 5). A similar observation was made for regions on the X and Y with earlier-

replication in GSC-like cells (Figure S6H, S6I, Supplemental Table 5), indicating a chromosome- and

cell-type-specific relationship between replication timing and histone modifications. In summary, this

integrative analysis reveals a relationship between cell type- and chromosome-specific chromatin

landscapes and DNA replication programs in *Drosophila* testis stem cells.

Figure 6: Cell-specific replication timing regimes correlate with cell-specific histone enrichment

A: For GSC-like cells, the Log_2 Fold Enrichment (L_2FE) values for H3K4me3, H3K27me3, and

H3K9me3 are shown for genomic locations ordered from early to late by their replication timing value.

The expression level for genes (categorized and colored by their CPM group as in Figure 3) is also shown

indicating genes with the highest expression are replicated earlier in S-phase.

B: The L$_2$FE values for H3K4me3, H3K27me3, and H3K9me3 are shown for CySC-like cells within

genomic locations ordered by their replication timing (from early to late). Gene expression level

(categorized and colored by CPM group) is also shown indicating genes with the highest expression are

replicated earlier in S-phase.

C: The enrichment levels of H3K27me3 are plotted according to replication timing for GSC-like, CySC-

like, Kc167, and S2 cells, demonstrating increased H3K27me3 enrichment at regions that replicate early

in CySC-like cells compared with the other three cell types.

D: The calculated percent of chromatin within in each indicated chromosomal domain that is categorized

as enriched in either GSC-like or CySC-like cells. Cell-specific enriched regions are considered as having

L$_2$FE values >0.2 in one cell type and <-0.2 in the other.

E-H: Box and whisker plots of L$_2$FE for histone modifications in GSC-like (green) and CySC-like

(magenta) cells on the indicated chromosomes. The values here are a subset of enrichment scores found in

genome regions that replicate earlier in the indicated cell type. The '*' represents statistical significance

as measured by a T-test (Supplemental Table 5).

Selected features within differentially replicating regions in germline and somatic lineages

To explore the relationship between cell-type-specific replication timing and gene expression, we

assessed gene-specific replication timing and expression differences between GSC-like and CySC-like

cells within regions identified as differentially replicating. In the pericentromeric region of Chromosome

2L, several differentially expressed genes, such as *Marf1*, *mir-2490*, and *CR46253*, replicate earlier in

GSC-like cells than in CySC-like cells (Figure 7A-B). While *Marf1* represses *nanos* expression and

promotes meiotic progression during oogenesis in the female germline (Kawaguchi et al. 2020), the

functions of *Marf1*, *mir-2490,* and *CR46253* in the male germline remain unknown. Notably, the genomic

loci for these regulatory RNAs are associated with Orc2 binding sites, suggesting potential replication

origins within this region (Figure 7B). These observed differences in replication timing between GSC-like

and CySC-like cells may reflect cell-type-specific origin usage that could arise from transcriptional

differences within this region.

Extending beyond Chromosome 2L, the X chromosome also exhibits distinct replication timing

and histone modification enrichment in a cell-type-specific manner. In male cells, the X chromosome

generally replicates early, with CySC-like cells displaying higher H3K4me3 enrichment (Figure 6D). The

correlation between early replicating regions and active histone modification enrichment further supports

the connection between chromatin state and replication timing. Categorizing X-linked genes by cell-type-

specific replication timing revealed a strong alignment between earlier replication and higher expression

in the corresponding cell type (Figure 7C-D). Notably, GSC-like cells showed more non-coding genes in

early-replicating regions, suggesting a potential regulatory role for non-coding RNAs in this cell type

(Figure 7E-F).

Similarly, distinct replication patterns are also observed on the 4th chromosome. Several loci on

the 4th chromosome replicate earlier in GSC-like cells across all pair-wise comparisons (Figure 5G). One

64kb domain contains six tandem genes that synchronously replicate early (Figure 7G), clustering in the

Early GSC, Late CySC quadrant (Figure 7H). This region has five protein-coding genes and one

uncharacterized long non-coding RNA. This region is also associated with an Orc2 binding site,

suggesting cell-type-specific origin usage (Figure 7G).

The Y chromosome also follows distinct replication timing patterns, with certain genes exhibiting

early replication in a cell-type-specific manner despite its largely late-replicating nature. Among its 16

annotated protein-coding genes, functional data on these genes remain limited. For example, the *CCY*

gene replicates early in CySC-like cells (Figure 7I) and is essential for sperm individualization during late

spermiogenesis, though its role in somatic gonadal cells remains unknown (Hafezi et al. 2020; Zhang et

al. 2020). The presence of these genes in cell-type-specific early-replicating regions suggests their

unexplored roles within the somatic lineage.

Taken together, these findings reveal a broader pattern linking replication timing, chromatin state,

and cell identity. In summary, our replication timing data aligns with the cell-type-specific chromatin

landscape, highlighting distinct regulatory regimes for the X, Y, and 4th chromosomes in the soma *versus*

germline. A broader pattern emerges: regions that are typically heterochromatic in differentiated cells

replicate earlier in GSC-like cells. This is reminiscent of findings in *Drosophila* female GSCs and

cultured mouse embryonic stem cells, which also exhibit reduced heterochromatic marks compared to

differentiated cells (Pang et al. 2023; Rausch et al. 2020). Thus, the male germline provides a valuable

system to study gene expression, chromatin regulation, and DNA replication in endogenous adult stem

cell systems of a multicellular organism.

Figure 7: Selected genomic features within differentially replicating regions

A: Scatterplot of the GSC-like (X-axis) and CySC-like (Y-axis) replication timing values for genes

located within the pericentromeric region of chromosome 2L. Each data point represents a gene, where

each gene is colored by its Log$_2$ fold change value calculated by differential gene expression analysis of

our scRNA-seq (Supplemental Table 2).

B: A genome-browser image of the pericentromeric region of chromosome 2L. In green are the

replication timing tracks for GSC-like cells, where the replication timing tracks for CySC-like cells are in

magenta. Shown highlighted are the genes found to have differential replication timing and gene

expression in GSC-like cells. Also indicated is the location of Orc2 binding sites, which represent

putative origins of replication.

C-D: Scatterplots of the GSC-like (X-axis) and CySC-like (Y-axis) replication timing values for genes

located on the X chromosome, separated by whether they replicate earlier in GSC-like or CySC-like cells.

Each data point represents a gene, where each gene is colored by its Log$_2$ fold change value which is

calculated using differential gene expression analysis of our scRNA-seq (Supplemental Table 2).

E-F: Shown is the proportion of gene types that replicate earlier in GSC-like or CySC-like cells. The

majority are protein-coding genes, where the next largest gene category is long non-coding RNAs.

G: A genome-browser image of the 4th chromosome with one 64kb region highlighted that is earlier

replicating in GSC-like cells. The replication timing tracks for GSC-like cells are in green and the

replication timing tracks for CySC-like are magenta. Shown is the location of six tandem genes residing

in this earlier replicating domain, including a non-coding RNA and Orc2 binding site.

H: Scatterplot of the GSC-like (X-axis) and CySC-like (Y-axis) replication timing values for genes

located on the 4th chromosome. Each data point represents a gene. Genes present within the 64kb region

cluster together as earlier replicating in GSC-like cells.

I: Scatterplot of the GSC-like (X-axis) and CySC-like (Y-axis) replication timing values for genes

located on the Y chromosome. Each data point represents a gene. Genes that replicate earlier in CySC-

like cells with potential roles in male fertility are indicated as marked.

DISCUSSION

Understanding the mechanisms underlying cell fate specification and fate transitions is essential

to developmental and stem cell biology. In this study, we integrated transcriptional profiling, chromatin

landscape analysis, and one of the first *in vivo* replication timing studies in adult stem cells to identify

both shared and distinct regulatory mechanisms of *Drosophila* male germline and somatic cyst stem cells.

We further compared our *in vivo* datasets with *in vitro* cultured *Drosophila* cell lines. In this way, we

uncovered stem cell-type-specific differences in genomic and epigenomic features.

Our transcriptional profiling highlights a fundamental regulatory dichotomy between GSC-like

and CySC-like cells. First, CySC-like cells rely on intercellular communication, with many highly

expressed genes associated with signaling pathways that coordinate germline-soma interactions (Vidaurre

and Chen 2021; Papagiannouli 2014). Second, GSC-like cells likely have a greater focus on regulating the

chromatin landscape, with an overrepresentation of DNA replication and chromatin-modifying factors.

This difference aligns with the well-established roles of intercellular signaling in coordinating GSC and

CySC identity and function. While intercellular communication appears an essential function for the

somatic lineage, the strong enrichment of chromatin factors in GSCs suggests that chromatin regulation

plays a more dominant role in regulating germline stem cell identity and activity.

Cell-type-specific heterochromatin replication timing

Our study reinforces the well-established relationship between chromatin features and replication

timing, where transcriptionally active euchromatic regions replicate early and transcriptionally inactive

heterochromatic regions replicate late. However, by comparing these dynamics between two distinct adult

stem cell populations *in vivo*, we find stem cell-type-specific differences. Notably, we found that

heterochromatic domains have locations that replicate earlier in GSC-like cells compared to CySC-like

and cultured cells, suggesting fundamental differences in heterochromatin regulation between germline

and somatic lineages.

A notable distinction between GSC-like and CySC-like cells is the abundance and broad

distribution of H3K27me3, a facultative heterochromatin mark established by the Polycomb-complex that

is typically associated with gene silencing and cell identity maintenance (Wiles and Selker 2016). In

CySC-like cells, H3K27me3 enrichment displayed a canonical pattern, where lower expressed genes

exhibited higher levels of this mark. It is possible that the extensive presence of H3K27me3 in CySCs

serves to restrict gene expression and reinforce the cyst cell fate. This may reflect their unique division

pattern - a single asymmetric cell division produces a self-renewed CySC daughter and a differentiating

cyst cell (CC) daughter. Along with another CC and without further cell division, the two CCs forms a

unit to support the differentiating germline for the duration of spermatogenesis, which takes

approximately 10 days at 25°C (Fabian and Brill 2012; Zoller and Schulz 2012). In this way, the

restriction of H3K27me3 reinforces somatic cyst cell identity and reflects an early commitment to a

terminal cell fate in this lineage.

In the female *Drosophila* germline lineage, constitutive pericentromeric heterochromatin

formation begins in the germline cyst progeny of GSCs, while Polycomb-mediated gene repression

suppresses male germline and somatic lineage genes (Pang et al. 2023). Further genomic and genetic

studies in the female germline revealed a surprisingly open chromatin environment in GSCs (Deluca et al.

2020). In female GSCs, there is a non-canonical H3K27me3 distribution, whereby this modification is

present in low amounts on active chromatin as well as on transcriptionally inactive loci (Deluca et al.

2020). We observe a similar trend in male GSCs whereby there is a roughly equivalent amount of

H3K27me3 across all gene categories regardless of their expression levels, suggesting that low, non-gene-

specific H3K27me3 may be an epigenetic feature of undifferentiated cells (Deluca et al. 2020).

Our finding that pericentromeric heterochromatin replicates early in GSCs aligns with published

studies in mouse embryonic stem cells, which demonstrate that pericentromeric heterochromatin shifts

from early to late replicating upon differentiation (Rausch et al. 2020). An additional key insight from that

work was the significantly higher proportion of unidirectional replication forks in mouse embryonic stem

cells (around 13%) compared to differentiated human cell lines (around 7%) (Rausch et al. 2020).

Similarly, a notable 35% of replication forks are unidirectional in the *Drosophila* germline compared to

~17% in somatic cells (Wooten et al. 2019). This trend of higher unidirectional fork usage in less

differentiated states appears to be consistent across species.

In addition, activated origins in mouse embryonic stem cells are spaced at half the distance of that

in somatic cells, indicating that stem cells activate twice as many origins of replication (Rausch et al.

2020). Although future studies in *Drosophila* germline stem cells are needed to determine whether the

higher incidence of unidirectional replication forks corresponds to reduced inter-origin distances, the

elevated expression of DNA replication-related genes supports a model of increased replication demand

in these cells. Furthermore, globally reduced H3K27me3 may create a permissive chromatin environment

for increased unidirectional replication forks and origin activation. This supports the idea that unique

replication dynamics may underlie specialized genome regulation in stem cells. These features may

reflect developmental constraints on cell fate transitions or represent lineage-specific adaptations.

Notably, our observation of early replication at the ribosomal DNA (rDNA) locus, which is well-

established to replicate unidirectionally (Gerber et al. 1997), supports this model.

In parallel with these replication features, the *Drosophila* germline exhibits a striking pattern of

histone inheritance: old histones, synthesized in the previous cell cycle, are preferentially incorporated

onto the leading strand during DNA synthesis, while newly synthesized histones are biased toward the

lagging the strand (Wooten et al. 2019). This produces sister chromatids asymmetrically enriched with

different histone populations, which are then differentially segregated such that old-histone-enriched

sisters are retained in the self-renewing stem cell while the gonialblast inherits new-histone-enriched

sister chromatids (Tran et al. 2012). The elevated incidence of unidirectional forks may facilitate this

global histone asymmetry, enabling extended tracts of old or new histone deposition. Notably, early

unidirectional replication at the rDNA locus may serve as a key organizing feature in establishing such

genome-wide histone asymmetry in *Drosophila* GSCs. Together, these mechanisms may ensure the

faithful inheritance of epigenetic information during stem cell asymmetric cell division, by preserving

stem cell identity while allowing for flexible gene regulation in the differentiating progeny.

Recent studies in budding yeast suggest rDNA replication can influence anaphase onset, with

extended rDNA repeats potentially delaying replication to prevent premature chromosome segregation

(Kwan et al. 2023). In *Drosophila* germ cells, rDNA copy number decreases during aging, yet can be

restored in GSCs of young males in the following generation (Lu et al. 2018). The mechanism underlying

this generational recovery remains unknown. Early replication of the rDNA locus in GSC-like cells may

present a strategy for maintaining or restoring rDNA copy number for subsequent generations, which

might be less efficient if replication occurred later in S-phase. This preferential timing of rDNA

replication in stem cells may therefore serve a critical function in long-term germline and organismal

maintenance. Future studies can further clarify how this unique replication feature contributes to stem cell

genome integrity and lineage continuity.

Chromosome-specific replication timing profiles and regulatory roles for non-coding RNAs

Our work also uncovered chromosome-specific differences in histone modification enrichment

and replication timing, particularly for the X and 4th Chromosomes. Historically, the 4th chromosome is

considered as entirely heterochromatic, based on its high percentage of repetitive elements, lack of

recombination, and high levels of HP1 and H3K9me2 (Haynes et al. 2007; Riddle et al. 2008). Previous

studies in *Drosophila* suggest that the 4th chromosome largely shares chromatin features with pericentric

heterochromatin, although it also contains some euchromatic regions (Riddle et al. 2008; Haynes et al.

2007). Unexpectedly, we found this chromosome replicates earlier in GSC-like cells than in CySC-like

and other somatic cells. The biological significance of its early replication remains unclear. One

possibility is that early replication of the 4th chromosome in GSC-like cells reflects a regulatory role for

this chromosome that is specific to GSCs. Alternatively, this timing pattern may result from its similar

chromatin composition to pericentromeric heterochromatin, rather than a regulatory process. Further

studies are required to determine whether the early replication timing of the 4th chromosome in the male

GSC-like cells has biological relevance for genome stability or gene regulation.

Our work also identified regulatory non-coding RNAs enriched in genomic regions undergoing

coordinated changes in replication timing, chromatin state, and transcriptional activity, including those

within the 4th chromosome and the pericentromeric heterochromatin of Chromosome 2. Although

regulatory RNAs have historically been challenging to study, comparative analyses like ours allow for

identifying them for further functional characterization. Previous studies have shown that approximately

30% of *Drosophila* testis-specific long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) function during late spermiogenesis,

regulating nuclear condensation, sperm individualization, and other terminal differentiation processes

(Wen et al. 2016). However, their roles in early spermatogenesis, particularly in stem cells, remains

poorly understood. Notably, several non-coding RNAs located in differentially replicating regions were

also differentially expressed in GSC-like cells. It is possible that their transcription promotes an open

chromatin environment, facilitating origin recognition and early replication. Rather than acting through

their protein products, these transcripts may instead provide a mechanism to achieve the elevated origin

activation observed in stem cells. An intriguing possibility is that the inherent directionality of RNA

transcription could influence coordinated replication origin activation and directionality of fork

progression. By identifying candidate non-coding RNAs situated in regions with stem cell-specific

replication timing, our findings provide a foundation for investigating their functions in stem cell

maintenance, differentiation, and genome regulation.

Our findings reinforce our knowledge that the male X chromosome maintains a unique chromatin

environment that supports its well-established role in dosage compensation in somatic cells (Samata and

Akhtar 2018). In CySC-like cells, the X chromosome displays signatures of open chromatin consistent

with this function, including H3K4me3 (this study), H4K16ac, and early replication (Rastelli and Kuroda

1998; Anderson et al. 2023). Interestingly, in GSC-like cells where dosage compensation is inactive, the

X chromosome still replicates early. Previous studies in male and female *Drosophila* cell lines (Clone8

and Kc cells, respectively) similarly demonstrated that the X chromosome replicates entirely during early

S-phase, even at genes enriched with H4K16ac that did not undergo gene dosage compensation

(Schwaiger et al. 2009). Based on these findings, H4K16ac was proposed to associate more with early

replication than with transcriptional activity. However, our data show that early replication persists in

male GSCs even in the absence of this mark. Together, these results suggest that replication timing of the

X chromosomes is more closely linked to chromatin accessibility than to either transcriptional output or

H4K16ac enrichment (Schwaiger et al. 2009). Our findings support a model that the X chromosome's

early replication timing in the male germline is maintained through dosage compensation-independent

mechanisms, likely involving chromatin accessibility features.

In conclusion, by integrating transcriptional, chromatin, and replication timing analyses, our data

provide a comprehensive framework for understanding the unique genomic regulation of male germline

and somatic stem cells. Altogether, our findings reveal distinct fundamental divergence in regulatory

mechanisms, including heterochromatin replication timing programs, chromosome-specific epigenetic

differences, and potentially novel roles for lncRNAs in stem cell genome organization. These findings

provide new insights into stem-cell specific genome regulation and establish a foundation for future

studies on the epigenetic and replication dynamics of *in vivo* adult stem cells.

METHODS

Fly strains husbandry

Fly stocks and crosses were maintained on standard molasses food using the Bloomington recipe, reared

at 25°C. See Supplemental Materials for a complete list of fly stocks and their sources used in this study.

For fly lines used in all genomic experiments, standard fly genetics was used to introduce the switchable

dual-tagged histone cassettes into a genetic background containing a *UAS-upd* transgene, which was

kindly provided by Dr. Stephen Dinardo (University of Pennsylvania, USA). After eclosion, male

progenies with the appropriate genotype were aged for ~2 days before dissection and sample preparation

for either scRNA-seq, ChIC-ChIP-seq, or Repli-seq. For males used in the immunostaining experiments,

young males (1-5 days old) were collected from fresh flips of the stock.

<u>Immunostaining (whole mount method)</u>

Testes from 1-5 day old adult male flies were dissected in pre-warmed Schneider's media (Gibco

#21720-024) before fixing at room temperature in 4% formaldehyde (Cell Signaling #12606) in 1X PBS

containing 0.1% TritonX-100 (PBST; Quality Biologicals #119-069-131, Fisher #BP151) for 10 minutes

with rotation. Following fixation, samples were briefly rinsed twice in PBST followed by three 5-minute

PBST washes with rotation. Primary antibodies were prepared at appropriate dilutions in 5% normal goat

serum (NGS) (Cell Signaling #5425) in PBST and the testes incubated for three nights at 4°C. See

Supplemental Materials for a complete list of all antibodies used in this study.

After incubation, the primary antibody solution was removed and two brief PBST rinses

performed. The testes were next washed three times in PBST for 5-minutes each with rotation. Secondary

antibodies were diluted 1:1000 in 5%NGS in PBST and testes were incubated for two nights, shielded

from light at 4°C with rotation. At the end of the secondary incubation, Hoechst 33342 (Invitrogen

#H3570) solution was added to secondary solution at a dilution of 1:1000, and the testes rotated for 10

minutes. Afterward, the secondary antibody solution was removed and two brief PBST washes

performed. This was followed with three 5-minute PBST washes with rotation. Testes were then mounted

on a Superfrost Plus microscope slide (Fisher #1255015) using Vectasheild PLUS Antifade mounting

media (Vector Laboratories #H-1900). Imaging was performed on a Leica Stellaris5 Confocal with

405nm and white light laser.

<u>Immunostaining (squash method)</u>

Upd-tumor testes (*nos*>Upd) were dissected in warm Schneider's media. Approximately 5-6

individual testes were transferred to a microscope slide, and excess media removed. A 10uL drop of 1X

PBS was placed over the tumors before gently rupturing each tissue. A coverslip was next placed over the

ruptured testes to squash and spread the tissue. Slides were next flash frozen in liquid nitrogen for 2

minutes. Following freezing, the coverslips were removed with a razor blade and the slides immediately

placed in a coplin jar containing pre-chilled 95% ethanol (Fisher #BP2818). The jar was incubated at -

20°C for 10minutes. Following incubation, slides were removed from the jar. Excess ethanol was wiped

from the slide and the tissue outlined with a hydrophobic pen. A 50uL drop of 1% formaldehyde in 1X

PBS with 0.1% TritonX-100 (PBST) was placed on top of the tissue and covered with parafilm. The

slides were fixed in a humid chamber for 3 minutes, after which the slides were rinsed quickly in PBST

thrice.

865   Following washes, the slides were permeabilized in a PBST/DOC (1X PBS, 0.5% TritonX-100,

866   0.5% Sodium Deoxycholate) solution for 15 minutes at room temperature with gentle rocking. This was

867   repeated once for a total of 2 washes. After the second wash, a PBST wash was performed for 10 minutes.

868   Slides were next incubated with 20uL of appropriate primary antibodies diluted in 3% BSA in

PBST (Cell Signaling #9998) overnight in a humid chamber at 4°C. The next day, slides were washed

three times, 10 minutes each in PBST. Secondary antibodies were diluted 1:1000 in 5%NGS/PBST and

incubated overnight at 4°C in a humid chamber. The following day, slides were washed three times for 5

minutes each with gentle rocking. Hoechst 33342 was added to the final wash at a concentration of

0.5ug/mL in PBST. Finally, slides were mounted in vectashield and imaged on a Leica Stellaris5

Confocal with 405nm and white light laser.

Intensity quantification for GFP-tagged fusion proteins

877   The image analysis software Imaris was used to quantify the amount of GFP signal in

endogenously tagged Orc1, MCM2, and Caf1-p105 containing GSCs and CySCs. First, machine learning

was used to identify the nuclei of individual GSCs and CySCs as surfaces within the tissue. GSCs were

determined by their adjacent proximity to the stem cell niche and presence of the spectrosome, whereas

CySCs were identified using the expression of Zfh1. For each nucleus (surface), the intensity sums of

both Hoechst signal and GFP were calculated using the statistics option. To normalize GFP intensity to

DNA content for an individual nucleus, the intensity sum of GFP signal was divided by the intensity sum

of Hoechst signal. The $\log_2$ of this value was calculated and plotted, followed by a two-tailed Mann-

Whitney test in GraphPad.

<u>10X Genomics single cell RNA-sequencing</u>

Preparation of single cell solution from Upd-tumor testes for single cell RNA-sequencing

Tumor testes from either *nos>Upd, H3-GFP* or *tj>Upd, H3-GFP* were dissected in warm,

filtered Schneider's media supplemented with 10% FBS (Thermo Fisher #16140071). After collecting

~18-20 pairs, testes were transferred to ~250uL of digestion buffer (TrypLE Express, Gibco #12605-101

with 2mg/ml collagenase, Sigma #C9407). The tissues were incubated in a 37°C waterbath, with

intermittent agitation to dissociate the tissue to completion. Next, the cells were filtered first through a

40um filter (Corning #352340), followed by a 10um filter (pluriSelect, #43-10010-40). Digestion buffer

was removed after pelleting the cell suspension by centrifugation at 1,200 rpm for at least 7 minutes. The

cell pellet was washed twice in 500uL HBSS (Gibco #14170-112), before resuspending in 20uL HBSS.

Cell count and viability was obtained at this point using Trypan blue (Gibco #15250-061), before

proceeding to the 10X Genomics single cell RNA-sequencing protocol.

10X genomics sequencing

Single cell RNA-sequencing libraries were generated following the manufacturer's guidelines for

the Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3'Kit v3.1 (#1000268). Final libraries were pooled to 4nM and

sequenced on the Illumina NovaSeq sequencer, using the S1 100 cycle within the Johns Hopkins

Genomics Core.

<u>Cell-specific sequential Chromatin Immunocleavage – Chromatin Immunoprecipitation</u>

<u>(ChIC-ChIP)</u>

Prepare magnetic beads for immunoprecipitation:

The evening prior to dissection, immunoprecipitation (IP) beads were prepared for blocking. Per

desired IP, 10uL of magnetic protein-G beads (Invitrogen, #10003D) were incubated in 200uL antibody

binding buffer containing 5% BSA (10mM Tris-HCl, 1mM EDTA, pH7.5, 150mM NaCl, 0.1% TritonX-

100). The beads were rotated end-over-end overnight at 4°C.

The next morning, blocked beads were prepared for immunoprecipitation by washing the beads

twice with 300uL antibody binding buffer containing 0.05% BSA. To the washed beads, 1ug of ChIP

antibody in 200uL 0.1% BSA in antibody binding buffer was added per IP. The beads were incubated on

rotating wheel at 4°C for 6 hours while preparing tissue for dissection and chromatin extraction.

Antibodies for the ChIC and ChIP experiments can be found in Supplemental Materials.

Preparation of single cell solution from Upd-tumor testes for ChIC-ChIP-seq

Approximately 18-20 tumor testes from either *nos>Upd, H3-GFP* or *tj>Upd, H3-GFP* were

dissected and dissociated as outlined for single cell RNA-sequencing. However, instead of resuspending

the cell pellet in HBSS following removal of digestion buffer, cells to be used for ChIC were resuspended

in 400uL of Schneider's media with FBS. To this, 16% formaldehyde (Thermo #28906) was added at

1/15 the total volume to obtain a 1% final concentration. The cells were fixed by end-over-end rotation

for 5 minutes at room temperature. The fixation reaction was quenched by the addition of 1/10 volume of

1.25M glycine and additional incubation for 5 minutes. Following this, the cells were pelleted by

centrifugation for 7 minutes at 1,320rpm at 4°C. Afterward, the fix solution was removed and the cell

pellet washed with 500uL cold, sterile 1X PBS. The 1X PBS wash was repeated once, after which all

liquid was removed. The cells were resuspended in 20uL 1X PBS to obtain a cell count.

Preparation of ProteinA-MNase-Antibody complex and chromatin

For a single IP, 4uL antibody binding buffer, 1uL anti-GFP antibody, and 3uL ProteinA (PA)-

MNase were prepared. The cocktail was incubated on ice for 30 minutes. Meanwhile, chromatin from

formaldehyde fixed cells was prepared for binding by the PA-MNase-Ab complex by treating cells with

500uL RIPA buffer (10mM Tris-HCl, 1mM EDTA, 150mM NaCl, 0.2% SDS, 0.1% Sodium

Deoxycholate, 1% TritonX-100) for 10 minutes at room temperature. Following incubation, cells were

pelleted by a 5-minute centrifugation at 3,000 rpm and the RIPA was removed. The cell pellet was

washed once with 500uL antibody binding buffer, before resuspending in 100uL antibody binding buffer.

Perform PA-MNase-Ab incubation, cell washes, and prepare antibody-coupled beads

The 100uL of resuspended fixed cells were added to the microcentrifuge tube containing 8uL of

prepared PA-MNase-Ab complex. After gentle mixing, the tube was incubated on ice for 60 minutes.

Following the incubation, excess PA-MNase-Ab was removed through a series of washes. First, antibody

binding buffer was removed after spinning cells at 3,000rpm for 5 minutes at 4°C. The cell pellet was

then washed with 500uL high salt wash (10mM Tris, 1mM EDTA, 400mM NaCl, 1% TritonX-100),

incubating for 1 minute at room temperature before spinning. The high salt wash was repeated for a total

of three washes. Next, the cell pellet was washed with 200uL rinsing buffer (10mM Tris pH 7.5, 10mM

NaCl, 0.1% TritonX-100), immediately spinning down for 5 minutes. After removing the rinsing buffer,

the pellet was resuspended in 40uL RSB (20mM Tris pH 7.5, 10mM NaCl, 2mM $CaCl_2$, 0.1% TritonX-

100).

The blocked, antibody-coupled beads were washed simultaneously with the cell pellets. First,

beads were collected and unbound antibody removed. The beads were then washed a total of three times

with 500uL antibody binding buffer, rotating end-over-end for 5 minutes at 4°C. After the last wash,

beads were resuspended in 10uL of rinsing buffer per IP.

MNase digestion:

To perform the MNase digestion, the 40uL of cells in RSB were placed in a 37°C water bath for 3

minutes. Afterward, the reaction was stopped by adding 80uL of stop buffer (20mM Tris pH8, 10mM

EGTA, 20mM NaCl, 0.2% SDS). Following digestion, the insoluble chromatin was spun down at 13,000

rpm for 10 minutes at 4°C. The soluble chromatin (~120uL) was moved to a new tube, where protease

inhibitor (Cell signaling #5872) was added to final concentration of 1X. Next, 5% of the soluble

chromatin was reserved as the input fraction.

Chromatin IP, Bead preparation, and washing:

For each IP, 10uL of antibody-bound beads was added and the mixture incubated overnight at

4°C with end-over-end rotation.

The next day, the IP solution was cleared on a magnetic rack and the supernatant removed. The

protein bound beads were then washed three times by adding 500uL of low salt IP wash (20mM Tris-HCl

pH8, 150mM NaCl, 0.1% SDS, 2mM EDTA, 1% TritonX-100) to the beads and incubating at 4°C with

end-over-end rotation for 5 minutes. After the three low salt IP washes, the beads were washed once with

a high salt IP wash (20mM Tris-HCl pH8, 500mM NaCl, 0.1% SDS, 2mM EDTA, 1% TritonX-100).

Following the washes, DNA was eluted from the beads by adding 150uL of ChIP elution buffer (1% SDS,

0.1M Sodium Bicarbonate) to each IP and incubating for 30 minutes in a 65°C thermomixer with

vortexing at 1,200 rpm. After separating the beads on a magnetic rack, eluted DNA was transferred to a

clean DNA LoBind tube. At this point, 150uL ChIP elution buffer was added to the 5% input samples.

For all input and IP samples, fixed crosslinks were reversed by adding 5M NaCl (final 187mM NaCl) and

40ug Proteinase K (NEB #P8107S) and incubating overnight at 65°C.

Purify immunoprecipitated DNA and Input samples:

The DNA from Input and IP samples was purified using a Qiagen MinElute Reaction Cleanup Kit

(Qiagen #28204) with the following modification. First, 5 volumes of ERC (750uL) were added to each

sample, mixed well, and transferred to a Qiagen MinElute spin column. The sample was centrifuged at

13,000 rpm for 1 min, and flow through discarded. Next, the column was washed with 700uL PE and

centrifuged once again. After transferring the column to a new DNA LoBind tube, 10uL 10mM Tris,

pH8.0 was added to the spin column. Following a 1 minute room temperature incubation, the sample was

eluted by spinning at 13,000 rpm for 1 minute. Eluted DNA was quantified using the Qubit dsDNA high

sensitivity kit (Thermo #Q33231) before proceeding to library preparation using the instructions included

in NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library Prep Kit for Ilumina (NEB #7645). Finalized libraries were sequenced

on a NovaSeq sequencer at the National Institutes of Health.

Nuclei isolation, sorting, and DNA purification for Repli-seq

Tumor testes from either *nos>Upd, H3-GFP* or *tj>Upd, H3-GFP* were dissected in warm,

filtered Schneider's media, to obtain 100-200 total pairs. For downstream sample preparation, only

tumors shaped like a large ball were collected. The testes were then incubated with rotation for 15

minutes in Schneider's media containing 100uM BrdU.

After the BrdU incubation, the Schneiders' media was removed, and the testes were washed once

with 1X PBS. Nuclei isolation was performed following a published protocol, with experimental

considerations (McLaughlin et al. 2022). The dissected testes were first resuspended in 1mL

homogenization buffer (250mM Sucrose, 10mM 1M Tris, pH 8.0, 25mM KCl, 5mM $MgCl_2$, 0.1% Triton

X-100, and freshly added 1X protease inhibitors (Cell signaling #5872) and 0.1mM DTT – omit RNase

Inhibitors) and transferred to a 1mL dounce homogenizer. The tissues were dissociated with 20 strokes of

the loose pestle (A), followed by 40 strokes of the tight pestle (B) before pipetting gently ~20 times with

wide bore tips. The nuclei were next filtered through a 40um cell strainer, (Corning #352340), followed

by a 10um filter (pluriSelect, #43-10010-40) into a fresh tube. The nuclei were then spun down at 1,000xg

for 10 minutes at 4°C to remove the homogenization buffer. Following pelleting, nuclei were resuspended

in 400uL resuspension buffer (1X PBS, 0.5%BSA), containing final concentrations of 250ug/mL RNaseA

(NEB #T3018L) and 50 ug/mL propidium iodide (Sigma #P4864). The nuclei were incubated on ice, in

the dark for at least 30 minutes before proceeding to the cell sorter.

Nuclei were sorted on a MoFlo XDP cell sorter (Beckman Coulter) by gating for GFP+ cells and

dividing S-phase cells into 4 equal fractions corresponding to the Early, Early-Mid, Late-Mid and Late S-

phase timepoints. Total number and volume of sorted nuclei was noted.

Following the sort, components of SDS-PK were added individually to keep volume low,

allowing for accurate pipetting of 10,000-20,000 nuclei per fraction (SDS-PK: 50mM Tris-HCl pH8,

10mM EDTA, 1M NaCl, 0.5% SDS, 0.2mg/mL proteinase K). Samples were incubated at 56°C for 2

hours. Afterward, nuclei were divided into separate tubes containing ~10,000 nuclei each. The DNA from

~10,000 nuclei was then purified following the protocol for cell suspensions and proteinase K digested

samples from the Zymo Quick DNA MicroPrep kit (Zymo #D3021). Purified DNA was stored at -20°C.

1018

Repli-sequencing

Fragmentation and library construction:

The preparation of samples for Repli-seq mostly followed published protocols, with some

modifications(Marchal et al. 2018). For each of the four S-phase fractions, two tubes of 10,000 nuclei

were processed as technical replicates for Repli-seq. After thawing, the volume of DNA was brought to

100uL with UltraPure water (UPW, Invitrogen, #10977-015) and samples transferred to Diagenode

0.5mL microtubes for the Bioruptor Plus (Diagenode #C30010013). The DNA was then sonicated in a

cold waterbath for 1 hour on low intensity (30sec on, 90 sec off), checking every 15 minutes for ice level.

The sheared DNA was then concentrated to 15uL of UPW using the DNA Clean & Concentrator-5 kit

(Zymo Research #D4003) following the instructions for DNA fragments.

The concentrated DNA was then brought to a volume of 50uL with UPW prior to starting library

construction using the NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (NEB #7645). The NEBNext

End Prep (step 1) and Adapter Ligation (step 2), were performed following the kit instructions. After

incubation with the USER enzyme, the DNA was purified again using the DNA Clean and Concentrator-5

kit following the instructions for DNA fragments and eluting in 50uL UPW.

1034

Immunoprecipitation of BrdU containing DNA:

To the 50uL of clean adapter ligated DNA, 450uL of TE (10mM Tris pH8, 1mM EDTA) was

added. The DNA was then denatured by heating at 95°C for 5 minutes, followed by cooling on ice for 2

minutes. The denatured DNA was then transferred to a tube prepared with 60uL 10X IP buffer (100mM

Sodium Phosphate, pH 7, 1.4M NaCl, 0.5% TritonX-100). To this, 40uL of 12.5ug/mL anti-BrdU

antibody (BD Biosciences #555627) was added and the sample rocked at room temperature for 20

minutes. Next, 20ug of rabbit anti-mouse IgG antibody (Sigma #M7023) was added and the sample

rocked again at room temperature for 20 minutes. Following this, tubes were centrifuged at 16,000xg for

5 minutes at 4°C to pellet the BrdU containing DNA. After removing the supernatant, the DNA pellet was

washed with 750uL pre-chilled 1X IP buffer (10mM Sodium Phosphate, pH 7, 140mM NaCl, 0.05%

TritonX-100). Centrifugation was repeated and the supernatant removed. The DNA pellet was then

resuspended in 200uL digestion buffer containing 0.25mg/mL proteinase K (50mM Tris-HCl, 10mM

EDTA, 0.5% SDS) and incubated overnight at 37°C in an air incubator. The next day, 1.25uL of

20mg/mL proteinase K was added to each tube before incubating for 60 minutes at 56°C. Next, the

immunoprecipitated DNA was purified using the DNA Clean & Concentrator-5 kit following the

instructions for DNA fragments and eluting in 16uL UPW.

1051

Measuring BrdU-IP efficiency and library amplification:

Using a serial dilution of known DNA concentrations, the amount of BrdU immunoprecipitated

DNA was quantified using a standard qPCR protocol with included melt curve. The calculated total

amount of adapter ligated DNA was then used to determine the number of PCR cycles required for library

amplification. PCR enrichment of DNA was performed following the instructions for the NEBNext Ultra

II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina. The final libraries were pooled to 4nM and sequenced on a

NovaSeq X Plus.

1059

Bioinformatics

Our genomic sources for all analyses are: the FlyBase dm6 chromosomes (release 6.47) (Öztürk-

Çolak et al. 2024); the sequence for H3-GFP added to the genome of the flies of both genotypes; an

interval of FlyBase chromosome 2L which serves as our reference for the histone unit tandem repeat;

and/or the FlyBase transposon sequence set (*Drosophila* genus). Single-cell samples are quantified using

FlyBase release 6.47, concatenated with the H3-GFP sequence, and using cellranger mkref and cellranger

count (version 7.0.0). ChIC-seq and Repli-Seq samples use FlyBase release 6.47, passed to the bowtie2-

build command. However, repetitive sequences analysis proceeds differently, using RepeatMasker

(version 4.1.6) to find occurrences of the *Drosophila* transposons, or the histone repeat unit, on the

chromosomes, masking occurrences. Reads were mapped using Bowtie 2 (version 2.4.5). In the masked-

mapped ChIC-seq samples, n = 119 transposons, as well as each of the histone genes, were covered by

uniquely-mapped fragments (MAPQ >= 20).

Regions of interest in the dm6 reference are as follows. For rDNA, we created a window that

bounds the genes with a Feature Type of rRNA gene in Flybase, with pseudogenes generally falling

outside of this window, then rounded the size of the window to 1 significant figure (rDNA:

36901..76900). For chromosome 2 and 3, some of the centromere-adjacent chromatin was previously

classified as classic pericentric heterochromatin, with coverage becoming sparse towards the centromere

(Filion et al. 2010). We extended the closest-to-centromere segments of heterochromatin to the Crick end

of the dm6 2L and 3L, and to the Watson end of the dm6 2R and 3R, calling these regions: 2LC, 2RC,

3LC, 3RC. Where these regions are plotted, the mostly euchromatic chromosome arms not in this region

have their values given as the 2L, 2R, 3L, and 3R values.

1081

Single-cell RNA-seq analysis

The single-cell RNA-seq experiment quantifies the GSC- and CySC-like cell transcriptomes and

supports our hypothesis that these tumor cell populations are largely homogenous. Analysis is

downstream of Cell Ranger feature matrix quantification (v7.0.0) with default parameters. First, we

reported Log Normalized gene expression, which rescales the sum of transcripts from the cell's total UMI

counts to a constant (Seurat's default parameter of 10,000) and applies shifted logarithm (Ahlmann-Eltze

and Huber 2023). On the other hand, cells are plotted (in UMAP) and identified (as clusters) using

Seurat's SCTransform integrated assay, where the cell embedding is computed from residuals from a

Negative Binomial model, followed by fitting a nonlinear model to remove much of the within-batch

effect (Hafemeister and Satija 2019; Butler et al. 2018).

Before quantifying transcripts per-cluster, we removed the following effects. To shrink a

correlation between log(percent of grand total UMIs in a particular gene) and log(gene CDS length), we

counted only the UMIs tagged as having an exonic alignment. We also limited UMIs to a particular

compatible isoform (TX) per gene to further shrink spurious alignments to full isoforms. Finally, we

identified ambient RNA contamination from sparse expression of *Nanos* in the CySC-like cluster, and

Traffic Jam and *roX* transcripts in the GSC-like cluster. Therefore, we applied decontX inference to factor

our TX matrix into real-valued nonnegative ambient RNA contamination and true expression estimate

matrices (Yang et al. 2020). However, to retain more transcripts at single-cell resolution, the figures plot

Log Normalized decontX true expression estimates computed from the original Cell Ranger feature

matrix with default parameters.

The key transcript values are drawn from a log-quantification model for secondary analyses, and

additionally (for enrichment analyses only) from a log-fold-change Negative Binomial regression model.

Log-CPM is computed via linear model on pseudobulked, then log-transformed, real-valued decontX

estimates (Ritchie et al. 2015). Log-CPM coefficients (per cluster) require a shift to be added, such that

the sum of the exponentiated coefficients is 1 million. Genes are cut at 5 CPM to reveal "on" or "off"

genes, chosen to fit a bimodal violin plot where genes start piling up at ~1 CPM, but the "on" genes

produce a mode of positively quantified genes that is between 10 and 100 CPM. On the other hand, we

did not present CPM ratios for differential gene expression. Instead, our transcriptome log-fold-change is

a Bayesian regression coefficient estimate, with heavy-tailed prior (Zhu et al. 2019). To apply the benefits

of decontX for estimating the correct log-fold-change, we added decontX's contamination score, crossed

with cell type, as covariates. Our GSC-vs-CySC coefficient DEG significance threshold is an *s*-value

(posterior two-tailed test transformed to have FDR-like power) less than 10^{-4}. DEGs are also filtered by

log effect size (L2FC) at least 1.5, producing GSC and CySC gene lists to which we apply GO term

enrichment (Thomas et al. 2022).

1116

ChIC-ChIP-seq analysis

ChIC-seq reveals nucleosome occupancy, H3K4me3 enrichment, H3K27me3 enrichment, and

H3K9me3 enrichment, in the bulk GSC-like cell and CySC-like cell genomic DNA libraries. In our

ChIC-seq regression, we estimate the intercept (H3 input log-enrichment), control vs treatment (log-fold

change in the mark antibody ChIP treatment), and batch effect: depending on the biological library that

the input and IP come from, there is a random batch effect added to the intercept. This design was chosen

as each experiment has replicates, and the replicate input and ChIP are paired. The variable is the count of

fragments tested against a fixed-sized sliding window on the reference.

ChIC-seq analysis proceeds to produce fine versions of the H3 control and treatment

quantification tracks (20 bp step), as well as broad H3 control and treatment quantifications (100 bp step)

with Negative Binomial distribution parameter estimate (Ahlmann-Eltze and Huber 2021). Monosomes

are visible as local maxima, producing the finished ChIC-seq tracks, after estimating feature density on

the Negative Binomial estimates: smoothing using a Gaussian kernel with sigma = 40 bp (Boyle et al.

2008). The log-fold enrichment of the IP "F-Seq" (Gaussian) track, relative to the H3 input track, reveals

antibody binding to the monosome, with appropriate (20 bp) resolution to reveal the monosome midpoint

location.

1133

Repli-seq analysis

Repli-seq identifies genomic loci that are enriched in a certain interval of S-phase (where the

interval of S-phase is marked by molecular mass of DNA). Reading our ChIC-seq and Repli-seq ingestion

of fragments, in all cases, we mark the single-end 100 bp read or the properly paired alignment (up to 500

bp wide) at a 1 bp midpoint location. We counted Repli-seq fragments assigned to 1 kb bins with 1 kb

step (non-overlapping), and found that consecutive bins were reasonably variable and could function as

internal replicates of largely different BrdU-labeled DNA molecules (individual observations for our

regression). In a 3 kb window, we used the observations of 3 bins of DNA in either 6 or 8 samples to infer

a Bayesian logistic regression parameter (logit timing score), with a novel, vector-valued and Beta

function-based link function. We applied a minimum-mean-square-error estimator (posterior expected

value) which naturally shrinks towards zero (mean timing; prior expected value) in the case of poor

coverage or poor model fit.

The Bayesian Repli-seq leads to a principled argument to reject the null hypothesis of a static

replication regime. The null hypothesis predicts a zero between-cell-type effect on the timing parameter.

A full and reduced model for HTS data are designed to produce a likelihood ratio, which allows us to

reject the null hypothesis because the additional model complexity significantly enhances the model fit

(Love et al. 2014). In our case, we apply numerical integration to the full and reduced model likelihoods,

summarized as a Bayes factor, which is a posterior odds ratio for the alternative hypothesis. We chose to

reject the null hypothesis for differentially timed loci of size at minimum 20 kb. Then, we summarized the

cell-type effect for the different track values within the locus, calling one of the cell types as earlier than

the other.

We analyzed Repli-seq using a 3 kb window, which is several times smaller than the recognizable

replication regimes. The Repli-seq estimator is smoothed using LOESS to reveal peaks and valleys of

early or late replication. The smooth Repli-seq permits z-scoring at every location on the window, to

suggest dynamic timing in chromosomal regions using more continuous rather than discrete analysis. We

identified 12 regions or loci described in the supplement, including the autosomal pericentric

heterochromatin established from modENCODE epigenomics. As these are the regions that had different

replication prioritization in four cell types (GSC-like, CySC-like, Kc167, and S2), the z-scores can be

zero-centered and weighted (multiplied) so that the contribution to a Pearson R^2 is normalized to the

number of observations in the region or locus (reciprocal). We simplified the presentation to use a vector

of 12 mean timings, for the 4 cell types.

1165

DATA ACCESS

All raw and processed sequencing data generated in this study have been submitted to the NCBI

Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO; https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/) under accession numbers:

scRNA-seq, GSE289063 Reviewer token: olcnywycrtmvtkb

ChIC-seq, GSE290500 Reviewer token: kfwhoumenledrgf

Repli-seq, GSE291715 Reviewer token: qfczymekbjidax

Other datasets used in this study are available under accession numbers:

Repli-seq Kc167, GSE41349

Repli-seq S2, GSE41350

modENCODE Kc, H3K4me3: GSE45088; H3K27me3: GSE45083; H3K9me3: GSE27796

modENCODE S2, H3K4me3: GSE20787; H3K27me3: GSE20781; H3K9me3: GSE20794

modENCODE Orc2 ChIP meta-peaks: GSE27123

The genomics analysis scripts have been deposited in GitHub: https://github.com/ringw/Upd-Germline-

Genomics

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1181   **COMPETING INTEREST STATEMENT**

1182   The authors declare that there are no competing interests related to this work.

1183

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Dr. Hao Zhang from the Flow Cytometry and Cell Sorting Core Facility within the Department

of Molecular Microbiology and Immunology at the Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health

for contributing to the cell sorting experiments required for Repli-seq. We are also grateful to Hanhvy Bui

in the John Hopkins Integrated Imaging Center for her initial efforts in establishing a cell sorting protocol

for our tissue. We also thank the Johns Hopkins Genetics Resources Core Facility for consultation and

performing next generation sequencing. Many thanks to several members of Dr. Keji Zhao's group who

helped with establishing the ChIC-seq protocol, aided with sequencing submission, and data storage. This

includes, Drs. Lixia Pan, Wai Lim Ku, Guangzhe Ge, Kairong Cui, Qingsong Tang, and Meiyuan Ji.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Project conceptualization: JAU, XC

Experimentation: JAU

Experimentation and validation of system: RG, WX

Bioinformatic data analysis: DR, JMU

Writing/Editing manuscript; JAU, XC

Funding and experimental support: JAU, KZ, XC

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