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BYPASSABLE ESSENTIAL GENES AFFECTING REGULATION OF  
HETEROCHROMATIN SILENCING IN *S. POMBE*

By

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

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The mechanisms by which epigenetic markings are generated and maintained are crucial to ensuring genome stability and appropriate gene expression levels, therefore understanding how chromatin states are faithfully maintained and propagated is critical. We performed a forward genetic screen in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* using integration density profiling of transposable element insertions to identify modifiers of position effect variegation (PEV), an epigenetic phenomenon characterized by heritable yet stochastic heterochromatin spreading over a reporter gene. Interestingly, a number of essential genes including DNA replication and repair factors were enriched within the screen. Transposable element integration sites were subsequently used to guide the generation of new mutant alleles in the essential candidate PEV genes *top2*, *top3*, and *tel2* using CRISPR-Cas9 mediated mutagenesis; with this approach we were able to isolate mutant alleles in all three genes affecting transcriptional silencing at heterochromatic regions. Finally, we demonstrate that dense transposon integrations may permit bypass of essentiality (BOE) by leveraging complex genetic interactions which suppress lethality in bypassable essential gene mutants. These interactions may facilitate the detection of novel phenotypes occurring as a consequence of essential gene inactivation. Essential genes have long been under-represented using traditional genetic screening approaches;

however, a systematic approach utilizing these phenomena could potentially increase their representation in such screens to allow for future discovery and investigation of novel roles for essential genes in a number of vital cellular processes.

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## **Dedication**

To Anna and Madison, the light of my life.

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## **CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Introduction to heterochromatin and its importance in maintaining genome stability**

Epigenetic modifications organize chromatin into two distinct states- an ‘open’ form known as euchromatin, or ‘closed’ and highly compact heterochromatin. Maintaining or switching between chromatin states in a temporally and spatially defined manner is essential for coordinating gene regulation and ensuring genome stability. The term heterochromatin was originally coined to describe the differential staining of highly condensed chromosomal regions; however, the definition of heterochromatin has evolved to encompass a distinct form of chromatin endowed with specific markings, characteristics, and functional properties (Robin C. Allshire & Madhani, 2017; Heitz, 1929). Heterochromatin can be further classified into constitutive or facultative, with the former referring to regions which are stably heterochromatinized while the latter retains the ability to revert between euchromatin and heterochromatin (Trojer & Reinberg, 2007). The tightly compacted conformation of heterochromatin denies access to its underlying DNA impeding virtually all nucleic acid transactions. As a consequence, heterochromatic regions are transcriptionally silent and homologous recombination (HR) is inhibited. Regions of constitutive heterochromatin are commonly comprised of repetitive elements, non-coding regions, and chromosome features such as telomeres and centromeres; many of the above can jeopardize genome stability if not carefully regulated and/or silenced (S. I. S. Grewal & Jia, 2007; Janssen, Colmenares, & Karpen, 2018; Trojer & Reinberg, 2007). Transcriptional de-repression and/or loss of heterochromatic markings on repetitive elements, for example, can contribute to gross chromosomal

rearrangements in a variety of cancers as a result of non-allelic recombination, while centromeric heterochromatin helps to ensure chromosomal cohesion during mitosis thereby facilitating proper chromosome segregation (Bernard et al., 2001; Ting et al., 2011; Zhu et al., 2011). Another notable example is the transcriptional silencing of parasitic genomic elements such as transposons, thus limiting their ability to mobilize and colonize other genomic regions by reducing transposon expression (Robin C. Allshire & Madhani, 2017; Buchon & Vaury, 2006; Groh & Schotta, 2017). Heterochromatin also plays an important role in establishing overall nuclear architecture in addition to conferring discrete chromatin domains with functional properties such as suppression of recombination at repetitive elements (Amaral, Ryu, Li, & Chiolo, 2017; W. Zhang et al., 2015). Constitutive heterochromatin, therefore, has an important role in defending and maintaining genome integrity that is accomplished through a number of diverse mechanisms.

## **1.2 Constitutive heterochromatin in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe***

*Schizosaccharomyces pombe*, or fission yeast, has long been used as a model organism for the study of heterochromatin. *S. pombe* is a eukaryotic, single-celled organism with a compact nuclear genome consisting of three chromosomes ranging in size from 3.5-5.7 Mb. Many of the proteins and pathways contributing to heterochromatin formation and maintenance in higher-order eukaryotes are conserved in fission yeast. Genetic analysis is further simplified due to the fact that *S. pombe* spends the majority of its life cycle as haploid organism and exhibits minimal genetic redundancy, making the analysis of single genes and their contributions to these essential processes easier to parse.

The fission yeast genome houses several domains of constitutive heterochromatin which can be found at the centromeres, ribosomal DNA (rDNA), subtelomeric regions, and the mating type locus. Like most multicellular eukaryotes, fission yeast possess specialized regional centromeres which are cytologically distinct from the rest of the chromosome (Partridge, 2008). Kinetochore assembly during mitosis occurs within the central domain which is composed of a specialized, highly conserved histone H3 variant known as CENP-A (Stellfox, Bailey, & Foltz, 2013). The central domain is flanked by two regions of constitutive heterochromatin assembled over arrays of tandemly repeated non-coding satellite DNA. This arrangement is a conserved feature of nearly all regional centromeres found in higher-order eukaryotes (McKinley & Cheeseman, 2015). The heterochromatic region that flanks the kinetochore is collectively termed the pericentromere. In fission yeast the pericentromere is subdivided into two distinct repetitive domains, the inner repeats (*imr*) and the outer repeats (*otr*). The inner repeat sequence varies between chromosomes while the outer repeat sequences are closely related on all three chromosomes in *S. pombe* (Alper, Lowe, & Partridge, 2012; Chikashige et al., 1989).

Pericentromeric heterochromatin has an important structural role in ensuring proper chromosome segregation and kinetochore assembly during mitosis, therefore preservation of centromere stability is critical (Bernard et al., 2001). Repetitive elements are often inherently destabilizing, however, and so a number of mechanisms exist to maintain transcriptional and recombination repression at these regions (Bzymek & Lovett, 2001; S. I. Grewal & Elgin, 2007). RNA interference (RNAi) is the primary pathway by which pericentromeric heterochromatin is established in fission yeast (Volpe

et al., 2002). The process of RNAi-directed pericentromeric heterochromatin assembly is coupled to transcription of non-coding pericentromeric repeats by RNA Polymerase II (RNA Pol II) during S phase of the cell cycle (E. S. Chen et al., 2008; Kloc, Zaratiegui, Nora, & Martienssen, 2008). The core RNAi machinery consists of Argonaute (*ago1*), Dicer (*dcr1*), and RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (*RdRP*) (Martienssen & Moazed, 2015; Provost et al., 2002). Double-stranded pericentromeric transcripts (dsRNA) are processed by Dicer into small interfering RNAs (siRNAs) while RdRP participates in dsRNA production and siRNA amplification (Martienssen & Moazed, 2015; Sugiyama, Cam, Verdel, Moazed, & Grewal, 2005). siRNAs are subsequently loaded onto the RITS complex which consists of the chromodomain protein Chp1, Tas3, and RNAi effector protein Ago1 (Elizabeth H. Bayne et al., 2014; DeBeauchamp et al., 2008; Martienssen & Moazed, 2015). Base-pairing between the siRNA and the nascent pericentric repeat transcripts recruits the RITS complex to the pericentromeric repeats. H3K9 methylation constitutes a second necessary recruitment signal for RITS via its chromodomain subunit Chp1 (J.-i. Nakayama, J. C. Rice, B. D. Strahl, C. D. Allis, & S. I. Grewal, 2001; Verdel et al., 2004). The chromatin-interacting RITS complex subsequently recruits the chromatin-modifying CLRC complex consisting of Clr4, Rik1, Dos1/2 (Raf1/2), and Cul4 mediated by the adaptor protein Stc1, permitting H3K9 methylation by Clr4 (E. H. Bayne et al., 2010; F. Li et al., 2005; K. Zhang, Mosch, Fischle, & Grewal, 2008). Methylated H3K9 is then bound by the chromodomain proteins Chp1, Chp2, and Swi6, facilitating formation of a repressive chromatin structure and promoting efficient RNA degradation by stabilization of the RNAi and nuclear exosome complexes as well as recruitment of additional chromatin remodeling complexes (Keller et al., 2012; Motamedi

et al., 2008). The convergence of multiple pathways at this juncture is critical to ensure heterochromatic silencing at the centromere. Swi6 and Chp2 recruit the Snf2/histone deacetylase [HDAC] repressor complex (SHREC) which contains the class II HDAC Clr3 and the Snf2 chromatin-remodeling factor homolog Mit1 in addition to silencing factors Clr1 and Clr2 (Sugiyama et al., 2007). Clr3 further aids in restricting Pol II accessibility by removing/preventing histone modifications associated with active transcription and preventing histone turnover; loss of Clr3 leads to decreased heterochromatin at pericentromeres yet produces a concomitant increase in small RNAs due to increased transcription in this region (Aygün, Mehta, & Grewal, 2013; Hansen et al., 2005). Swi6 associates with another complex containing the class I HDAC Clr6, which is semi-redundant with Clr3 yet exhibits a broader substrate specificity (Fischer et al., 2009).

Collectively, the redundancy and/or overlap in the ways in which silencing is established and maintained at centromeres underscores its importance. Paradoxically, transcription is an essential component of many of these processes. RNA Pol II preferentially transcribes pericentromeric repeat sequences at low levels beginning in the G2/M transition, coinciding with condensin and Swi6 delocalization from heterochromatic regions by H3S10phosphorylation which prevents the chromodomain of Swi6 from binding to adjacent methylated H3K9 (Ee Sin Chen et al., 2008). In S phase RNAi activity begins in earnest restoring silenced heterochromatin at the pericentromeric repeats in a process likely coupled to the passage of the replication fork; Dicer also plays an important role in facilitating release of Pol II while these processes are ongoing simultaneously to prevent clashes between the transcription and DNA replication



machinery (Castel et al., 2014; E. S. Chen et al., 2008; Kloc et al., 2008; F. Li, 2011; Zaratiegui, Castel, et al., 2011).

A number of diverse mechanisms exist for maintenance and establishment of heterochromatin domains in addition to RNAi, including nuclear exosome processing, RNA quality control surveillance, and the presence of chromatin insulators such as the tRNA genes found at the boundaries of pericentromeric outer repeats which restrict heterochromatin spreading (Chalamcharla, Folco, Dhakshnamoorthy, & Grewal, 2015; Kirkland, Raab, & Kamakaka, 2013; Reyes-Turcu, Zhang, Zofall, Chen, & Grewal, 2011). While RNAi components localize to rDNA, which are partially heterochromatinized, their primary purpose appears to be in management of replication-transcription collisions and suppression of recombination (R. C. Allshire & Ekwall, 2015; Castel et al., 2014). Finally, RNAi appears to be dispensable at subtelomeric heterochromatin, another major region of constitutive heterochromatin in fission yeast (Kano, Sadaie, Urano, & Ishikawa, 2005). Instead, subtelomeric heterochromatin is the product of a concerted effort between chromatin remodelers, histone chaperones, and cohesins for establishment and maintenance of silenced chromatin at chromosome ends (Buchanan et al., 2009; Dheur, Saupe, Genier, Vazquez, & Javerzat, 2011; Kano et al., 2005; Steglich et al., 2015).

In this study we describe a screen for mutants affecting the integrity and spreading of heterochromatin at the pericentromeric outer repeats. As described in greater detail in the following chapters, we found that a number of genes encoding products known to be involved in heterochromatin formation and maintenance- *swi6*, *dos1/2*, *rik1*- were significantly enriched in the screen, indicating that the selection was successful and

validating the overall approach. Gene ontology (GO) analysis further confirmed that genes emerging as significantly enriched from the screen are over-represented in biological processes known to be involved in chromatin silencing. Thus, the genetic screen described in this study enables robust identification of genes affecting heterochromatin at silenced loci. We also identified a number of candidate genes for follow up which do not have a known function in centromeric silencing, suggesting that this approach can facilitate identification of novel genes involved in heterochromatin maintenance. Going forward, the approach described in this study can be leveraged to enhance our understanding of the complexities and regulation of heterochromatin domains by identification of novel genes contributing to centromeric silencing.

### **1.3 The influence of replication fork management and DNA repair on chromatin status**

One of the most important open questions in epigenetics is how heterochromatic marks are faithfully inherited by subsequent generations after disruption by the replication fork during DNA replication. It has been suggested that replication fork stalling can promote changes in the local chromatin environment which influence fork management and gene expression in subsequent cell cycles (Fournier, Kumar, & Stirling, 2018; Rowlands, Dhavarasa, Cheng, & Yankulov, 2017). The nature of these changes, however, and their underlying mechanisms are still poorly understood. In human cells, the histone chaperone Asf1 shows an increase in bound histones bearing the H3K9me1 PTM when replication is globally impaired which are promptly incorporated upon resumption of DNA replication (Huang et al., 2015; Jasencakova et al.). Conversely, in *C. elegans*, impaired DNA replication has been linked to global chromatin de-repression

and subsequent inheritance of epigenetic alterations for several generations before silencing is re-established (Klosin et al., 2017). In *S. pombe*, Brc1 stabilizes stalled replication forks in pericentromeric heterochromatin and this activity has also been demonstrated to be important for maintaining heterochromatin and transcriptional repression of the pericentromeres (Lee, Rozenzhak, & Russell, 2013; Williams et al., 2010; Young Lee & Russell, 2013). Replication stress has also been proposed to drive epigenetic plasticity in cancer cells, which may in turn contribute to tumorigenesis (Alabert & Groth, 2012; Jasencakova & Groth, 2010; Nikolov, 2015). Taken together, these findings and many others not specifically referenced here reinforce the coordination between replication and chromatin assembly in response to replicative stress (for review, see (Alabert & Groth, 2012; H. He, Gonzalez, Zhang, & Li, 2014; Khurana & Oberdoerffer, 2015; Rowlands et al., 2017)).

The nature of this relationship appears to be complex, however, as replicative stress has paradoxically been linked to both decreases and increases in heterochromatic markings- or in some circumstances has been shown to have no effect at all- indicating that the epigenetic effect and nature of the stressor is likely context dependent. In the instance of the former, one of the prevailing theories is that replication slowing or stalling prior to fork re-start can adversely impact histone recycling and subsequent inheritance of histone modifications, which are important for re-establishment of chromatin states in the wake of the replication fork (Jasencakova et al.; Reveron-Gomez et al., 2018; Šviković & Sale, 2017). The minichromosome maintenance (MCM) helicase subunit MCM2 has the ability to bind H3-H4 tetramers containing any H3 variant, and it has been suggested that this activity may transfer histone variants deposited during previous replication cycles or

“old” post-translationally modified nucleosomes to facilitate chromatin re-assembly and promote histone recycling in the wake of the replication fork (Huang et al., 2015). Similarly, assays using synthetic sequences which approximate unwound DNA after replication fork passage demonstrated that the single-strand binding protein RPA directly binds H3-H4 and promotes DNA-(H3-H4) complex assembly on nearby double-stranded DNA (S. Liu et al., 2017). In the same study, the authors note that MCM2 and its interactions with histone chaperones facilitates disassembly of parental H3-H4 prior to DNA replication, and that RPA subsequently binds single-stranded DNA (ssDNA) after the unwinding of double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) by MCM. Thus, replication factors work in concert to coordinate histone deposition and recycling during replication-coupled nucleosome assembly (S. Liu et al., 2017). The replisome itself, therefore, is directly involved in ensuring the fidelity of epigenetic inheritance, underscoring the importance of replication-coupled chromatin assembly.

A related theory postulates that replisome disassembly to allow for DNA repair and/or recombination may lead to the loss of heterochromatin-specific replication factors (Haijin He et al., 2017; F. Li, 2011; Zaratiegui, Castel, et al., 2011). In *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* the catalytic subunit of DNA polymerase epsilon (Cdc20), the leading strand polymerase, interacts directly with a silencing complex containing Dos2, Rik1, and Mms19 thus facilitating replication-coupled heterochromatin formation (F. Li, 2011; F. Li et al., 2005). Additionally, replication of heterochromatic regions appears to diverge from their euchromatic counterparts early in the process of DNA replication, as replication factors have been observed to act in concert with heterochromatin proteins during the initial stages of replication origin activation to

regulate the timing of DNA replication (Hayashi, Takahashi, Nakagawa, Nakayama, & Masukata, 2009; Richet et al., 2015; Talbert & Henikoff, 2016). The specific regulation of heterochromatin replication origin firing and the described physical interactions between the canonical replisome and heterochromatin deposition machinery indicate that heterochromatin and euchromatin replication may employ distinct mechanisms to ensure the maintenance of their respective epigenetic marks.

Parsing the function of the replication fork complex and DNA repair factors in heterochromatin maintenance and inheritance using classical forward and reverse genetics is challenging due to the fact that many DNA replication factors are essential for viability. For the purpose of this study, therefore, we focused on genes with a described role in DNA replication, recombination, and repair to probe their relationship with heterochromatin formation and maintenance. Going forward, the mutants described in this work- as well as the overall approach- can be utilized for a mechanistic dissection of the pathways contributing to epigenetic modulation as a product of replicative stress and/or aberrant DNA repair.

#### **1.4 Next-generation genetic screening approaches for identification of heterochromatin modifiers**

Early studies recognized the differential chromosomal staining between heterochromatin and euchromatin as a reflection of the degree of condensation exhibited by the two chromatin states; however, the link between chromatin conformation and gene expression was not recognized until early studies in *Drosophila* described a phenomenon known as position effect variegation (PEV) in which differential expression of a gene

was linked to encroaching or receding pericentric heterochromatin (Muller & Muller, 1930; Zhimulev, Belyaeva, Fomina, Protopopov, & Bolshakov, 1986). Since its discovery in *Drosophila* PEV has been used as a tool to study heterochromatin formation in a number of organisms including yeasts, flies, and mammals (R. C. Allshire & Ekwall, 2015; Blewitt & Whitelaw, 2013; Elgin & Reuter, 2013). PEV is typically assayed via a forward genetics approach utilizing a reporter gene as a readout of PEV at a given locus followed by mutagenesis to identify mutants exhibiting enhancement or suppression of variegation. Although the general structure of PEV screens is fairly straightforward, this framework has been repurposed throughout the last several decades for use in a number of different organisms using a diversity of reporters and mutagenesis techniques to facilitate a thorough dissection of the mechanisms and factors underlying the complex process of heterochromatin formation, maintenance, and inheritance.

While traditional genetic screening in the manner described above has been remarkably fruitful, there are several notable limitations to such approaches which limit their overall resolution. Screening through a number of organisms to identify individuals with a PEV phenotype can be time- and resource-intensive, and retroactive identification and enrichment of causal alleles can be challenging (Forsburg, 2001; Irvine et al., 2009). As an example, an early PEV forward genetic screen in fission yeast (centromere: suppressor of PEV, *csp*) successfully yielded alleles in all RNAi machinery components but their identification via complementation assays was prevented by the inherent genetic instability of the reporter gene in the context of de-condensed heterochromatin. The discovery of the involvement of RNAi in heterochromatin silencing had to wait for a

reverse genetic analysis which then enabled identification of the original corresponding *csp* alleles (Karl Ekwall, Cranston, & Allshire, 1999).

Further, the majority of candidate alleles identified in screens using diploid organisms such as *Drosophila* exert a dominant effect and are homozygous lethal (Elgin & Reuter, 2013). Recessive alleles, therefore, are presumably under-represented as a consequence of the essential status of many of the genes involved in PEV pathways. While model organisms such as *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* have the advantage of a primarily haploid life cycle, making it easier to identify recessive alleles within a screen, the same restriction is likely to apply (Karl Ekwall et al., 1999; Forsburg, 2001; Irvine et al., 2009).

As researchers approach saturation of the accessible screening ‘space’ afforded by traditional genetic screens there has been an increasing push for the design and implementation of more versatile and high-throughput screening approaches. One solution developed in a number of model organisms has been the use of high-throughput transposon mutagenesis coupled with next-generation sequencing to identify insertion sites at the population level, which can then be mapped back to their respective genome to identify genes have been disproportionately affected (Guo et al., 2013; Kool & Berns, 2009; A. H. Michel et al., 2017; van Opijnen & Camilli, 2013). While this approach often generates a higher number of candidate genes and often results in a greater density of mutations as a product of transposon activity, it too has its own limitations, most notably the lack of actionable mutants for candidate follow-up. Many model organisms have readily available deletion and/or mutant libraries comprised of non-essential genes; however, studying essential genes using traditional genetics approaches is challenging

due to the difficulty in obtaining mutants in such genes. In this work we describe a novel implementation of a genetic screen for PEV suppressors utilizing positive selection and transposable-element mediated mutagenesis in *S. pombe* followed by a simple CRISPR-based mutagenesis approach for generation of mutations in candidate essential genes exhibiting a PEV phenotype for follow-up analysis.

Equally challenging is identification of essential genes affecting cellular processes of interest, as essential genes tend to be absent from genetic screens unless alleles exhibit a dominant phenotype. Transposon-based insertion profiling has been used to reveal the identity of essential genes in bacteria and yeast based on the premise that insertions in genes which are functionally important for growth quickly disappear from vegetatively growing cells at the population level, as they are rapidly selected against due to their negative effects on the fitness of the organism (Chao, Abel, Davis, & Waldor, 2016; Grech et al., 2019; A. H. Michel et al., 2017). Generally, in transposition-based fitness screens the prevalence of an insertion is tied to its effect on fitness in a given growth condition (Chao et al., 2016). This phenomenon is distinct from conditional essentiality, in which a subpopulation of genes is only rendered essential in particular growth conditions; a requirement for the ability to proliferate and survive is a staple of virtually any genetic screen (Tong et al., 2004). Thus, this limitation is universal to the conduct and application of genetic screens.

Although genetic suppression is a familiar concept, a recent study in fission yeast found that monogenic suppressors rendering essential genes dispensable are far more pervasive than originally appreciated (J. Li et al., 2019). The authors of the study coined the term ‘bypassable’ to describe this subpopulation of essential genes, referring to the



associated phenomenon as ‘bypass of essentiality (BOE)’. In the present study we describe a screen in which a number of essential genes were enriched in transposable element insertions, and we demonstrate that many of the insertion events are likely to generate null alleles of the affected gene(s). We advance the hypothesis that the persistence and enrichment of insertions in essential genes may be explained by BOE interactions which allow cells carrying lethal alleles to maintain viability thereby allowing conditional selection to act upon them; in this instance, selection for mutants exhibiting enhanced PEV. Going forward, identification and exploitation of bypassable essential genes may facilitate a more nuanced dissection of the pathways and processes that many of these essential genes participate in; further, these genetic interactions have the potential to unlock a large portion of the genetic ‘screening space’ available to researchers when performing genetic screens such as the one described in this study.

### **1.5 Transposable elements and their effects on genome stability and structure**

Transposable elements (TEs), also known as jumping genes, are mobile DNA sequences that possess the ability to move throughout the genome. TEs have successfully colonized a staggering diversity of host organisms and comprise a major portion of many eukaryotic genomes (Guillaume Bourque et al., 2018). TEs are often characterized as parasitic genomic elements; however, many studies have reinforced the finding that TEs and their activities are often at the heart of the development and evolution of gene regulatory networks within their host organisms at the genetic level; additionally, there are many described instances of TE proteins becoming ‘domesticated’ and performing vital cellular functions within their hosts (Hugh P Cam, Noma, Ebina, Levin, & Grewal, 2008; Mateo & Gonzalez, 2014; Pastuzyn et al., 2018). The impact of TEs permeate

many aspects of genome evolution, function, and disease, therefore the nature of their contributions to these vital processes is an area of active investigation.

While much of the condemnation of the mutagenic potential of transposons stems from the threat of transposon mobilization into protein coding or regulatory sequences, thereby disrupting the normal activity of these loci, silenced and/or dormant transposons pose their own threat to genomic stability. In addition to the genetic burden of additional genetic material to be duplicated in the process of DNA replication, multiple copies of a transposon within a host genome can increase the potential for non-allelic homologous recombination (NAHR) (G. Bourque, 2009; Hedges & Deininger, 2007). Large genomes are particularly susceptible to these effects, as they do not exhibit the same transposable element copy number constraints affecting compact genomes (Kidwell, 2002). Indeed, a staggering 45% of the human genome is comprised of TEs, thus the potential for these illicit recombination events is highly relevant to human health and disease (Belancio, Deininger, & Roy-Engel, 2009; Lander et al., 2001). Accordingly, TE-mediated NAHR has been implicated in a number of human pathologies including acute myelogenous leukemia, von Hippel-Lindau syndrome, familial breast cancer, and has been found to significantly contribute to structural variation in human genomes (Belancio et al., 2009; Korbel et al., 2007).

Interestingly, transcription has been demonstrated to play a major role in influencing the recombinogenic potential of repetitive elements, particularly in the context of DNA replication (Ponnari Gottipati, Cassel, Savolainen, & Helleday, 2008; P. Gottipati & Helleday, 2009; Takeuchi, Horiuchi, & Kobayashi, 2003; Zaratiegui, Vaughn, et al., 2011). It has been proposed that the mechanism underlying transcription-associated

recombination is stimulation of recombination by conflicts between DNA replication and transcription machinery (Aguilera & Gaillard, 2014; Aguilera & García-Muse, 2012; Prado & Aguilera, 2005). Stable RNA-DNA hybrids known as R loops can occur as a consequence of these encounters, which can further threaten genome integrity (Aguilera & García-Muse, 2012; Gavalda, Gallardo, Luna, & Aguilera, 2013). In this study we investigate a potential role for replication-transcription collisions at Tf2 transposon bodies in fission yeast and their influence on transposon mobilization. While Tf2 transposons are unique in their preference for mobilization via an integrase-independent mechanism utilizing HR, the interplay between replication and transcription at sites of transposon integration and their proposed modulation of the recombinogenicity of these loci may be generally informative regarding the consequences of such encounters.

### **1.6 Transposable element integration site preferences and analysis**

TEs exhibit a staggering diversity of integration site preferences, influenced by factors such as chromatin environment, sequence, gene density, and other genomic features such as promoters and protein coding sequences (Bowen, Jordan, Epstein, Wood, & Levin, 2003; Esnault & Levin, 2015; Sultana, Zamborlini, Cristofari, & Lesage, 2017). Transposable element integration site preferences are often shaped by competing selective forces, as the continued propagation of the transposon is essential for its survival yet transposon activity can often be deleterious to its host. This selective pressure can in turn influence transposon integration site preferences to promote insertion in regions where their presence is neutral with respect to the fitness of the host yet they retain the ability to propagate themselves (Guillaume Bourque et al., 2018; Bushman, 2003). One such example is the independently evolved targeting of Pol III gene

promoters by retrotransposons found in slime molds, budding, and fission yeast (Guo, Singh, & Levin, 2015; Spaller, Kling, Glöckner, Hillmann, & Winckler, 2016; Sultana et al., 2017). Similarly, the integration site preferences of the budding yeast transposon Ty5 are directly influenced by the condition of the host cell: when resources and nutrients are readily available, phosphorylation of Ty5 integrase directs integration into silent chromatin; conversely, under stress conditions phosphorylation of Ty5 integrase is reduced and Ty5 integration events are subsequently distributed throughout the genome (Dai, Xie, Brady, Gao, & Voytas, 2007; Zou, Ke, Kim, & Voytas, 1996). Left unconstrained, the mutagenic potential of transposons can often be deleterious to their host; however, this relationship exemplifies the successful incorporation of transposon activities into the adaptive response of the host to changing environmental conditions, where their mutagenic potential is better suited to benefit host survival (Oliver & Greene, 2009). Collectively, the integration site preferences of transposons and their mobilization has played a significant role in shaping gene regulatory networks and genome structure (Guillaume Bourque et al., 2018; Feschotte, 2008; Rey, Danchin, Mirouze, Loot, & Blanchet, 2016).

One of the barriers to analysis of transposon integration site preference is the unwavering force of natural selection. Often there is a disconnect between pre-insertion biases and post-insertion selection; this discrepancy was made apparent in a recent study of L1 retrotransposons in human cells, where it was found that newly induced L1 retrotransposition events exhibited a markedly different profile than that of endogenous L1 elements (Sultana et al., 2019). Thus, analysis of de novo transposon insertions is a powerful tool for disentangling insertion site preferences and natural selection. A

previous study from our laboratory had uncovered a role for Sap1, a DNA binding factor that regulates replication fork progression, in guiding Tf1 retrotransposon insertion site selection. The Tf2 transposon, despite the high sequence conservation with Tf1, exhibits a very different behavior in preferring to mobilize by HR. In this study we generate for the first time a profile of de novo Tf2 insertions to better understand the integration site preferences of Tf2 retrotransposons in fission yeast. Construction of Tf2 insertion libraries is technically challenging due to the preference of Tf2 for recombination with pre-existing endogenous Tf2 elements in a phenomenon known as ‘integration site recycling (ISR)’; indeed, it has been suggested that ISR is another example of balancing host survival with retrotransposon mobilization and propagation (Hoff, Levin, & Boeke, 1998). Further, we investigate the reliance of Tf2 on the host factor Sap1 and its replication fork barrier activity for integration into fission yeast genomes via HR.

## CHAPTER II. IDENTIFICATION OF BYPASSABLE ESSENTIAL GENES AFFECTING HETEROCHROMATIN IN *S. POMBE*

### 2.1 Introduction

Genetic screens have long been powerful tools for discovering and characterizing gene function. The success of such approaches is typified by the long tradition of screening for modulators of a phenomenon known as position effect variegation (PEV) in the fruit fly, *Drosophila Melanogaster* (Elgin & Reuter, 2013). Position effect variegation (PEV), first observed in *Drosophila*, is an epigenetic phenomenon characterized by variable expression of a reporter gene due to stochastic heterochromatic spreading with stable inheritance of these expression patterns once they are established (Elgin & Reuter, 2013; Schultz, 1950; Spofford, 1967). Over 150 genes have been identified as PEV modulators in *Drosophila* using a variety of screening approaches (Elgin & Reuter, 2013). Similarly, PEV has been observed and well-studied in the highly tractable model organism *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (R. C. Allshire & Ekwall, 2015; K. Ekwall & Ruusala, 1994; Thon, Cohen, & Klar, 1994; Thon & Klar, 1992).

Many of the PEV mutants identified in *Drosophila* are homozygous lethal yet exhibit a dominant phenotype, making them detectable by traditional screening methods used in diploid organisms (Elgin & Reuter, 2013). *S. pombe* is primarily a haploid unicellular organism, therefore even recessive phenotypes are readily detectable. Essential genes, however, are often underrepresented in genetic screens since most model organisms are highly sensitive to loss or impaired function of essential gene products, particularly in haploid organisms. Previously, transposon-based integration profiling has

been utilized to identify essential genes in haploid eukaryotic organisms (Guo et al., 2013). In this approach cells carrying transposon insertions are allowed to grow for many generations; the transposon insertion sites present in the final cell population are subsequently identified by high throughput sequencing. ORFs with lower integration densities at the conclusion of the screen corresponded with genes reported to be essential, while ORFs with higher densities corresponded with nonessential genes (Grech et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2013). It is challenging to screen for phenotypes associated with essential genes outside of their effect on viability, however, given their importance in a number of cellular processes essential for survival (Bertomeu et al., 2018; Rousset et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2015). Interestingly, it was recently reported that many essential genes in *S. pombe* exhibit “bypassability”, a phenomenon in which essential genes are rendered non-essential by monogenic suppressors (J. Li et al., 2019).

We conducted a screen utilizing transposable element-mediated mutagenesis in *S. pombe* coupled with positive selection for mutants exhibiting suppressed PEV. Subsequent identification of transposon insertion sites after multiple rounds of selection and integration profiling revealed enrichment of a number of essential genes. Cloning-free CRISPR/Cas9 mutagenesis was then deployed in a small-scale secondary screen to isolate novel mutants in essential genes *top2*, *top3*, and *tel2* exhibiting a PEV phenotype informed by the location of insertions which emerged in the primary screen. Interestingly, reconstructing *Hermes* integrations in DNA topoisomerases *top2* and *top3* which occurred in the primary screen revealed that single insertion events in these genes are lethal. We hypothesize that the enrichment of select essential gene mutants as a consequence of positive selection may be a product of “bypass of essentiality” (BOE) (J.

Li et al., 2019) as a result of dense transposon integrations, and that these complex genetic interactions may enable detection of phenotypes which would otherwise be missed via traditional screening approaches.

## 2.2 Materials and Methods

### *Yeast Strains*

The *S. pombe* strains used in this study are listed in Table 2.4. The strains used for Hermes mutagenesis, cloning-free CRISPR mutagenesis, and construction of *top2::Hermes* and *top3::Hermes* alleles as well as generation of *Hermes* and *rqh1Δ* double mutants are described below.

### *Hermes Mutagenesis Screen*

A strain carrying a pericentromeric *ade6+* reporter, TV312, was sequentially transformed with plasmids pHL2578 and pHL2577 carrying the Hermes transposase and transposon, respectively. A 5 mL culture of the plasmid transformed strain was grown overnight and used to inoculate 50 mL of EMM –leu –ura –B1 at a starting OD of .05 and incubated until saturation was reached (OD 2.0-5.0) and serially passaged until approximately 12% integration was reached. Integration was monitored by plating approximately 1,000 cells from each passage on EMM+leu+ura+FOA+B1 and YES+FOA+G418 and measuring the proportion of colonies on each plate (colony number on EMM+leu+ura+FOA+B1 divided by colony number on YES+FOA+G418) to gauge the overall transposition frequency. After the final passage the mutagenized culture was then used to inoculate a 500 mL of EMM+leu+ura+FOA+B1 to OD .25 and grown until saturation to select against the donor plasmid. This culture was then washed, harvested, and used to inoculate



a 500 mL culture of YES+FOA+G418 to OD .25 to select for cells with integration events. Once grown to saturation, the insertion-carrying culture was used to inoculate 500 mL of EMM+DO-ADE+B1 to an OD of .15 to select for cells in which the *ade6+* reporter was de-repressed. The remainder of the culture was washed, harvested, and reserved for genomic DNA extraction to prepare a library of Hermes insertions with flanking genomic DNA for high-throughput sequencing (referred to as Library 0, see *Hermes Insertion Library Preparation for High-Throughput Sequencing*). The mutagenized cells were passaged 3 times in media lacking adenine with the remainder after inoculation reserved for library preparation by harvesting and freezing collected cells at -80 C. The cultures derived from each round of selection for loss of *ade6+* silencing are referred to as Library 1, 2, and 3.

#### *Hermes Insertion Library Preparation for High-Throughput Sequencing*

A Hermes insertion library for high-throughput sequencing was prepared as previously described (Guo et al., 2013). Briefly, genomic DNA was extracted and digested with the restriction endonuclease MseI. Linker ligation was performed using linkers containing MseI restriction site overhangs. Finally, linker-ligated genomic DNA fragments were used to amplify genomic sequences flanking Hermes integration sites, using an oligonucleotide hybridizing near the end of the Hermes terminal inverted repeat (TIR-R) and another oligonucleotide corresponding to the MseI-ligated linker. These oligonucleotides add, respectively, the P5:TruSeqv2 and P7 Illumina adapter sequences in their 5' ends, generating Illumina HiSeq 2500 compatible custom libraries. Amplified DNA was size selected by running the amplification products on a 2% agarose gel, excising all bands within the 200-600 bp range, and gel extraction of the size-selected

fragments. Samples were pooled and sequenced by Admera (Piscataway, NJ) using an Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform with 20% PhiX spike-in to compensate for low initial sequence complexity.

#### *Mapping Hermes Integration Sites Onto the S. Pombe Genome*

The FASTQ files were stripped of adapter and Hermes ITR-R sequences with cutadapt v1.8.1, then mapped to the *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* ENSEMBL ASM294 v2 genome assembly with Bowtie v2.0.6. Mapped reads were filtered with Samtools v1.3.1 by chromosome to exclude reads mapping to the Mitochondrial genome and by quality > 5 to remove low quality mappers and repetitive sequences.

#### *Statistical analysis of Hermes screen data*

Read counts in each of the 4 libraries were normalized to reads per million mapped reads to account for library differences, assigned to the coding sequences (including introns) of protein coding genes, and normalized by gene size. In parallel, we generated a control set of regions with neutral effect on fitness as identified by a recent survey of saturated Hermes transposition data by merging adjacent Hidden Markov Model states 4 and 5 intervals larger than 50bp (Grech et al., 2019). We then selected for analysis genes with at least one insertion in each selection step and at least 5 average insertions per selection step, to remove genes with low insertion counts. Out of 5118 total genes, 3760 passed this filter. To quantify the changes in insertion frequencies for each gene in the selected cultures, we calculated the log-transformed fold increase in normalized read number in each successive selection step and then assigned Z-scores calculated with respect to the average and standard deviation of changes in the neutral control regions to account for

loss of observed insertions by random bottlenecks and gains of infrequent observed insertions by removal of high frequency insertions upon selection that increase the representation of the insertion libraries. Z scores from each selection step were averaged with equal weights, and their associated probabilities were calculated taking into account their covariance. The associated probabilities were adjusted for multiple testing using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure to control the False Discovery Rate at  $\alpha=0.05$ . The frequencies of essential and by-passable essential genes were evaluated by Fisher exact test. All statistical analyses were performed in R v3.4.4 with Bioconductor packages. GO term enrichment analysis was performed with the PUMA tool using Fisher exact test and FDR adjustment.

#### *Cloning-Free CRISPR Mutagenesis*

For CRISPR/Cas9-mediated mutagenesis we used the cloning-free split-*ura4* system described in (X.-R. Zhang, He, Wang, & Du, 2018). sgRNAs were designed using the Benchling CRISPR guide RNA generation tool, which provides on-target and off-target scores based on previously published studies; sgRNAs were selected based on the following conditions: 1) proximity to Hermes-enriched regions in the targeted gene, 2) high on-target score, and 3) high off-target score to maximize on-target cleavage and minimize off-target Cas9 activity, respectively (Doench et al., 2016; Hsu et al., 2013). To generate Cas9 and sgRNA containing fragments for yeast transformation, *pDB4280* was linearized by NotI digestion to generate the gapped plasmid containing the Cas9 coding sequence and the 5' part of the *ura4* marker. The PCR template for sgRNA insert amplification was prepared by digesting with NotI to generate a ~1.3 kb fragment containing the 3' part of the *ura4* marker, the hammerhead ribozyme sequence, and the

sgRNA scaffold sequence. To generate sgRNAs specific to genes of interest, the sgRNA template was subsequently amplified with Phusion polymerase and a primer pair including an oligo with homology to the sgRNA template in addition to sgRNA specific target sequence. The sgRNA-containing fragments were then gel extracted for transformation.

Strain ZB2116 was then transformed by electroporation (J. M. Murray, Watson, A. T., and Carr, A.M., 2016) with 30ng of the gapped *ura4* plasmid in addition to 200 ng of the intended sgRNA-containing fragment and plated on EMMG+DO-ADE,URA+10 mg/L adenine. Plates were monitored over the course of 2-3 weeks for the emergence of white or pink colonies. Colonies with a putative silencing defect were then struck out to single colonies on YEA to allow for loss of the Cas9-expressing plasmid and a 1 kb fragment surrounding each Cas9 cleavage site was amplified from a single representative colony by colony PCR and analyzed by Sanger sequencing to identify mutations occurring as a result of DSB repair at the Cas9 cleavage point; streaking out to single colonies was essential to avoid contamination with wild type cells once selection for the Cas9/sgRNA-expressing plasmid was removed. Any colonies which appeared to carry a mutation of interest were subsequently re-amplified for glycerol storage and further phenotypic analysis.

#### *Serial dilution spot assays*

Cells were grown overnight in liquid YEA to an OD<sub>600</sub> of ~2.0. 100 uL of each sample was removed and diluted in 1 mL of sterile water for precise determination of the sample OD<sub>600</sub> before harvesting 1 mL of cells, washing in 1 mL of sterile water, and

resuspending in an adequate volume of sterile water for a final OD<sub>600</sub> of 10.0. Three ten-fold serial dilutions were prepared for each sample to a final OD<sub>600</sub> of .01 in 96-well cell culture plates. Cells were subsequently transferred to the appropriate yeast media plates using a freshly sterilized pin frogger; plates were incubated at 32° C unless otherwise indicated and imaged after 3-5 days.

#### *RNA preparation, Reverse Transcription, and qPCR*

5 mL yeast cultures were grown overnight, washed, and harvested. Bulk RNA was isolated for reverse transcription and analysis using a Direct-Zol Miniprep RNA purification kit (Zymo Research) or by hot acid phenol RNA extraction following the protocol outlined in (Bahler & Wise, 2017). For RNA purifications performed using the Direct-Zol Miniprep kit cell pellets were resuspended in 300 mL of the provided TRI reagent and dispensed into 2 mL screw cap tubes with approximately 500 uL of glass beads. Cells were lysed in TRI Reagent by bead beating under the following conditions: 4 cycles of 2.5 minutes each carried out at 4° C, followed by a 2 minute rest on ice in between cycles. The remaining steps were carried out according to the manufacturer's instructions. Reverse transcription was subsequently performed using SuperScript VILO Master Mix (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. qPCR reactions were set up using KAPA SYBR FAST qPCR Master Mix (2x) according to the manufacturer's instructions and run on a Mastercycler ep realplex Real-time PCR System (Eppendorf) for analysis.

#### *ChIP-qPCR*

Chromatin immunoprecipitation was performed as previously described with some modifications (H. P. W. Cam, Simon, 2016). 100 mL of cells were grown overnight to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.5-0.8 and fixed with freshly prepared 1% formaldehyde for 10 minutes. Cells were lysed by bead beating in lysis buffer under the following conditions: 4 cycles of 2.5 minutes each carried out at 4° C, followed by a 2 minute rest on ice in between cycles. Immunoprecipitations were carried out with approximately 15-25 ug of input chromatin in a total reaction volume of 250 ul with 2 ug of ChIP Grade Anti-Histone H3 (di methyl K9) antibody (ab1220, Abcam). Antibody incubation and washing steps were all carried out in Eppendorf Protein LoBind microcentrifuge tubes; after elution of cross-linked chromatin from Dynabeads Protein G (Invitrogen) reverse cross-linking and all subsequent steps were carried out using Eppendorf DNA LoBind microcentrifuge tubes.

After immunoprecipitation, samples were analyzed by qPCR as described in the previous section. IP qPCR signals were normalized against input samples for each primer position to ensure that potential expansion or contraction of the repeat sequences analyzed does not affect quantification.

#### *Reconstruction of Hermes integrations in top2 and top3*

Plasmids containing the desired Hermes integration, target site duplications (TSDs), and several hundred base pairs of sequence flanking each respective integration site were constructed by Gibson assembly. A Hermes TIR-*kanMX6* fragment was obtained by amplifying the construct by PCR directly from pHL2577 using the primers indicated in TABLE. The homology fragments flanking the integration site were obtained by amplifying the homologous sequences directly from a wild type 972 strain, and target site

duplications were introduced in the appropriate orientation via the primers used to amplify the fragments. After the desired plasmids were constructed and sequenced to ensure sequence fidelity the fully assembled homology regions plus Hermes cassette were amplified by PCR directly from each plasmid as a complete transforming fragment, gel purified, and transformed into diploid fission yeast by electroporation. Diploid yeast were stably obtained by mating strains DG14 and DG21, which carry complementary *ade6* alleles (*ade6-210* and *ade6-216*, respectively), on malt extract at 28° C for approximately 16 hours and streaking pre-meiotic cells onto EMMG+DO-ADE to select for *ade6+* wild type diploids.

#### *DAPI staining*

Yeast were grown overnight at 32° C or 37° C as indicated in YEA to an OD<sub>600</sub> of ~1.0 before harvesting, washing, and fixing cells in cold 70% ethanol. Fixed cells were then harvested and mounted on glass microscope slides as described in Hagan et. al. (2016) (Hagan, 2016) and imaged on a Zeiss Apotome.2.

## **2.3 Results**

### *2.3.1 Identification of PEV mutants by transposable element-mediated mutagenesis*

We performed a forward genetic screen using the Hermes transposon for mutagenesis of vegetatively growing cells to identify genes affecting PEV of a pericentromeric reporter. Hermes has previously been demonstrated to exhibit high levels of activity in *S. pombe* and 33-50% of Hermes insertions occur in ORFs, making it an efficient tool for mutagenesis in fission yeast (Everitts, Plymire, Craig, & Levin, 2007; Guo et al., 2013). Previously, Hermes integration profiling has been used to probe for

essential genes and genomic elements by identifying regions in which insertions are depleted (Grech et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2013; A. H. Michel et al., 2017). These essential loci are often readily identifiable in dense maps of transposon integration, as insertions affecting loci required for cell division and proliferation will naturally be selected against by growing mutagenized cell populations for many generations (Grech et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2013). For the purposes of this study we asked whether the same approach could be repurposed to utilize positive selection to enrich for insertions in genes contributing to a phenotype of interest, namely PEV.

Cells carrying a pericentromeric *ade6+* reporter were co-transformed with plasmids carrying the Hermes transposase and a plasmid bearing the Hermes terminal inverted repeats (TIRs) flanking a *kanMX6* cassette which confers resistance to the antibiotic G418. The presence of the *ade6+* reporter, which confers prototrophy for adenine when the reporter gene is expressed, enables screening and selection for cells exhibiting loss of PEV at the typically repressed pericentromeric locus. Transposition was then permitted to occur for approximately 12 days (roughly 135 generations) as cells were grown and serially passaged in liquid media (Figure 2.1a, Figure 2.11).

Transposition was monitored by plating a small number of cells after each passage and measuring the proportion of colony forming units bearing at least one Hermes insertion until approximately 12% of all cells in the final culture carried one or more Hermes insertions. To select for cells exhibiting loss of silencing of the *ade6+* reporter the final culture was placed through three rounds of selection in media lacking adenine, conferring a growth advantage to cells carrying an insertion effecting de-repression of *ade6+*. Ongoing selection was confirmed by plating a small amount of cells taken from each



culture and analyzing the ratio of colonies exhibiting repression and de-repression of the *ade6+* reporter by scoring the number of colonies which appeared red or white, respectively, on media with a low concentration of adenine (Figure 2.1b). Insertion libraries for identification of Hermes integration sites by high-throughput sequencing were prepared as previously described in Guo et. al. (2013) from the liquid culture prior to selection for *ade6+* de-repression as well as after each of three passages in selective media for a total of four insertion libraries, allowing for analysis and identification of genes which are successively enriched with each selective passage.

We then asked whether we could successfully identify genes with a known role in heterochromatic silencing by analyzing gene integration densities following each round of selection. Insertion libraries were first processed by normalization to reads per million mapped reads to account for variation between sequencing runs. Reads were then assigned to coding sequences of protein coding genes and further normalized to gene size. To confirm the effect of the selection a control set of loci described as having a neutral effect on fitness identified in a recent survey of saturated Hermes transposition data were generated for comparison (Grech et al., 2019). Genes with fewer than one insertion and/or less than 5 average insertions per selection step were filtered to eliminate genes with low insertion frequency; 3,760 genes (out of 5,118 total protein coding genes) were analyzed after making it past this filter. Previous studies have found that average integration density is lower in essential genes, reflecting their functional importance; despite this effect 1,050 essential genes made it past the low insertion frequency filtering step (Grech et al., 2019; A. H. Michel et al., 2017). Changes in insertion frequencies in genes were calculated by determining the log-transformed fold increase in normalized

read number after each round of selection and normalized to changes in neutral control regions. This analysis allowed for generation of a list of “significantly enriched” ( $p < .05$ ) and “mildly enriched” ( $p < 0.1$ ) genes produced by selection for mutants exhibiting a PEV phenotype (Figure 2.1c, Table 2.1).

The results of the integration profiling analysis revealed that many genes with a known role in pericentromeric silencing and/or heterochromatin formation and maintenance were significantly enriched within the screen, thereby validating the overall approach (Figure 2.1d). Notably, the top scoring gene in the screen is the Heterochromatin Protein 1 homolog Swi6; further, all components of the H3K9 methylation complex CLRC were detected as significantly enriched (Table 2.1). Gene ontology (GO) analysis demonstrated enrichment among top-scoring candidate PEV genes of a number of biological processes known to collaborate in ensuring pericentromeric silencing including chromatin silencing at centromere (GO:0030702,  $p=.004$ ); chromatin silencing by small RNA (GO:0031048,  $p=.006$ ); and regulation of histone H3-K9 methylation (GO: 0051570,  $p=.01$ ) (summarized in Table 2.2).

Remarkably, 25% (67/263) of genes which emerged as significantly enriched are also annotated as being essential for vegetative growth in fission yeast. Previous studies analyzing transposon integrations in bacteria and yeast have found that essential genes tend to exhibit lower overall insertion density and unique insertion count, with the majority of insertions restricted to the 3' ends of genes and noncoding regions (UTRs) (Chao et al., 2016; Guo et al., 2013; A. H. Michel et al., 2017). We then asked whether insertions in essential genes exhibited the same profile in the presence of positive selection for insertions affecting PEV. Plotting average read density across all of the

genes which passed filtering criteria indeed revealed peaks in the 5' and 3' ends of both essential and non-essential genes (Figure 2.2a). Further, insertions tended to be depleted in the body of essential genes within the un-selected cohort while read density remained fairly high across the body of non-essential genes, thus the average read densities in both essential and non-essential genes showed separable profiles. Analysis of read density within genes which emerged from the screen as significantly enriched, however, revealed a markedly different profile (Figure 2.2b). The peaks present at 3' gene ends disappeared while the peak at the 5' gene end remained in both essential and non-essential genes. Insertions were more evenly distributed across gene bodies in essential genes, mirroring that of their non-essential counterparts. Further, mean read densities increased in both groups with each round of selection while the difference between mean read densities in essential and non-essential genes decreased with each selective passage. Taken together, these results suggest that selecting for mutations affecting PEV increases the representation of insertions which are more likely to elicit functional consequences in both essential and non-essential genes.

### *2.3.2 Reconstruction of essential gene ORF Hermes insertions reveals that solo insertions are lethal and recessive with respect to silencing*

After finding that insertions in essential genes were successively enriched in the PEV screen, we examined several possible explanations: first, that insertions in the coding sequences of essential genes were producing hypomorphic gene products; alternately, we speculated that haploid cells in which one of the copies of an essential gene was inactivated by Hermes insertion during the G2 stage may be spontaneously diploidizing, allowing for the persistence of Hermes insertions in essential genes (Lynch

et al., 2008). In this scenario, a loss of silencing phenotype due to a dominant or haploinsufficient Hermes insertion allele could explain their enrichment when selecting for *ade6+* reporter de-repression.

To test each of these possibilities we selected two genes, *top2* and *top3*, and precisely re-created Hermes insertions which had appeared in the primary PEV screen (Figure 2.3a, Figure 2.12 a,b). *top2* and *top3* both have an extensively documented requirement for viability, eliminating the possibility that their essential gene status could be a product of mis-annotation, and both were mildly enriched in the initial Hermes screen ( $p=.09$  and  $.08$ , respectively) (Goodwin, Wang, Toda, Norbury, & Hickson, 1999; Goto & Wang, 1984; Win, Goodwin, Hickson, Norbury, & Wang, 2004). Top2 and Top3 have well described roles in management of DNA topological states during DNA replication, homologous recombination, and mitosis (Yves Pommier, Sun, Huang, & Nitiss, 2016). There are several described instances of DNA replication and/or repair factors participating in heterochromatin formation and maintenance, but the nature and extent of their relationship is poorly understood (Jahn et al., 2018; F. Li, 2011; Miller et al., 2017). Thus, *top2* and *top3* were selected for further analysis.

Hermes alleles which had emerged from the PEV screen were precisely reconstructed by transforming diploid yeast carrying a pericentromeric *ura4+* reporter with DNA fragments containing the Hermes::*KanMX6* cassette in the orientation in which it had inserted in the screen and the appropriate target site duplications as they would have been generated by a true transposition event (referred to going forward as *top2::Hermes ins 1* and *ins 2* and *top3::Hermes ins 1* and *ins 2*). Homology arms spanning the regions immediately adjacent to the insertion point were included in the

fragment for efficient and non-disruptive targeting by HR to the desired integration site. Diploids carrying one of the four Hermes alleles were then plated on ME to induce sporulation followed by tetrad dissection to assess the lethality of the newly introduced Hermes insertion. Diploids carrying Hermes alleles in *top2* and *top3* were all sporulation competent, although they produced the occasional tetrad deviating from the expected 2:2 lethality pattern, instead producing variable numbers of germinated spores (0-4) (Figure 2.3b). None of the spores which successfully germinated were G418 resistant, however, indicating that all four Hermes alleles are lethal in haploid cells. The abnormal germinated colony number and deviation from the typical 2:2 segregation pattern associated with lethal alleles may be the result of a dominant or haploinsufficient chromosome segregation defect, as such defects have previously been associated with impaired topoisomerase activity (Goodwin et al., 1999; Kaur, De Muyt, & Lichten, 2015; Mengoli et al., 2014; Win et al., 2004).

After finding that all four *top2::Hermes* and *top3::Hermes* alleles were recessive lethal, we tested whether the alternative scenario- spontaneous diploidization combined with a dominant or haploinsufficient silencing defect- could potentially explain the persistence and enrichment of these insertions. We were unable to detect a silencing defect in diploids carrying any of the four Hermes alleles by serial dilution spotting assays or qRT-PCR quantification of relative *dg*, *dh*, and *ura4+* reporter expression, however (Figure 2.13a,b). Thus, by reconstructing Hermes insertions in *top2* and *top3* we found that all four insertions produce recessive lethal alleles with respect to viability and PEV, therefore the contingencies proposed above cannot adequately explain their continued enrichment upon selection in the initial screen.

### 2.3.3 Screening and detection of PEV defects in bypassable essential genes

These findings presented a paradox, as the continued enrichment for cells carrying insertions in essential genes such as *top2* and *top3* throughout multiple rounds of selection (approximately 21 generations) following 135 generations of unselected proliferation appears incompatible with the lethality presumably and experimentally associated with such insertions. In instances where onset of lethality is delayed following mutagenesis, the prolonged period over which the cultures in this study were subject to multiple rounds of selection makes such a contingency insufficient to explain the continued enrichment of lethal alleles. Further, we did not observe a dominant silencing defect following reconstruction of solo insertions in *top2* and *top3* in diploid yeast which might explain their persistence.

In a phenomenon recently coined as a ‘bypass of essentiality’ (BOE), digenic genetic interactions rendering essential genes dispensable were reported to occur with fairly high frequency in mutagenized cells based on the finding that 27% of the essential genes tested on the left arm of chromosome II in *S. pombe* exhibited bypassability (J. Li et al., 2019). We posited that the presence of insertions in essential genes might be explained by one or multiple ‘background’ insertions or suppressors permitting bypass of essentiality.

To evaluate the possibility that BOE allowed for the persistence of Hermes insertions in essential genes, we compared genes which had emerged as significantly enriched ( $p < .05$ ) from our Hermes PEV screen to the summary of bypassable genes provided in (J. Li et al., 2019). Of the 142 essential genes on the left arm of Chromosome

II in *S. pombe* analyzed by Li et. al. we analyzed 111 for enrichment in the Hermes PEV screen. Interestingly, we found that essential genes within the cohort analyzed by Li et. al. which subsequently emerged as significantly enriched for loss of silencing in the Hermes PEV screen show a higher probability of being bypassable: of the 9 essential genes significantly enriched ( $p < .05$ ) in the PEV screen, 5 were described by Li et. al. as bypassable and 4 were found to be non-bypassable. Of the 102 non-significant genes analyzed in the Hermes PEV screen which overlap with those analyzed by Li et. al., 23 were found in the latter study to be bypassable while 79 were found to be non-bypassable (Fisher exact test,  $p = .04$ , Odds ratio 4.22, 95% CI [.83-23.14]). Thus, the finding that ‘bypassability’ is frequently associated with essential genes which emerged as significantly enriched from the Hermes PEV screen strongly suggested that these essential genes may be surviving throughout the screen via their co-occurrence with extragenic lethality suppressors. Further, the putative BOE which could occur by conducting the screen to a relatively high density may enable phenotypes such as defective silencing associated with otherwise ‘essential’ genes, which are typically underrepresented in genetic screens of a similar nature, to emerge by allowing the continued proliferation of essential gene mutants following Hermes disruption. One well described example of BOE is the suppression of lethality associated with *top3+* gene disruption by ablating the RecQ type DNA helicase *rqh1+* (Goodwin et al., 1999); we also noted that Rqh1 was also mildly enriched in our initial Hermes screen ( $p = .14$ ).

To directly test this possibility we knocked out *rqh1* in diploids carrying one of the two *top3::Hermes* alleles to approximate the effect of a null allele generated by a Hermes integration event and/or spontaneous mutation. Tetrad dissections were

subsequently performed on *rqh1Δ top3::Hermes* diploids. Each tetrad again produced variable numbers of germinated colonies, ranging from 1-3 successfully germinated colonies per tetrad. Once more we were unable to isolate any single *top3::Hermes* mutants for either allele (*ins1* or *ins2*); however, we successfully obtained several double mutants carrying both *rqh1Δ* and *top3::Hermes* indicating suppression of the lethality associated with both *top3::Hermes ins1* and *ins2* by *rqh1Δ*.

We then asked whether the presence of inactivating mutations in both *rqh1* and *top3* suppressed the putative loss-of-silencing phenotype associated with *top3::Hermes* in addition to suppression of cell lethality. Analysis of *dg* and *dh* expression in double mutants revealed increased pericentromeric repeat expression relative to the wild type strain and *rqh1Δ*, indicating that while *rqh1Δ* suppresses the lethality of *top3::Hermes ins1* and *ins2* it does not suppress the loss of silencing generated by inactivating mutations in *top3* (Figure 2.3c). Further, the observation that lethality and loss of silencing are separable phenotypes in *rqh1Δ top3* double mutants may provide insight into the biological origins of these phenotypes. The physical interaction between Top3 and RecQ-like DNA helicases is highly conserved in eukaryotes; through their combined efforts crossover formation is suppressed in mitotic cells by promoting resolution of double Holliday junctions, an activity which has been proposed to be important for resolution of converging replication forks (Fabre, Chan, Heyer, & Gangloff, 2002; Gangloff, McDonald, Bendixen, Arthur, & Rothstein, 1994; Ira, Malkova, Liberi, Foiani, & Haber, 2003; Suski & Mariani, 2008). The mechanism by which Top3 impacts heterochromatic silencing, therefore, is presumably distinct from its canonical activity in the resolution of recombination structures and could potentially be a product of



unresolved or delayed resolution of stalled replication forks or may be related to a function of Top3 that is independent of Rqh1. Intriguingly, Top3 in humans and budding yeast has been demonstrated to dissolve D loops as a potential anti-recombination mechanism; further, this activity appears to be independent of the RecQ homolog in budding yeast, Sgs1 (Fabre et al., 2002; Fasching, Cejka, Kowalczykowski, & Heyer, 2015; Gangloff et al., 1994; Mundbjerg et al., 2015). Suppression of recombination is critical at fission yeast centromeres, as signaling of DNA repair by homologous recombination at stalled forks leads to a subsequent loss of accompanying histone modifications (Zaratiegui, Castel, et al., 2011). Taken together, these results demonstrate that complex genetic interactions such as BOE can permit survival of cells carrying inactivating mutations in essential genes to allow for detection of other phenotypes which are otherwise undetectable in traditional genetic screens. Identification of such interactions, moreover, may facilitate a more nuanced dissection of phenotypes of interest by genetic or other means.

Overall, 25% of the genes which were classified as ‘significantly enriched’ ( $p < .05$ ) in the Hermes PEV screen are annotated in Pombase as being incompatible with vegetative growth in single allele deletions. In this study we demonstrate that a subpopulation of the alleles generated in essential genes during Hermes-mediated mutagenesis may be lethal in isolation; the distribution of insertions in essential gene bodies further suggests that it is unlikely that all of the alleles which emerged within this population of essential genes in our initial screen can be dismissed as hypomorphic alleles. Thus, bypassable essential genes are more likely to be enriched by positive

selection for a phenotype of interest within genetic screens such as the one described in this study, potentially as a result of suppressors emerging within mutagenized cells.

#### 2.3.4 *Generation of novel essential gene mutants using cloning free CRISPR*

Given that the nature of the Hermes screen precluded recovery of individual mutants of interest once all libraries had been analyzed, we set out to test whether we could generate silencing defective mutants in candidate essential PEV genes using CRISPR/Cas9-mediated mutagenesis. The cloning free CRISPR system (X.-R. Zhang et al., 2018) is a flexible platform for rapid deployment of CRISPR/Cas9 gene editing technology and allowed us to rapidly screen through several genes as a proof-of-principle sub-screen. In summary, a short fragment containing the gRNA expression cassette is generated by PCR and co-transformed with a restriction-digested vector containing the Cas9 expression cassettes. Short homologies and a marker gene split between the PCR product and the digested vector permit direct assembly by homologous recombination *in vivo* of a functional CRISPR/Cas9 mutagenesis plasmid. Since the digested vector is universal, multiple targeting gRNAs can be rapidly generated and tested. Cas9 targeting was carried out in a strain carrying a pericentromeric *ade6+* reporter to permit rapid visual screening of Cas9-resistant colonies for identification of mutations affecting heterochromatin integrity. In this experimental setup, colonies in which the reporter is de-repressed by Cas9-induced mutations affecting pericentromeric silencing would be expected to appear white or pink while mutations with no effect on silencing would remain red in appearance on low adenine media (Figure 2.4a). PAM sites with optimal guide sequences in proximity to insertions which emerged from the screen were

identified and used for Cas9 targeting. The targeted genes and locations are summarized in (Table 2.3).

Rik1 and Dcr1 are both non-essential genes with a well-described role in heterochromatin formation and maintenance; accordingly, virtually all sgRNAs targeting both genes produced a number of silencing defective colonies. To confirm that the loss of silencing correlated with a CRISPR-induced mutation in the target gene, several representative strains were sequenced revealing single base pair deletions near the CRISPR target site which produced frameshifts in their respective gene coding sequences.

*top2* and *top3* were once again selected from the candidate essential PEV genes for independent targeting by several sgRNAs in addition to the significantly enriched essential gene *tel2* ( $p = .03$ ). Tel2 plays an important role in the Mrc1-mediated replication checkpoint in fission yeast (Shikata, Ishikawa, & Kanoh, 2007; Takai, Xie, de Lange, & Pavletich, 2010; Xu et al., 2019). In budding yeast Tel2 participates in regulation of telomere length and PEV at the telomeres; however, we did not find any publications addressing a role for Tel2 in maintenance of centromeric heterochromatin in either organism (Runge & Zakian, 1996).

Any Cas9/sgRNA-expressing colonies appearing pink or white on low adenine media were patched to YEA before amplifying and sequencing an ~1 kb region surrounding the sgRNA target site to identify CRISPR-induced mutations. Of the six sgRNAs targeting *top2*, one produced a lysine to glutamine mutation corresponding with derepression of the *ade6+* reporter. Two sgRNAs were deployed to target *top3*. One

sgRNA did not produce any silencing defective colonies while the other produced multiple mutations associated with impaired *ade6+* repression. Further, several of the *top3* mutations appeared independently in multiple colonies. All of the *top3* mutant colonies appeared small and pink, suggesting they exhibited a mild silencing defect and viability defect; however, the apparent viability defect was partially alleviated by patching the colonies to YEA to allow for loss of the Cas9-sgRNA expressing plasmid. Finally, one of 6 sgRNAs targeting *tel2* independently produced two silencing defective colonies bearing identical deletions of three base pairs resulting in the conversion of sequential asparagine and glutamic acid residues to a single lysine residue.

The newly isolated mutant alleles and affected domains are summarized in (Figure 2.4a, Figure 2.14). *top2*<sup>K388Q</sup> affects a conserved lysine residue in the ATPase domain which has been found to be SUMOylated in fission yeast (Køhler et al., 2015) (Figure 2.14b). *top3*<sup>S69del</sup> and *top3*<sup>E70K</sup> affect residues in the Toprim (Topoisomerase-primase) domain which do not appear to be conserved themselves but are located between two highly conserved hydrophobic residues (Figure 2.14c). *top3*<sup>E70Y71D</sup> affects the same glutamic acid residue at position 70 in addition to a moderately conserved tyrosine residue found in bacterial Top3 and human Top3β (FIG). Finally, *tel2*<sup>N765E766K</sup> affects an arginine residue found in both budding and fission yeast which appears to reside outside of any annotated protein domains (Figure 2.14a).

### 2.3.5 *Top2, Tel2, and Top3 mutant alleles exhibit replicative stress and mitotic defects*

After isolation and identification of our CRISPR mutant alleles we set out to characterize the mutant phenotypes in the context of *top2*, *top3*, and *tel2*'s previously

described roles in DNA replication, repair, and checkpoint activation (Goodwin et al., 1999; Goto & Wang, 1984; Mengoli et al., 2014; Shikata et al., 2007; Win et al., 2004; Xu et al., 2019). We subsequently noted that two of the *top3* mutants (*top3*<sup>S69del</sup> and *top3*<sup>E70Y71D</sup>) and *tel2*<sup>N765E766K</sup> exhibited a significant growth defect when grown at 37° C (Figure 2.5a, Figure 2.8d), therefore we analyzed the phenotype of these genes at both restrictive and permissive temperatures.

Visualization of yeast cells grown overnight at 37° C and 32° C revealed that at the permissive temperature the cell morphology of each of the mutant cells appeared mostly normal, with a slight increase in the proportion of elongated cells observed in all three *top3* mutants in addition to an increase in the number of vacuolar structures visible inside the cells (Figure 2.5). At 37° C, however, the majority of *top3*<sup>S69del</sup> and *top3*<sup>E70Y71D</sup> cells appeared massively elongated, while the elongation phenotype did not show any appreciable difference in the other mutants compared to cells grown at 32° C (Figure 2.5). Taken together, we concluded that all three *top3* mutants appear to be undergoing cell cycle arrest as a consequence of initiation of an intact DNA damage checkpoint, most likely indicative of varying levels of unresolved replicative stress; the cellular morphology of *tel2*<sup>N765E766</sup> and *top2*<sup>K388Q</sup> appeared mostly normal notwithstanding a subtle increase in the proportion of elongated cells in *top2*<sup>K388Q</sup>.

Given that *top2*, *top3*, and *tel2* all have described roles in DNA replication and repair we assayed the mutant alleles for sensitivity to various genotoxic agents, a hallmark of DNA replication, checkpoint, and/or repair defective mutants (Figure 2.6). Camptothecin is a topoisomerase 1 inhibitor that leads to a buildup of torsional stress by trapping Top1-DNA cleavage complexes which can in turn serve as further impediments

to the replication fork (L. F. Liu et al., 2000; Y. Pommier et al., 2006; Vesela, Chroma, Turi, & Mistrik, 2017). Hydroxyurea inhibits the ribonucleotide reductase enzyme thereby depleting cellular dNTPs and inhibiting DNA replication in S phase (Koc, Wheeler, Mathews, & Merrill, 2004; Slater, 1973). Methyl methanesulfonate (MMS) is an alkylating agent which causes the formation of secondary structures which impede replication fork progression, therefore sensitivity to MMS has often been observed in strains with defective checkpoint responses or repair or in certain replisome mutants (Lundin et al., 2005; Ranatunga & Forsburg, 2016; Vesela et al., 2017).

*tel2*<sup>E765N766K</sup> exhibited a significant drop in viability at the restrictive temperature after exposure to any of the three genotoxic agents assayed as well as a mild loss of viability when exposed to hydroxyurea at a permissive temperature, indicating mild ongoing replicative stress exacerbated by shifting to restrictive temperature. *top2*<sup>K388Q</sup> and *top3*<sup>E70K</sup> were insensitive to all of the genotoxins tested, while *top3*<sup>S69del</sup> and *top3*<sup>E70Y71D</sup> exhibited a slight sensitivity to HU at the permissive temperature which became more pronounced after shifting to the restrictive temperature in addition to mild sensitivity to CPT and MMS at higher concentrations (FIG).

DAPI staining of all mutant strains grown at 32° C revealed chromosome segregation defects such as lagging chromosomes and abnormally partitioned chromosomal material in *top2*<sup>K388Q</sup> and *top3* mutants in accordance with previously described *top2* and *top3* mutant phenotypes (Figure 2.7). Many *tel2*<sup>N765E766K</sup> mutant cells exhibited the ‘cell untimely torn (*cut*)’ phenotype characterized by initiation of cytokinesis/septation prior to complete nuclear division commonly observed among mitotic and checkpoint defective mutants (Griffiths, Uchiyama, Nurse, & Wang, 2000;

Uemura & Yanagida, 1984; Yanagida, 1998). The *cut* phenotype was also observed in the *top2*<sup>K388Q</sup> and *top3* mutants, presumably as a consequence of abnormal chromosome segregation. The severity and penetrance of these phenotypes increased at the restrictive temperature, with the majority of *top3*<sup>S69del</sup> and *top3*<sup>E70Y71D</sup> mutant cells lacking any recognizable nuclear structure and often appearing as massively elongated multiseptate cells (Figure 2.7).

Although the penetrance of the observed morphological differences and sensitivity to DNA damaging agents varied, all of the mutants analyzed exhibited signs of replicative stress and/or mitotic defects in accordance with mutant phenotypes previously associated with the affected genes (Goodwin, Wang, Toda, Norbury, & Hickson, 1999; Goto & Wang, 1984; Mengoli et al., 2014; Win, Goodwin, Hickson, Norbury, & Wang, 2004). The extent of the defects in *top2*<sup>K388Q</sup>, however, were mild and only became apparent after visualizing cell nuclei by DAPI staining; the same was true for *top3*<sup>E70K</sup> despite the fact that it shares an affected residue with *top3*<sup>E70Y71D</sup>. The morphologically normal appearance of *tel2*<sup>N765E766K</sup> combined with the apparent replicative stress suggested by its sensitivity to genotoxic agents and decreased overall viability suggests defective checkpoint activation in this mutant, consistent with its previously described role in activation of the DNA replication checkpoint by phosphorylation of the replication checkpoint adaptor protein Mrc1 (Shikata et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2019; Zhao & Russell, 2004). Thus, the newly isolated mutant alleles recapitulate many of the same phenotypes previously attributed to the affected genes and presumably affect at least one or several of the canonical functions associated with each gene.

### 2.3.6 Mutants generated by CRISPR-Cas9 mediated mutagenesis in essential genes *tel2*, *top2*, and *top3* exhibit loss of heterochromatin and transcriptional de-repression

All of the mutants of interest had been isolated because they appeared to affect *ade6+* reporter silencing, therefore we performed a more formal analysis of the newly generated mutants to characterize the extent and nature of the silencing defect in each mutant. Streaking out each mutant to single colonies on low adenine media to assess the uniformity of reporter de-repression revealed that each mutant exhibited slightly higher variegation frequency than the wild type parent strain, with *tel2*<sup>N765E766K</sup> exhibiting the most dramatic increase in variegation rates (Figure 2.8a,b,c). Given that the majority of the mutations produced DNA replication, repair, and/or checkpoint defects we confirmed that the change in reporter expression in white colonies was attributable to epigenetic changes and not the result of a mutator phenotype. Picking colonies appearing white on low adenine media, patching them onto rich media for approximately 40 generations, and streaking them back onto low adenine media confirmed that nearly all of the previously white colonies had fully or partially reverted back to a heterochromatinized state with freshly struck out cells appearing pink or red (not shown) (Loeb, Springgate, & Battula, 1974; Serero, Jubin, Loeillet, Legoix-Né, & Nicolas, 2014; Sohl, Ray, & Sweasy, 2015). Consistent with a PEV defect, reporter silencing appeared less static in all three mutants (Figure 2.8b). The difference in reporter expression was subtler and more difficult to detect by traditional serial dilution spotting assays on YE media and/or synthetic media with low adenine at 32° C; we speculate that this may be due in part to the mildness of the defect and/or the unstable nature of the alleles and their stochastic effect on reporter silencing, or may represent a differential loss of silencing between the reporter and



endogenous pericentromeric heterochromatin. The apparent silencing defect is more pronounced in temperature sensitive mutants *top3*<sup>S69del</sup>, *top3*<sup>E70Y71D</sup>, and *tel2*<sup>N765E766K</sup> at restrictive temperature, however, producing a noticeable change in reporter expression indicating that the loss of silencing phenotype is enhanced in conjunction with the loss of viability at restrictive temperatures (Figure 2.8d). The *dcr1*<sup>565fs</sup> allele generated in the previous CRISPR mutagenesis screen is included in this and subsequent analyses as a positive control, as it exhibited a near-complete loss of silencing at the centromere (Figure 2.8d, Figure 2.10).

*dg* and *dh* repeats are found in the outer pericentromeric region of all three chromosomes in *S. pombe*; while *dg* and *dh* repeat number varies between chromosomes the repeat sequence itself is well conserved (Alper et al., 2012; Chikashige et al., 1989) (Figure 2.10). To determine whether *top2*, *top3*, or *tel2* mutants exhibit a more general defect in heterochromatic silencing we analyzed the expression of the pericentromeric repeats *dg* and *dh* in each mutant (Figure 2.9a,b). *top2*, *top3*, and *tel2* mutants showed a modest increase in *dg* and *dh* expression at 32° C while *dcr1*<sup>565fs</sup> produced a considerable increase in repeat expression (Figure 2.9a). Given that repeat contraction and/or expansion is not uncommon at repetitive elements, particularly under conditions of aberrant transcription and in replication and recombination defective mutants, we analyzed genomic DNA for copy number differences that might explain the apparent increase (T. Kobayashi & Ganley, 2005; Takehiko Kobayashi, Heck, Nomura, & Horiuchi, 1998; Salim et al., 2017). While there were slight fluctuations in copy number which may suggest that copy number at repetitive elements is more elastic in *top2*, *top3*,

and *tel2* mutant backgrounds, there was nothing which would adequately explain the observed increase in transcription (Figure 2.15).

We then analyzed whether pericentromeric heterochromatin levels were affected in each mutant in addition to de-repression of pericentromeric transcripts by comparing relative H3K9me2 levels at the pericentromeric repeats in each of the newly isolated mutants by ChIP-qPCR. Dimethylated H3K9me2 is the primary heterochromatic mark in fission yeast and is typically enriched in heterochromatic domains including the pericentromeric repeats (J. Nakayama, J. C. Rice, B. D. Strahl, C. D. Allis, & S. I. Grewal, 2001; Yamada, Fischle, Sugiyama, Allis, & Grewal, 2005); with the exception of *top2*<sup>K388Q</sup>, which showed only a modest reduction, all mutants tested exhibited a clear decrease in H3K9me2 at *dg* and *dh* repeats (Figure 2.9c).

In addition to the pericentromeric repeats, other major regions of constitutive heterochromatin include the mating type locus, subtelomeric regions, and ribosomal DNA repeats. To determine whether the silencing defects exhibited by the *top2*, *top3*, and *tel2* mutants are restricted to the pericentromeric region or affect heterochromatic domains more broadly we analyzed the effect of each mutation at ribosomal DNA. Similar to what was observed at the pericentromeric repeats there was a significant reduction in H3K9me2 enrichment at rDNA in all three *top3* mutants and *tel2*<sup>N765E766K</sup> (Figure 2.9d). Thus, loss of heterochromatic markings appears consistent between RNAi-responsive heterochromatin at both the pericentromere and rDNA repeats in *top3* and *tel2* mutants.

Maintenance and establishment of subtelomeric heterochromatin is distinct from the RNAi-dependent heterochromatin found within pericentromeric and ribosomal DNA repeats, and so we asked whether heterochromatin levels were also affected at the subtelomeric regions. Each essential gene mutant was crossed into a series of subtelomeric *ura4+* reporters which are typically repressed to different degrees depending on their proximity to the chromosome end and subject to serial dilution spotting assays; the reporter/mutation combinations tested are summarized in (Table 2.4). In each reporter/mutant combination there was either no visible change in reporter silencing or, in the case of *top2*<sup>K388Q</sup> and *top3*<sup>E70Y71D</sup>, the effect was stochastic and varied between experiments, sometimes appearing to elicit increased reporter silencing and at other times an apparent decrease in reporter silencing (not shown). Interestingly, although *tel2*<sup>N765E766K</sup> has a strong effect on pericentromeric reporter silencing, there was no observable effect on subtelomeric reporter expression. *tel2* mutants in budding yeast exhibit a telomeric position effect variegation phenotype, which may suggest that the effect of this allele is specific to certain classes of constitutive heterochromatin or that *tel2* does not influence subtelomeric PEV in fission yeast despite its role in maintenance of telomere length (Runge & Zakian, 1996; Xu et al., 2019). More work is needed to characterize the molecular phenotypes of each mutant at the subtelomeres; taken together, these results may suggest that loss of heterochromatin in *tel2*<sup>N765E766K</sup>, *top3*<sup>E70K</sup>, *top3*<sup>S69del</sup>, and *top3*<sup>E70Y71D</sup> is unique to RNAi-dependent heterochromatin. With this limited data other confounding factors such as increased *ura4+* reporter instability in subtelomeric heterochromatin cannot be ruled out, however.

RNAi is the primary pathway by which heterochromatin is established in *S. pombe* at the pericentromeric and ribosomal DNA repeats (Volpe et al., 2002). With the exception of *top2*<sup>K388Q</sup> all of the mutants analyzed in this study exhibited pericentromeric and rDNA heterochromatin silencing defects, therefore we investigated whether the RNAi pathway or siRNA biogenesis was perturbed by isolation and high-throughput sequencing of siRNAs from each mutant. Pericentromeric siRNAs were unaffected in *top2*<sup>K388Q</sup>, suggesting that the core RNAi pathway remains intact in this mutant. *tel2*<sup>N765E766K</sup>, *top3*<sup>E70K</sup>, *top3*<sup>S69del</sup>, and *top3*<sup>E70Y71D</sup> all showed an increase in siRNAs (Figure 2.10).

Taken together, these observations suggest that the core RNAi pathway is preserved in all mutants. The increase in siRNAs observed at *dg* and *dh* repeats in *tel2*<sup>N765E766K</sup>, *top3*<sup>E70K</sup>, *top3*<sup>S69del</sup>, and *top3*<sup>E70Y71D</sup> are presumably a product of increased pericentromeric transcript production; the accompanying reduction in heterochromatin suggests that recruitment of chromatin modifying enzymes has been decoupled from RNAi activity in these mutants in a manner reminiscent of *clr3* histone deacetylase (HDAC) mutants in fission yeast (Yamada et al., 2005). RNAi and chromatin assembly occur in a self-reinforcing positive feedback loop, therefore even minor interference in either of these essential processes can substantially affect heterochromatic silencing. Paradoxically, however, the same relationship is not observed in *top2*<sup>K388Q</sup> despite the fact that pericentromeric transcript expression also increases. More work is needed to more thoroughly dissect the relationship between the loss of transcriptional silencing observed in these mutants and their effect on heterochromatin levels; going forward, however, these alleles and the general approach described in this study may provide a

much-needed platform for a mechanistic dissection of the candidate genes included in this study and their contribution to the observed heterochromatin and transcriptional silencing defects.

## **2.4 Discussion**

This study describes a novel implementation of Hermes integration density profiling utilizing positive selection to identify genes affecting PEV of a pericentromeric heterochromatin reporter, followed by CRISPR/Cas9-directed mutagenesis of candidate essential and non-essential genes. The combination of a saturated Hermes insertion screen with CRISPR/Cas9 directed mutagenesis constitutes a mixed forward/reverse genetics agile approach leveraging the rapid identification of candidate genes in TE insertion screens with the flexibility obtained by mutagenesis using CRISPR/Cas9. With this combined approach we were able to identify and obtain novel alleles in essential genes contributing to heterochromatin silencing for further analysis.

We identified a number of genes with a known role in centromeric silencing which were significantly enriched within the Hermes PEV screen, confirming robust selection for PEV modifiers using the approach described herein. We also found that insertions affecting essential genes involved in DNA replication, repair, and recombination, in addition to a number of other essential cellular processes, were similarly enriched. Previous screens have uncovered a role for DNA replication and repair components in heterochromatin maintenance; however, many essential genes have been necessarily precluded from such analysis as a consequence of their requirement for viability (Elizabeth H. Bayne et al., 2014; Jahn et al., 2018). Reconstruction of several Hermes

insertions which emerged from the screen revealed that that they were lethal alleles, suggesting that similar integration events in essential gene ORFs are also likely to impact viability. We were also able to rule out the possibility that these insertions may have been propagated in pseudodiploid cells and enriched as a consequence of a dominant PEV phenotype.

We hypothesize that the appearance and persistence of these lethal alleles may be explained by extragenic suppressors arising either spontaneously or through independent Hermes insertion events in other genomic locations. With this line of reasoning we demonstrated that a known suppressor of *top3* mutant lethality, *rqh1Δ*, did not similarly suppress the loss of silencing associated with *top3* mutants. Taken together, the findings reported here suggest that as the principles underlying essentiality bypass are revealed and the complex genetic interactions occurring as a result are better understood these phenomena may be further exploited to allow for detection of novel phenotypes associated with essential genes. Suppressors have previously been used to probe the involvement of essential gene in cellular pathways; a systematic application of these principles can be leveraged in the design and deployment of next-generation genetic screens (Ben-Shahar et al., 2008; Du & Novick, 2002; J. Li et al., 2019). The outcome of the screen described in this study, moreover, suggests that the use of positive selection facilitates the enrichment of insertions eliciting functional consequences in essential genes. Going forward, identification of methods to accelerate and promote the occurrence of essentiality suppressors may enhance this approach and lend itself to a pipeline whereby essential genes affecting a phenotype of interest can be rapidly identified

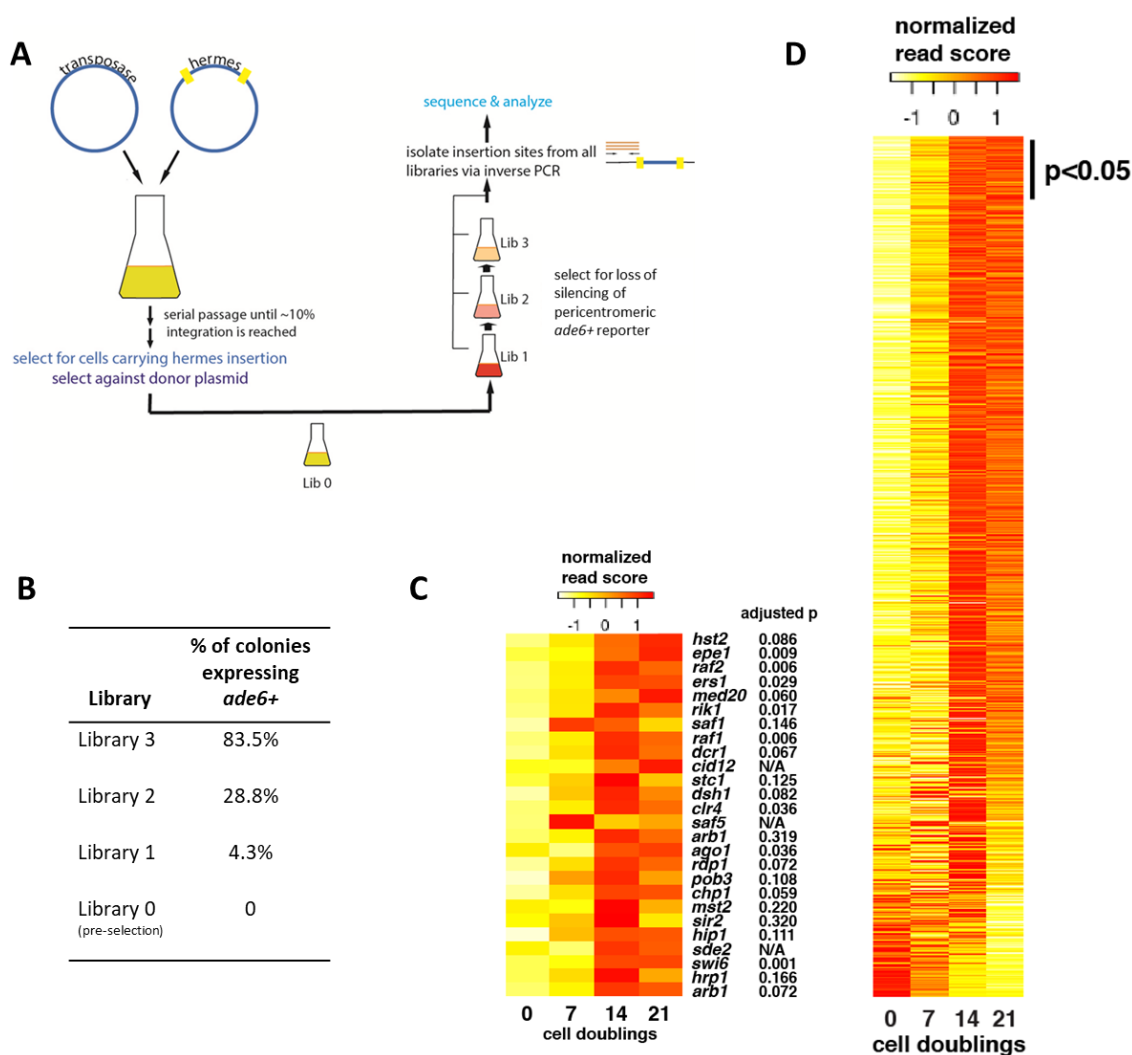
followed by generation of a panel of alleles informed by screen outcomes to probe the underlying mechanism.

Li et. al. (2019) noted that ‘bypassable’ essential genes often correlated with slow spore lethality and relatively high transposon insertion densities when cells were mutagenized with the Hermes transposon (J. Li et al., 2019). Since the loss of viability in those instances is often delayed (ie. spores are capable of generating microcolonies before growth cessation) there is a small window of opportunity for extragenic suppressors to arise. Given that the screen as described utilizes a plasmid based transposon system, multiple copies of the transposon may be available for integration at any given time potentially resulting in multiple insertions within a single cell. Further, given that many of the mutagenized genes which emerged have known roles in DNA replication, repair, and recombination, it is possible that spontaneous mutation rates may have been globally accelerated due to alteration or impairment of these essential cellular processes prior to onset of lethality (Kokoska et al., 1998; V. F. Liu, Bhaumik, & Wang, 1999; Morrison & Sugino, 1994; Tubbs & Nussenzweig, 2017). By analyzing and identifying the molecular underpinnings influencing the conversion of essential genes into non-essential genes, researchers can undertake a rational approach to the design and optimization of genetic screens which are less restricted by the ‘essential’ status of genes. Many essential genes are intimately involved in a number of complex cellular processes and pathways, yet their multifaceted function is obscured outside of their requirement for survival. In this study we provide evidence that BOE may be exploited for screening purposes to facilitate the identification of essential genes contributing to a phenotype of interest, thereby broadening the available ‘genetic screening space’.

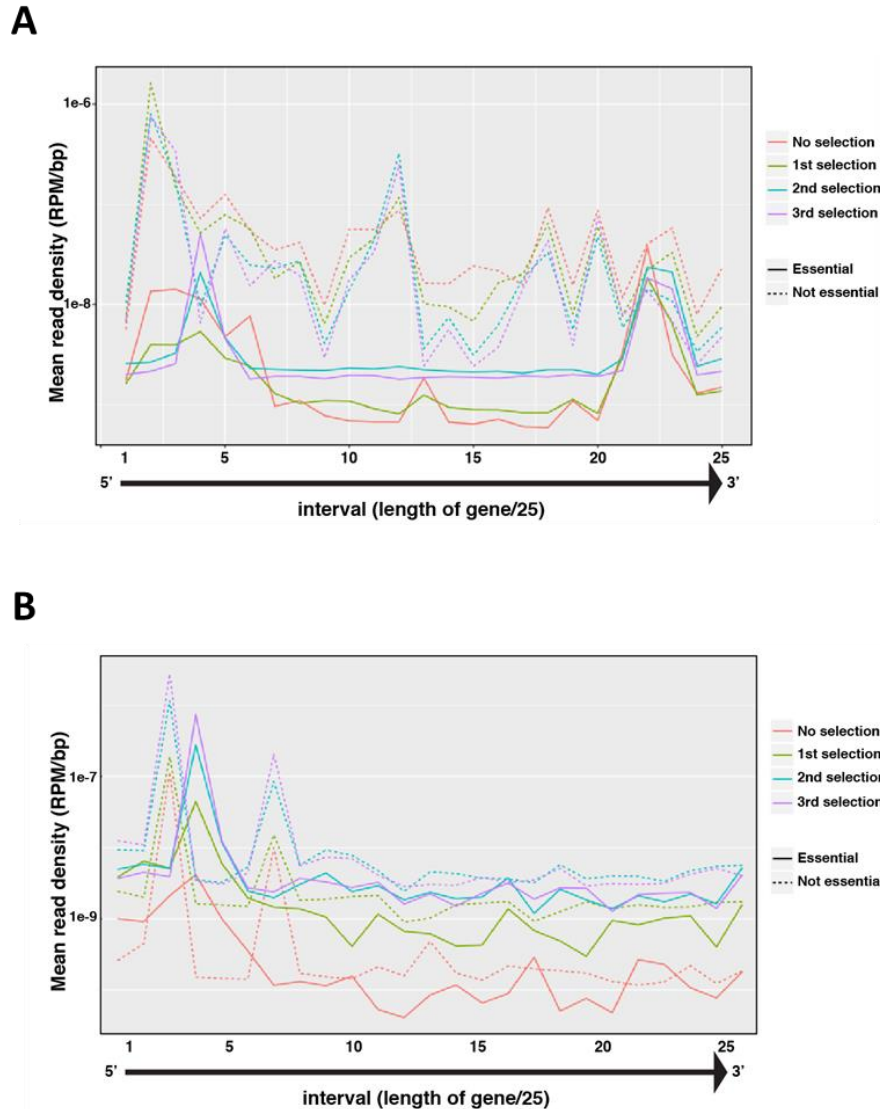
Further, Li. et. al. report that 26% of the bypassable genes identified in their study were only uncovered by point mutations or insertion alleles and would have been missed without their two-pronged approach utilizing both chemical mutagenesis and transposable element insertion. Our work has shown that CRISPR-Cas9 can also be deployed to generate point mutations in non-essential and essential genes which retain viability but exhibit novel phenotypes of interest. Therefore, the use of alternate complementary mutagenesis approaches such as the CRISPR-Cas9 induced mutagenesis described in this work may enhance the coverage of the BOE suppressor mutation space by expanding the genetic toolkit available to researchers. A further advantage of generating alleles with the CRISPR/Cas9 system is that the mutations obtained can provide potential insights into the mechanism of action. As an example, while the majority of Cas9 sgRNAs directed against *top2* did not produce any viable mutants with an apparent silencing defect, we noted that the sole *top2* mutant identified- *top2*<sup>K388Q</sup>- eliminates a previously described SUMOylation site in the K loop of its ATPase domain (Køhler et al., 2015). It has been proposed that the interaction of this region with DNA triggers ATP hydrolysis and subsequent release of DNA from the enzyme (Køhler et al., 2015; Schmidt, Osheroff, & Berger, 2012). Top2 functions in maintaining and establishing chromatin topology during DNA replication, transcription, and chromosome segregation by unwinding and disentangling DNA throughout these processes, which generate considerable amounts of topological distortion. This activity is accomplished by cleavage of double-stranded DNA through a transesterification reaction, generating a transient covalently bound DNA-protein cleavage complex (Top2cc) which is subsequently cleared after re-ligation of cleaved DNA (Wei et al., 2017). It has been



proposed that Top2 SUMOylation may be an important mechanism for regulation of Top2cc in instances where these DNA adducts persist by promoting their degradation (Hall & Goralski, 2018; Wei et al., 2017). Interestingly, topoisomerase poisons which lock the enzyme in the closed covalently bound state by blocking ATP hydrolysis have also been demonstrated to impair reformation of facultative heterochromatin in human cells (Miller et al., 2017). In fission yeast, the SUMO E3 ligase *pli1* promotes Top2 SUMOylation; *pli1* was also identified in a genetic screen for mutants exhibiting heterochromatin silencing defects and has been previously demonstrated to play a role in heterochromatic silencing at the centromeres and telomeres in fission yeast (Jahn et al., 2018; Xhemalce, Seeler, Thon, Dejean, & Arcangioli, 2004). Taken together, these results may suggest that the heterochromatin silencing defects associated with the *top2* mutant described in this study and *pli1* may share the same mechanistic origin in SUMOylation-mediated regulation of Top2 processing; more follow up is needed to determine the nature of the relationship between these genes and their pursuant effect on heterochromatic silencing. The use of CRISPR/Cas9-directed mutagenesis can facilitate the production of unique alleles in essential genes which, unlike the use of random mutagenic agents, can easily be recovered for further analysis when using a candidate approach. Going forward, combining these alleles with established suppressors may permit surgical dissection of the affected essential processes to disentangle the contributions of essential genes to a number of vital cellular processes.

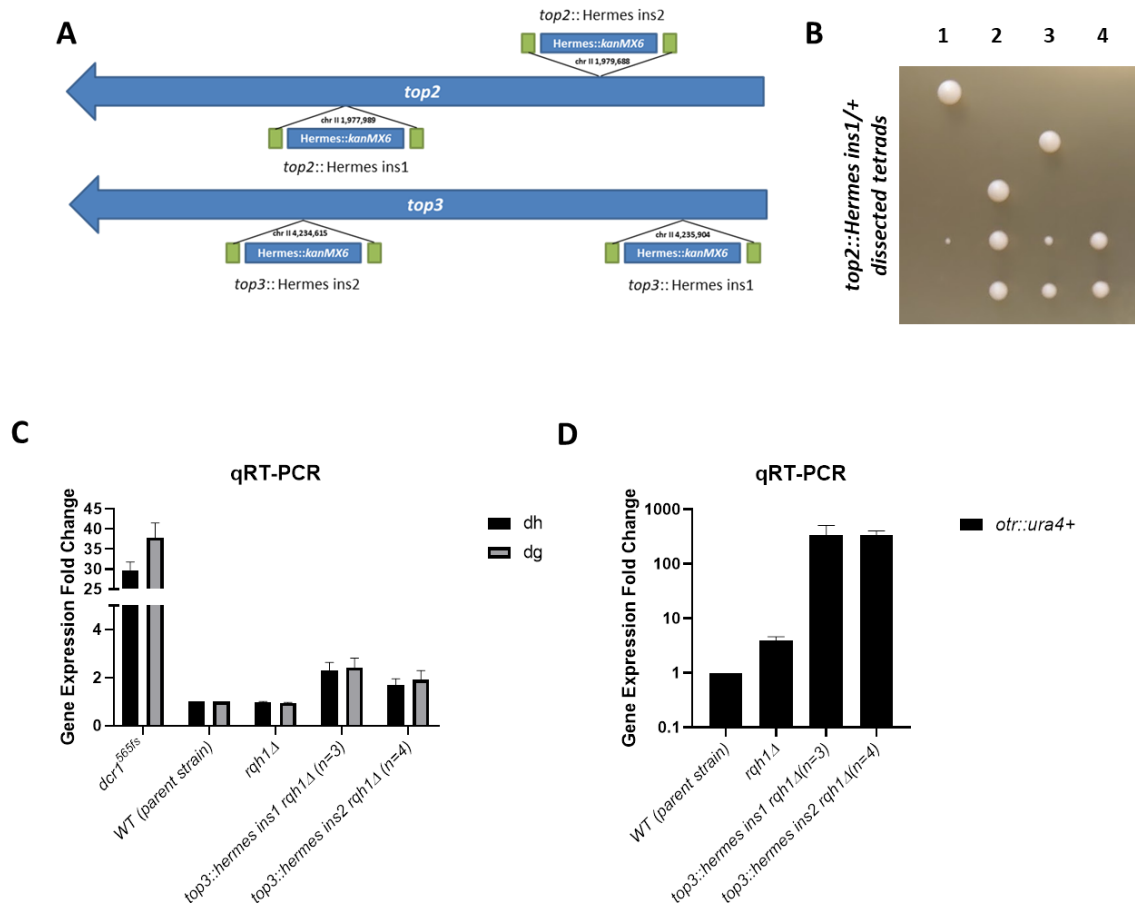


**Figure 2.1. Hermes PEV Screen Overview.** A. Schematic of the PEV screen. Cells were co-transformed with a transposase-expressing and transposon-containing plasmids and transposition was induced for ~12 days (135 generations) before selecting for cells carrying genomic Hermes integration events and placing the Hermes-enriched cell population through several rounds of positive selection for pericentromeric *ade6+* reporter re-repression. B. Table showing the proportion of white (ie. *ade6+*-expressing) cells after each round of selection for reporter de-repression. C. Heat map showing Z-scores for genes annotated as affecting centromeric silencing; p values are indicated to the right. Z scores reflect normalized read counts per gene. D. Heat map showing the Z-score for all genes passing filter throughout each round of selection. Significantly enriched genes ( $p < .05$ ) are indicated on the right. Z scores reflect normalized read counts per gene.

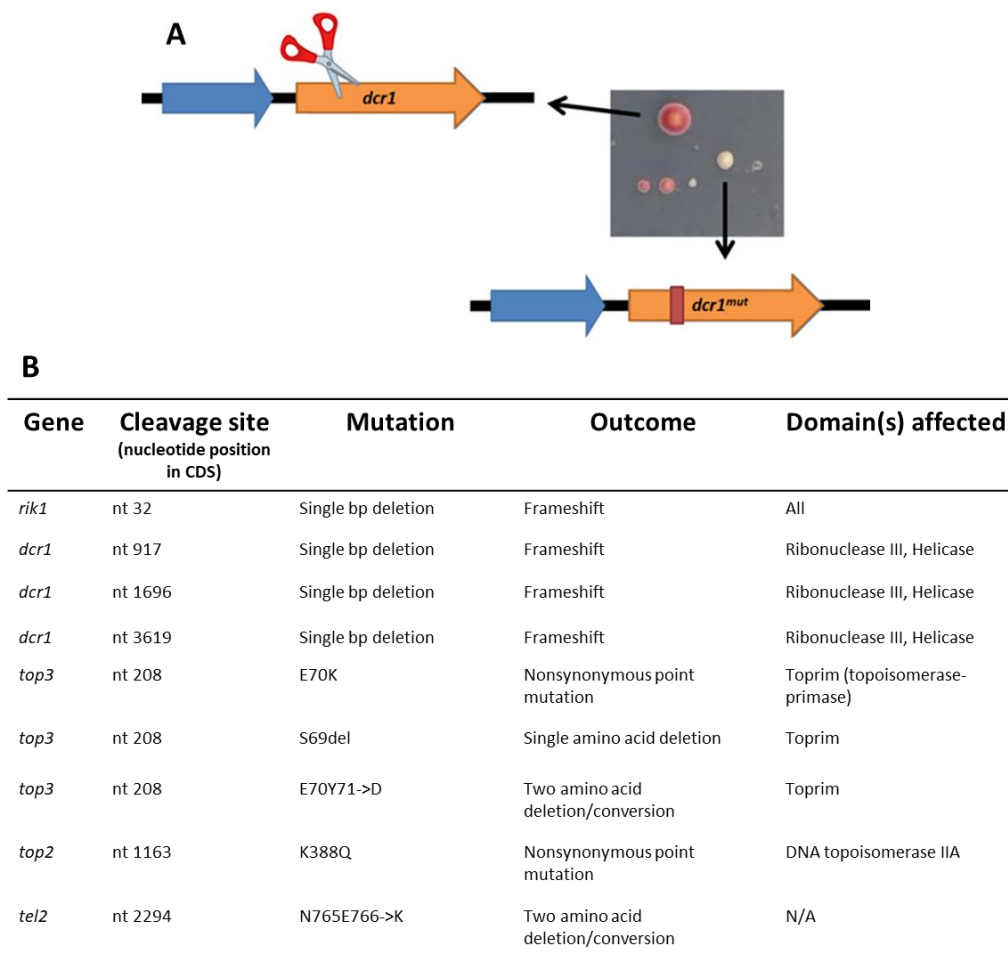


**Figure 2.2. Genes which are significantly enriched within the Hermes PEV screen have increased integration site read density within both essential and non-essential gene ORFs.**

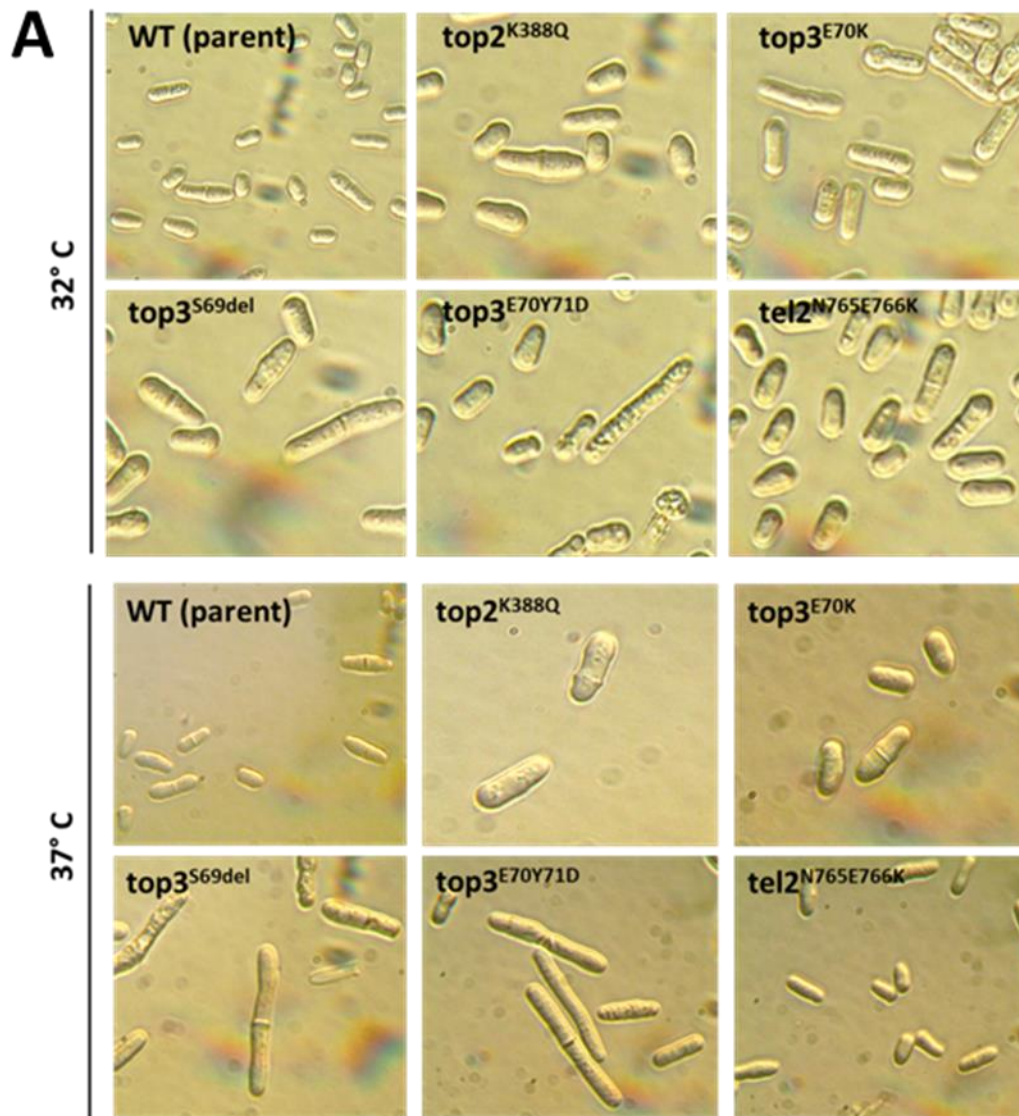
A. Mean read density from all four libraries (pre-selection in addition to three sequential post-selection libraries) plotted over both essential (solid lines) and non-essential genes (dashed lines) for all genes passing the described filtering criteria ( $n=3,760$ ). Reads are evenly distributed across the majority of non-essential genes, while reads in essential genes show peaks in the 5' and 3' gene ends. B. Mean read density from all four libraries (pre-selection in addition to three sequential post-selection libraries) plotted over both essential (solid lines) and non-essential genes (dashed lines) which were considered significantly enriched in the PEV screen ( $n=263$ ). Reads in both essential and non-essential genes show a peak in the 5' ends of genes which becomes more prominent with each round of selection, while the separation between read distribution in the body of essential and non-essential genes decreases relative to the overall population of analyzed genes.



**Figure 2.3. Rqh1 knockout suppresses the lethality associated with *top3*::Hermes mutant alleles but does not suppress the associated silencing defect.** A. Schematic showing insertion points of Hermes fragments for reconstruction of Hermes alleles in *top2* and *top3*. Integration sites are indicated. B. Diploids carrying Hermes insertions in *top2* or *top3* were sporulated on ME and plated on YEA for 6 hours at 32° C prior to dissection of tetrads. Dissected Hermes-carrying tetrads occasionally produced variable numbers of sporulated colonies but none carrying a Hermes insertion, indicating that all four *top2*::Hermes and *top3*::Hermes alleles tested are lethal. Pictured is a representative image of four dissected tetrads sporulated from *top2*::Hermes diploids. Each row indicated contains a dissected tetrad. C. Analysis of *dg* and *dh* transcript expression by qRT-PCR in *rqh1*  $\Delta$  *top3*::Hermes double mutants. *rqh1* was knocked out in diploids carrying one of the two *top3*::Hermes insertions (*ins1* or *ins2*) and *dg* and *dh* expression was analyzed in several transformants from each respective genotype; the number of transformants analyzed is indicated next to the strain name, qPCR reactions for each transformant were set up in triplicate. *dg* and *dh* expression was consistently increased in all transformants tested, the average of all trials is shown here. All strains shown in this experiment were grown at 32° C in rich media (YEA) prior to RNA extraction. Error bars= SEM. D. Analysis of *otr::ura4+* pericentromeric reporter expression in the same *rqh1*  $\Delta$  *top3*::Hermes double mutants. Error bars=SEM.

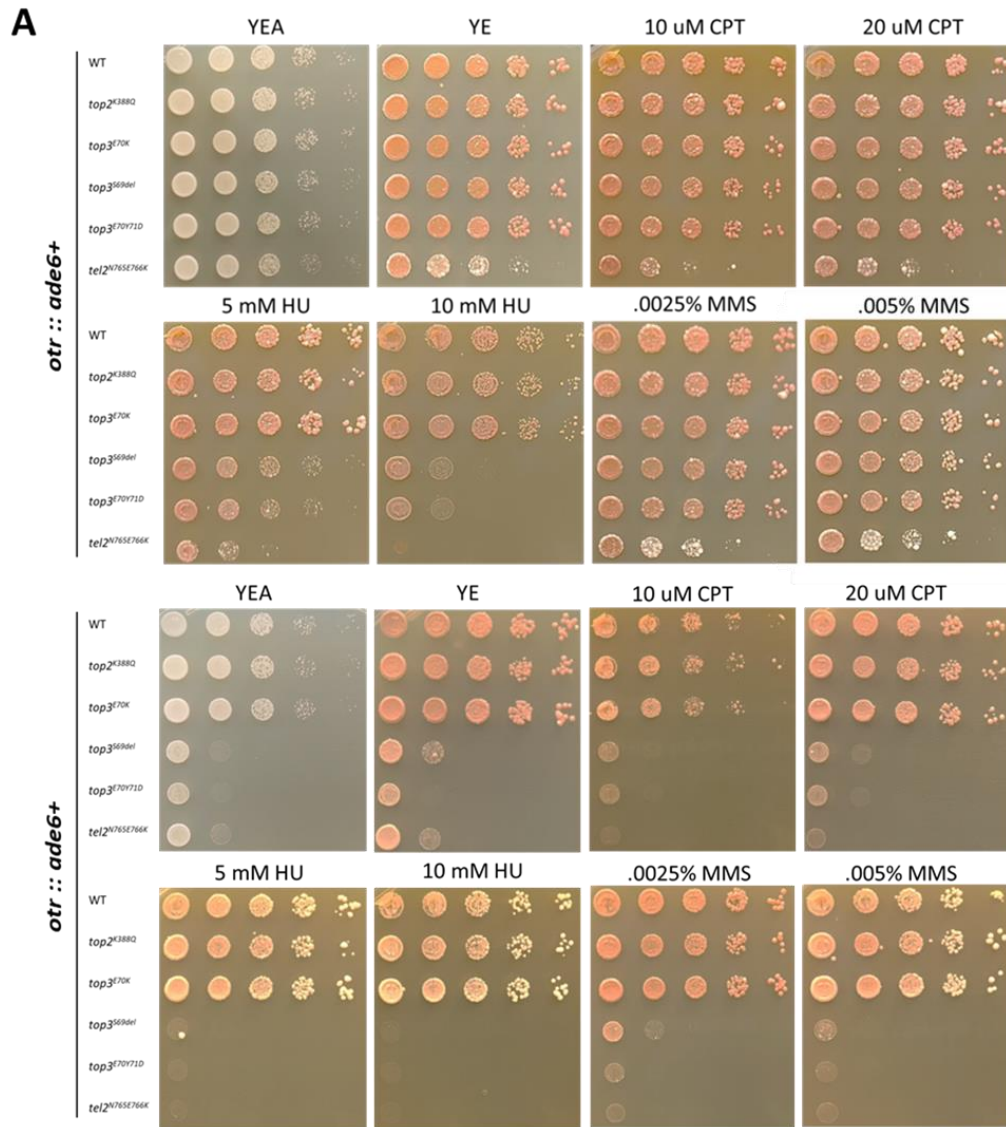


**Figure 2.4. CRISPR—Cas9 mutagenesis overview.** A. Cells carrying a pericentromeric *ade6+* reporter were transformed with single sgRNAs targeting regions carrying a PAM site and predicted to have high cleavage efficiency and low off-target activity closest to the location of insertions which emerged from the Hermes screen. Transformed cells were then plated on low adenine-containing media to facilitate identification of colonies with a reporter silencing defect by appearance (inset, cells transformed with a plasmid encoding Cas9 and sgRNA targeting *dcr1*). Colonies appearing pink or white were isolated and a region surrounding the PAM site was amplified and sent for Sanger sequencing to identify any mutations which may have been produced by Cas9 cleavage and repair. B. Summary of the mutants which emerged as a result of CRISPR-Cas9 mediated mutagenesis. The location of the cleavage site is indicated with respect to the start of the coding sequence as well as the mutation and its effect on the protein amino acid sequence and any affected domains.



**Figure 2.5. *top3* CRISPR mutant alleles exhibit signs of replicative stress.** A. Fission yeast grown on YEA at 32° C (upper panels) and 37° C (lower panels). *top3* mutants appear elongated, with an increase in visible vacuolar structures; the elongation phenotype increases significantly upon shifting temperature sensitive (ts) alleles to the restrictive temperature.



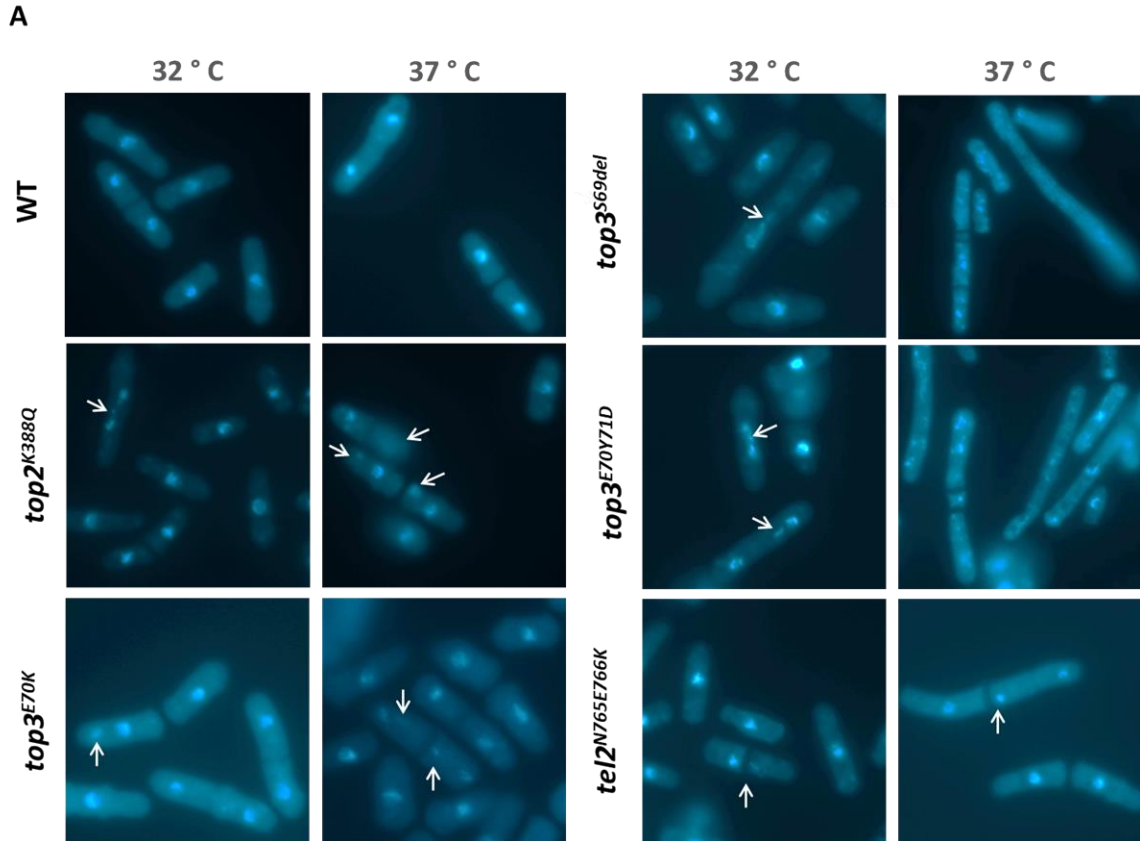


**Figure 2.6. *top3* and *tel2* CRISPR mutant alleles exhibit sensitivity to genotoxic agents. A.**

Upper panel series: Serial dilutions of indicated mutant alleles grown at 32° C and spotted on plates with DNA damaging agents added (genotoxin and concentration is indicated above each image, plates were imaged after 3-5 days). *top2<sup>K388Q</sup>* and *top<sup>E70K</sup>* are relatively insensitive to

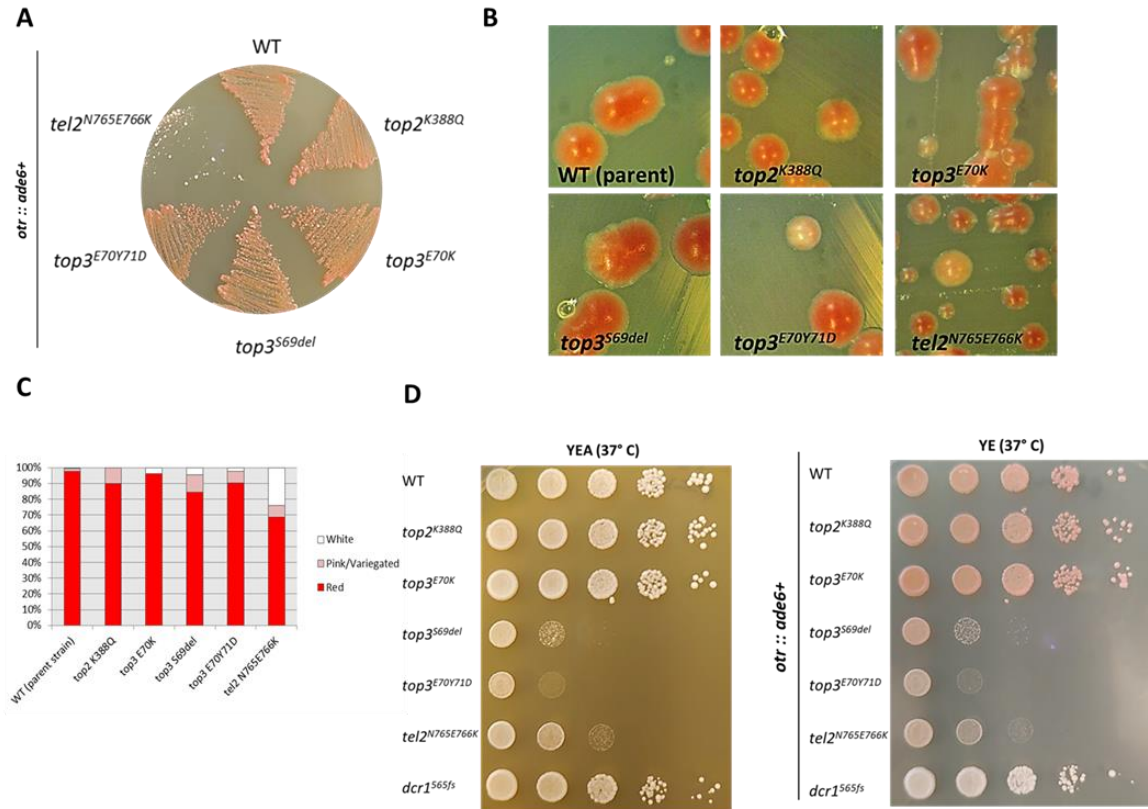
Camptothecin (CPT), hydroxyurea (HU), and MMS. The remaining temperature sensitive *top3<sup>S69del</sup>* and *tel2<sup>N765E766K</sup>* alleles show sensitivity to hydroxyurea at the permissive temperature; *tel<sup>E70Y71D</sup>* shows

slight sensitivity to CPT. Lower panel series: The same dilutions spotted on plates with DNA damaging agents and incubated at 37° C. At the restrictive temperature, *top3<sup>S69del</sup>*, *top3<sup>E70Y71D</sup>*, and *tel2<sup>N765E766K</sup>* all exhibit a mild sensitivity to CPT and MMS and a strong sensitivity to HU.



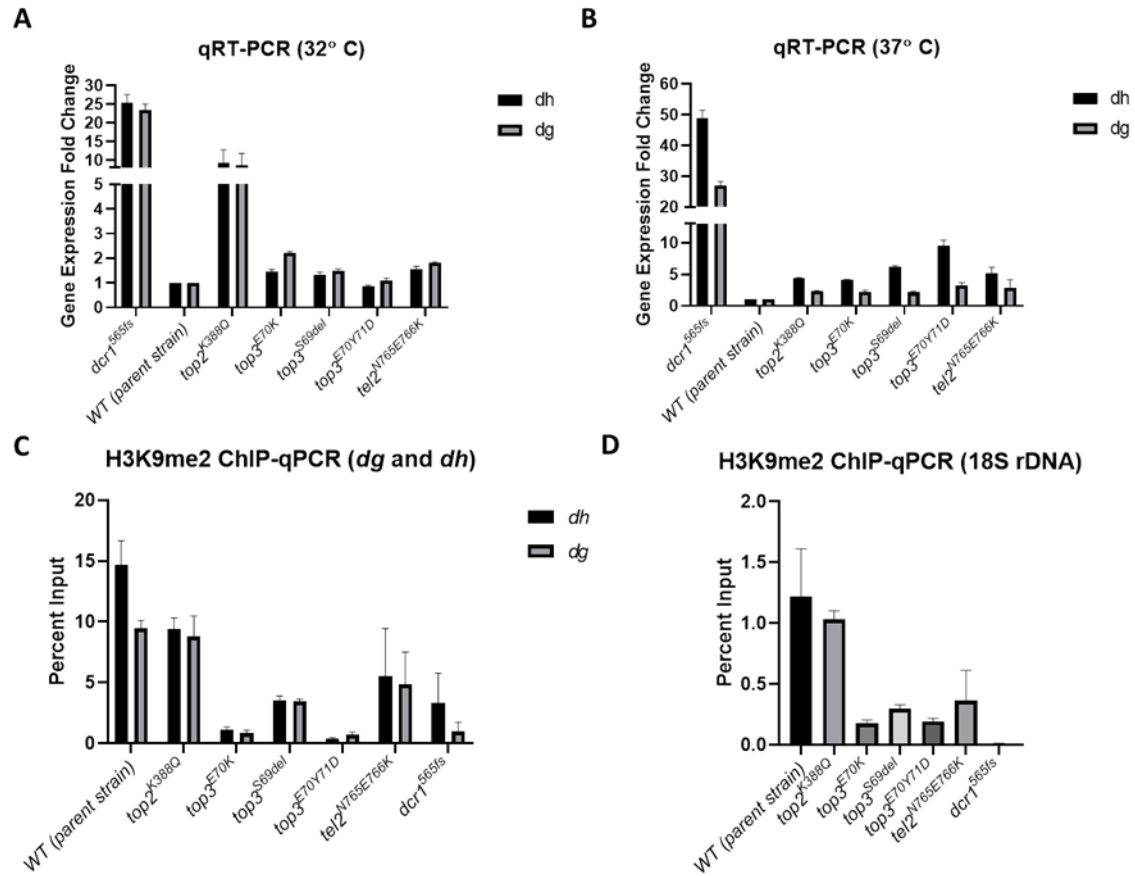
**Figure 2.7. CRISPR mutant alleles exhibit chromosome segregation and mitotic defects. A.** DAPI staining of *S. pombe* cells reveals chromosome segregation and mitotic defects in *top2*, *top3*, and *tel2* mutants. Cells were grown at both 32° and 37° C; representative images are shown for each strain. *top3<sup>S69del</sup>* and *top3<sup>E70Y71D</sup>* appear as massively elongated, multiseptate, and multinucleate structures with fragmented nuclear material dispersed throughout the cell. Abnormal nuclear structures (lagging chromosomes, anaphase bridges, unequally or prematurely segregated chromosomal material) are indicated with arrows.



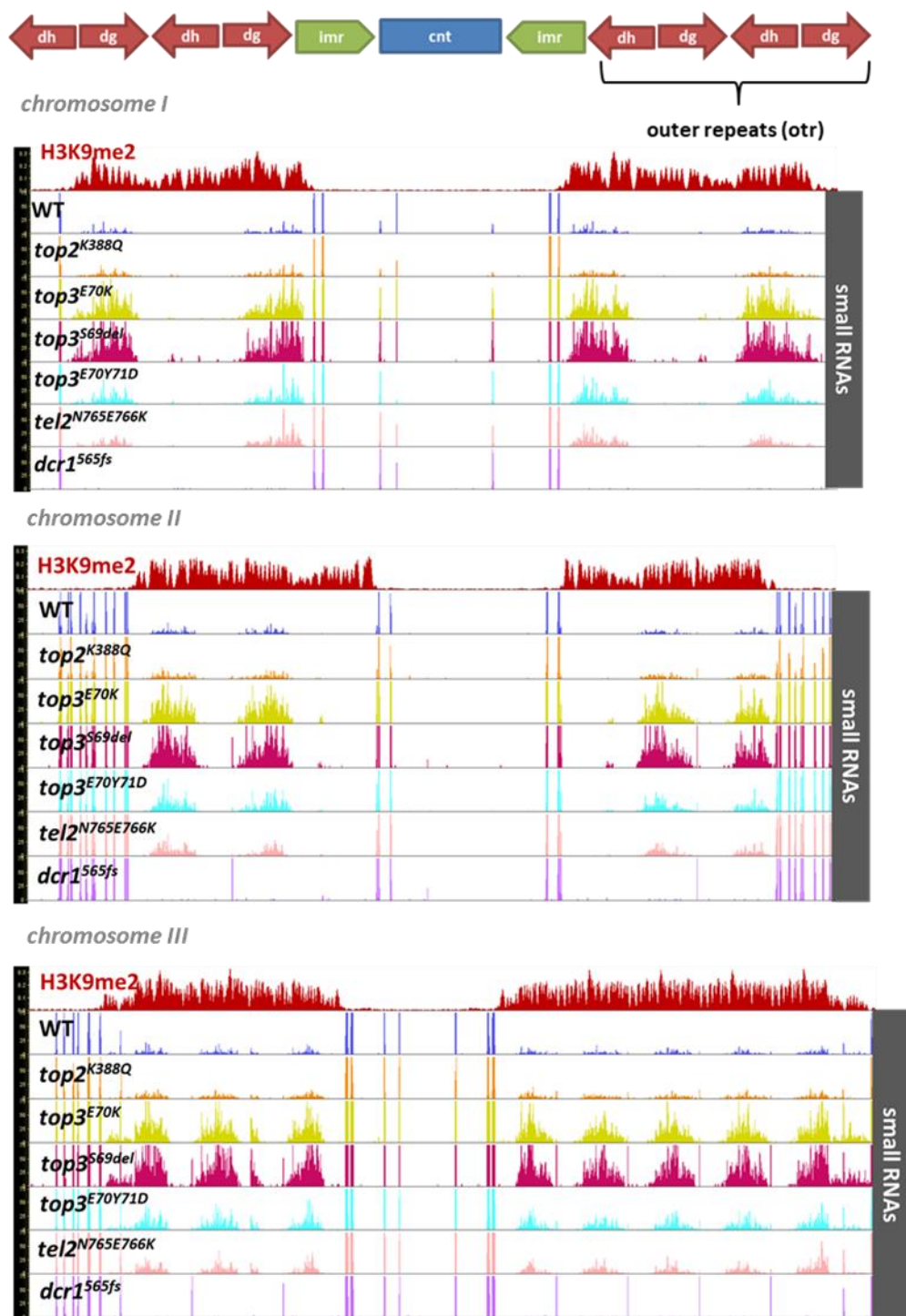


**Figure 2.8. *top2*, *top3*, and *tel2* mutants exhibit *ade6+* reporter de-repression and increased variegation.** A. CRISPR mutant strains struck out on YE. A slight increase in the number of white (*ade6+* expressing) colonies is visible. B. Reporter expression appears visually dynamic within colonies in *top2*, *top3*, and *tel2* mutants, indicating increased variegation. C. *top2*, *top3*, and *tel2* mutants exhibit increased variegation rates. The proportion of red, white, and pink/variegated colonies were counted in strains struck out to single colonies on low adenine (10 mg/L) containing media.

D. Serial dilution spotting assays revealed that several of the isolated mutants are temperature-sensitive alleles (*top3*<sup>S69del</sup>, *top3*<sup>E70Y71D</sup>, *tel2*<sup>N765E766K</sup>); left panel. Temperature-sensitive alleles grown at the restrictive temperature appear pale pink or white, indicating de-repression of the pericentromeric *ade6+* reporter; right panel. Cells were plated on YEA and YE and incubated at 37° C (restrictive temperature) for 3-5 days before imaging.

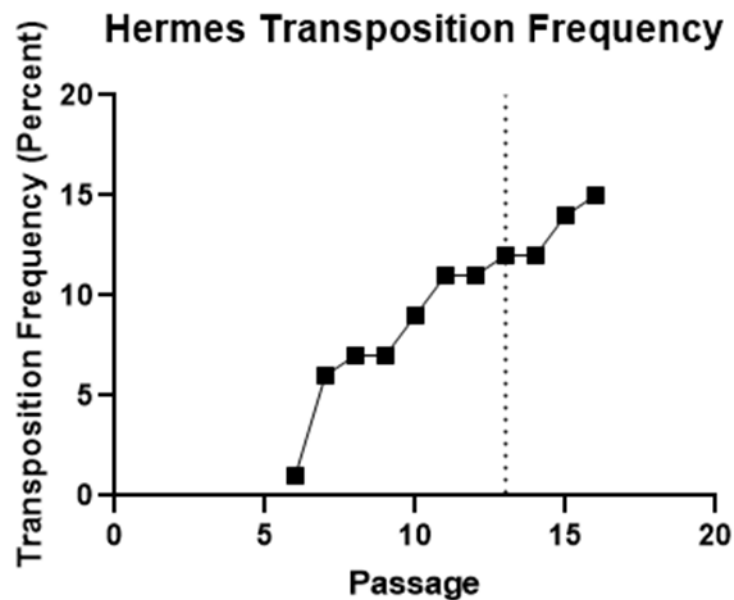


**Figure 2.9. Molecular characterization of the pericentromeric silencing defect exhibited by *tel2*, *top2*, and *top3* mutants.** A. qRT-PCR showing *dg* and *dh* expression levels in cells grown in rich media (YEA) overnight at 32° C prior to RNA extraction. Error bars=SEM. B. Analysis of *dg* and *dh* expression levels by qRT-PCR in cells grown in rich media (YEA) overnight at 37° C prior to RNA extraction. Error bars=SEM. C. ChIP-qPCR analyzing H3K9me2 enrichment at *dg* and *dh* repeats in cells grown in rich media (YEA) overnight at 32° C prior to ChIP. Data shown are representative of two IP replicates with each replicate assayed by qPCR in triplicate. IP signal shown is normalized to input and the euchromatic locus *act1*. Error bars=SEM. D. ChIP-qPCR analyzing H3K9me2 enrichment at *18S rDNA* repeats in cells grown in rich media (YEA) overnight at 32° C prior to ChIP. Data shown are representative of two IP replicates with each replicate assayed by qPCR in triplicate. IP signal shown is normalized to input and the euchromatic locus *act1*. Error bars=SEM.

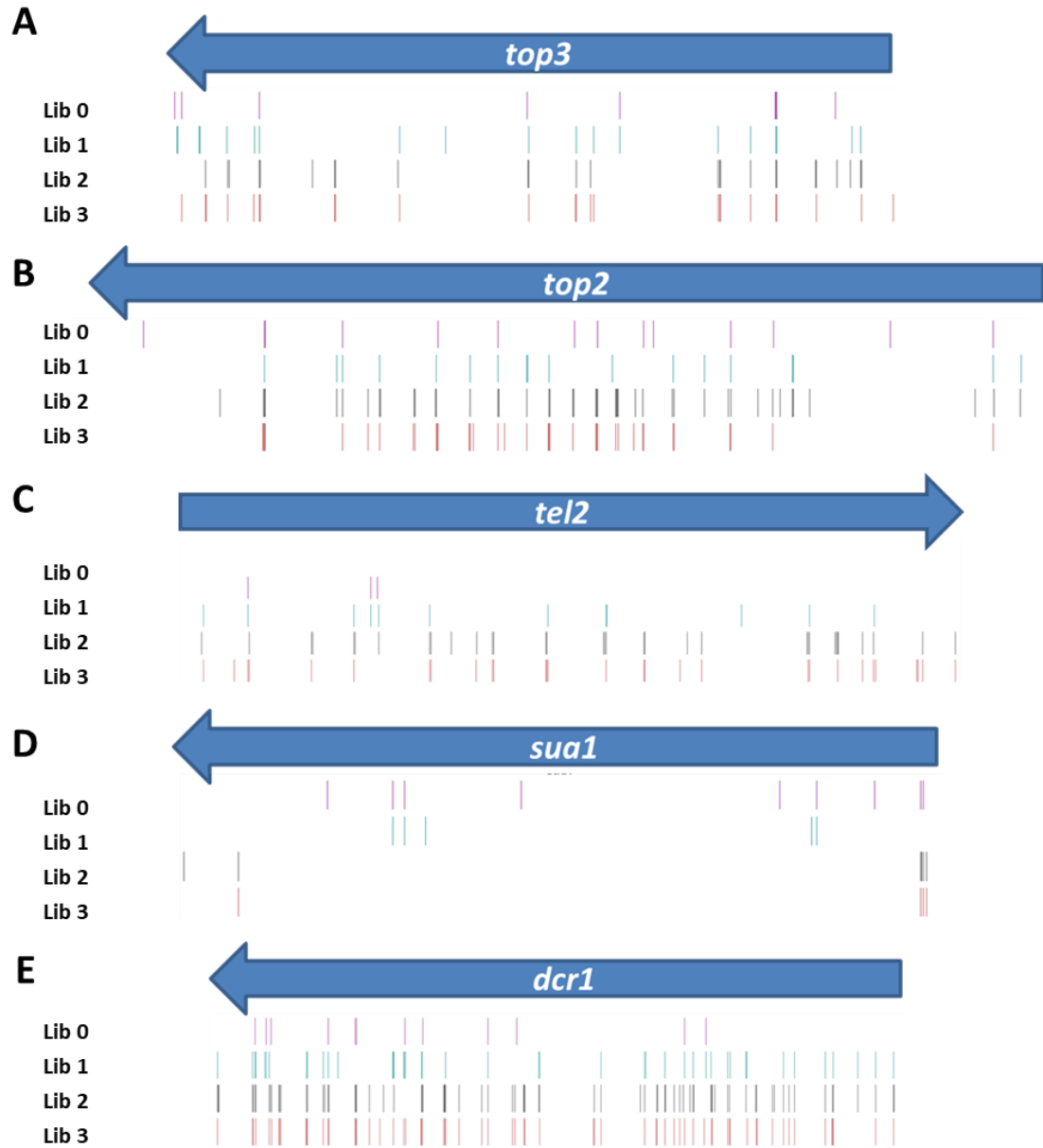


**Figure 2.10. siRNA levels are increased in *top3* and *tel2* mutants at pericentromeres. A.**

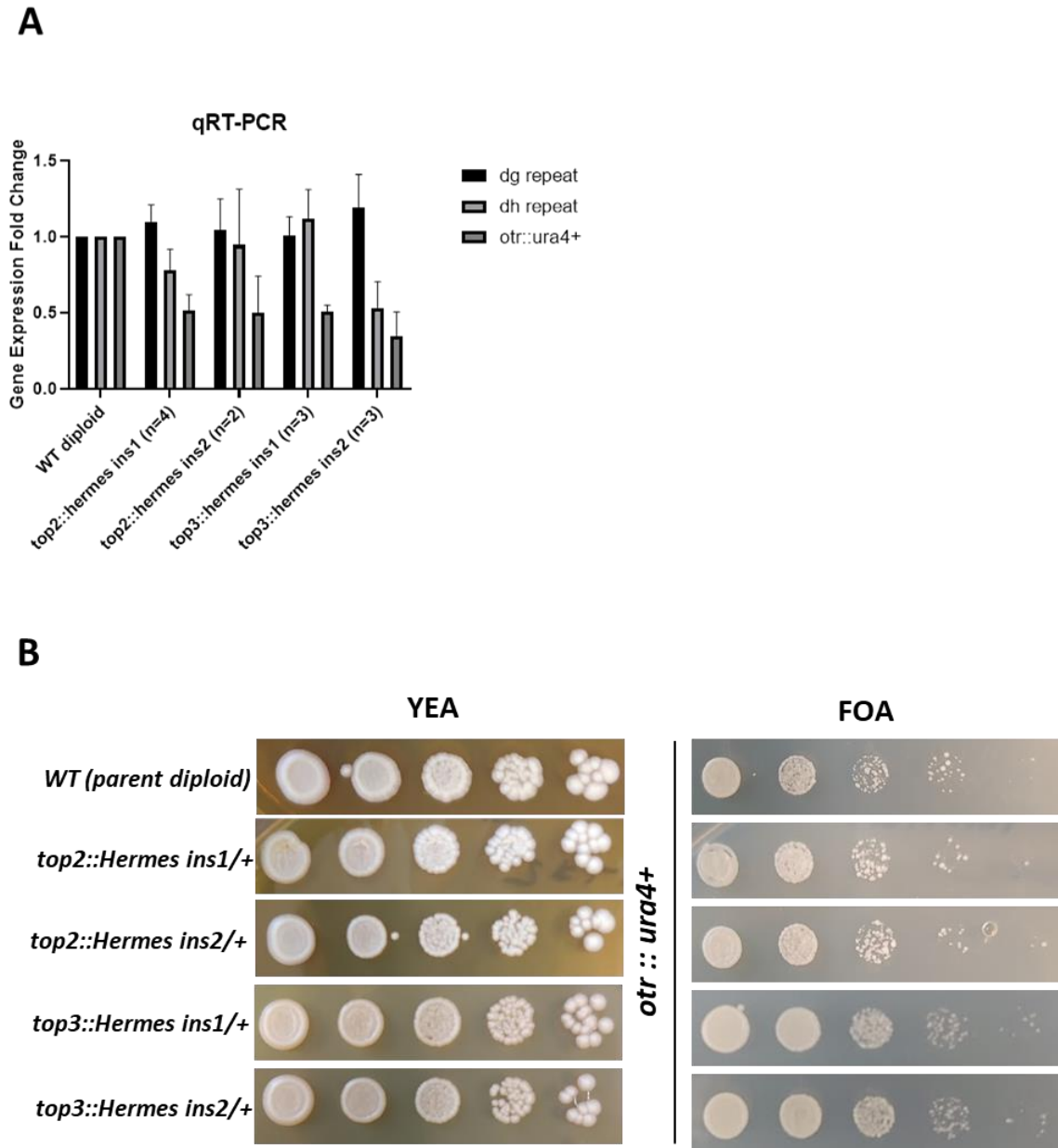
(top) Schematic showing the organization of centromeres in *S. pombe*. siRNA production is robust at the *dg* and *dh* repeats in wild type cells due to RNAi activity in this region; H3K9me2 is also enriched. (lower panels) siRNA sequencing reads normalized per million mappable reads per sequencing run and plotted for each mutant. The wild type parent strain (ZB2116) and *dcr*<sup>565fs</sup> are included as controls. Shown are the centromeres of chromosomes I, II, and III superimposed with H3K9me2 ChIP-seq enrichment.



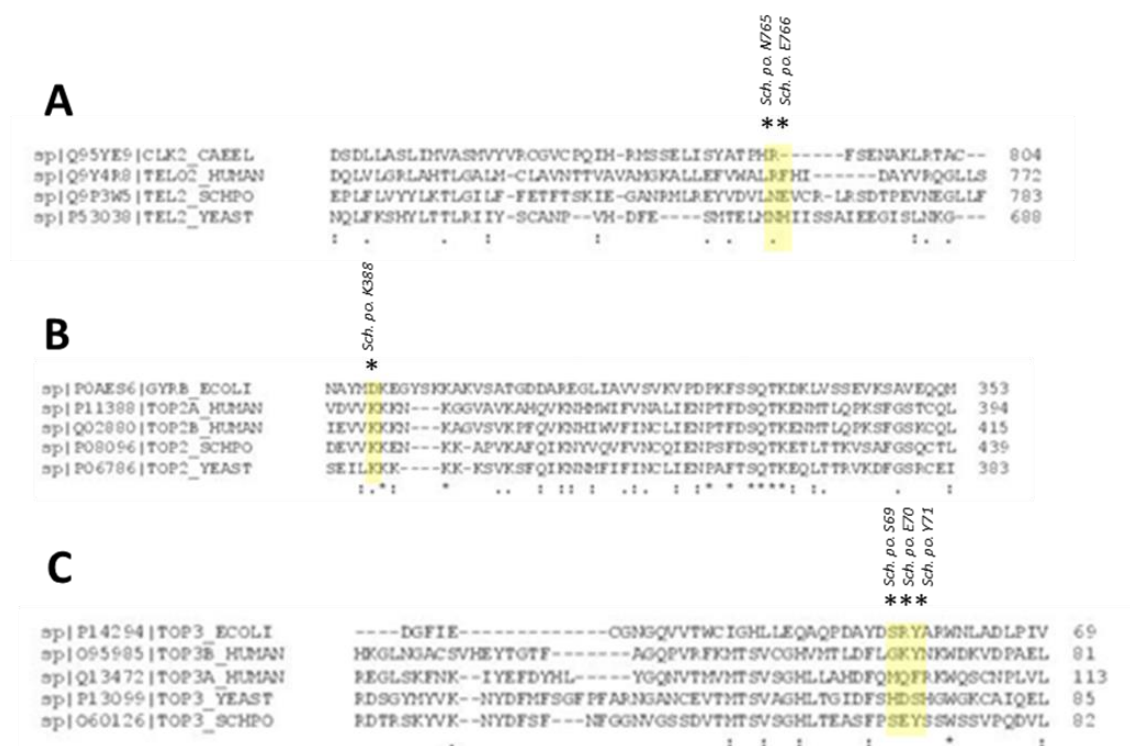
**Figure 2.11. Hermes integration frequency.** A. Line graph showing Hermes transposition frequency as a percentage (FOA<sup>R</sup>G418<sup>R</sup> colonies/ total colony count) after each daily passage. Dashed line at P13 is the day the culture was harvested to proceed with selection for Hermes integration events. Transposition frequency was monitored for several passages after harvesting, however subsequent cultures were not included in the post-selection libraries.



**Figure 2.12. Collapsed integration profiles.** Representative image showing *Hermes* insertion enrichment with each successive round of selection for loss of *ade6+* reporter silencing within the coding sequence of a gene with no known role in PEV (*sua1*, 2d); a gene with a well described role in PEV (*dcr1*, 2e); and novel genes which became enriched in the screen (*top3*, 2a; *top2*, 2b, *tel2*, 2c). Tick marks represent collapsed insertion position in either the pre-selection library (Lib 0) or after one of three rounds of selection for loss of silencing (Lib 1, 2, and 3).

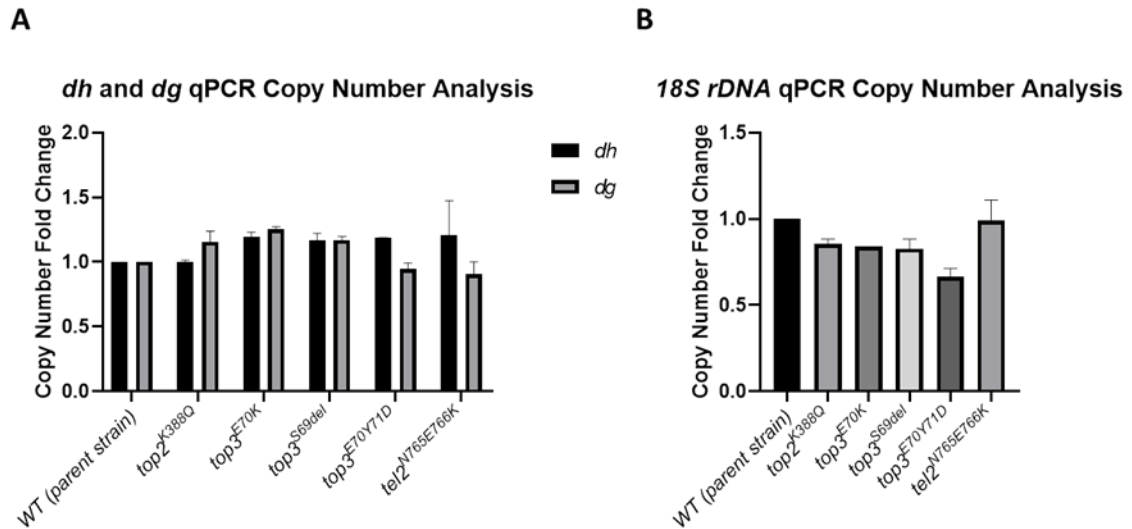


**Figure 2.13. Diploids carrying heterozygous *top2::Hermes* or *top3::Hermes* alleles do not exhibit a pericentromeric silencing defect.** A. qRT-PCR showing *dg*, *dh*, and *ura4+* reporter expression from multiple transformants of the indicated insertion. B. Spotting assays of diploids carrying the indicated insertions grown on YEA and FOA to select against expression of the *ura4+* reporter showed no change from the control. Multiple transformants carrying each *Hermes* insertion were tested, shown are representative images.



**Figure 2.14. Multiple sequence alignments.** A. Multiple sequence alignments showing the affected region in *tel2*<sup>N765E766K</sup> and its homologs in humans (*telo2*), *C. elegans* (*clk2*), and *S. cerevisiae* (*tel2*). Protein sequences were obtained from UniProt; sequence ID is indicated. B. Multiple sequence alignments showing the affected region in *top2*<sup>K388Q</sup> and its homologs in humans (*top2* *alpha* and *beta*), *S. cerevisiae* (*top2*), and *E. coli* (*gyrB*). Protein sequences were obtained from UniProt; sequence ID is indicated. C. Multiple sequence alignments showing the affected regions in *top3*<sup>S69del</sup>, *top3*<sup>E70K</sup>, and *top3*<sup>E70Y71D</sup> and their homologs in humans (*top3* *alpha* and *beta*), *E. coli* (*top3*), and *S. cerevisiae* (*top3*). Protein sequences were obtained from UniProt; sequence ID is indicated. All sequence alignments were generated using Clustal Omega on the default settings.





**Figure 2.15. Repetitive loci in CRISPR mutants show mild variations in copy number.** A. *dh* and *dg* copy number was analyzed in all CRISPR mutants relative to wild type by qPCR quantification of target and reference concentrations in genomic DNA. Relative copy number was determined by double delta Ct analysis; delta Ct= the difference in Ct values between the target locus and the euchromatic *act1* locus. qPCR reactions were performed in triplicate. B. 18S *rDNA* copy number was analyzed in all CRISPR mutants relative to wild type by qPCR quantification of target and reference concentrations in genomic DNA. Relative copy number was determined by double delta Ct analysis; delta Ct= the difference in Ct values between the target locus and the euchromatic *act1* locus. qPCR reactions were performed in triplicate.

**TABLE 2.1 Genes identified as significantly enriched ( $p < .05$ ) in the Hermes PEV screen. Essential genes are indicated in boldface type.**

| ID                  | Gene Name    | Description  | P-value      |
|---------------------|--------------|--|--------------|
| SPAC664.01c         | swi6         | heterochromatin (HP1) family chromodomain protein Swi6   | 0.001        |
| SPAC3A11.09         | sod22        | plasma membrane sodium ion/proton antiporter Sod22   | 0.004        |
| SPBC21B10.09        | 0            | endomembrane system acetyl-CoA transmembrane transporter (predicted)   | 0.004        |
| SPCC970.07c         | raf2         | CLRC ubiquitin ligase complex subunit Raf2   | 0.006        |
| SPCC613.12c         | raf1         | CLRC ubiquitin ligase complex WD repeat subunit Raf1/Dos1  | 0.006        |
| SPAPB24D3.02c       | 0            | amino acid transmembrane transporter (predicted)   | 0.007        |
| <b>SPBC19F5.03</b>  | <b>sac11</b> | <b>inositol polyphosphate phosphatase (predicted)</b>  | <b>0.007</b> |
| SPAC1952.17c        | tbc13        | GTPase activating protein, involved in vesicle-mediated transport (predicted)                                    | 0.007        |
| <b>SPAC29A4.03c</b> | <b>mrps9</b> | <b>mitochondrial ribosomal protein subunit Mrps9 (predicted)</b>   | 0.008        |
| SPCC622.16c         | epe1         | Jmjc domain chromatin associated protein Epe1  | 0.009        |
| <b>SPBC119.17</b>   | <b>cym1</b>  | <b>mitochondrial metalloendopeptidase (predicted)</b>  | <b>0.010</b> |
| SPBC25B2.11         | pof2         | F-box protein Pof2   | 0.010        |
| SPBC577.02          | rpl3801      | 60S ribosomal protein L38 (predicted)  | 0.011        |
| SPBC725.07          | pex5         | peroxisomal targeting signal receptor Pex5 (predicted)   | 0.011        |
| <b>SPBC337.05c</b>  | <b>cct8</b>  | <b>chaperonin-containing T-complex theta subunit Cct8</b>  | <b>0.011</b> |
| SPBC1734.15         | rsc4         | RSC complex subunit Rsc4   | 0.012        |
| SPBC30D10.09c       | 0            | ER membrane organization protein, HVA22/TB2/DP1 family protein   | 0.012        |
| <b>SPCC965.03</b>   | <b>vma8</b>  | <b>V-type ATPase V1 subunit D (predicted)</b>  | <b>0.012</b> |
| SPAC6F12.03c        | fsv1         | SNARE Fsv1   | 0.013        |
| SPBC4C3.08          | otg2         | alpha-1,3-galactosyltransferase  | 0.014        |
| <b>SPCC338.13</b>   | <b>cog4</b>  | <b>Golgi transport complex subunit Cog4 (predicted)</b>  | <b>0.014</b> |
| SPBC1711.09c        | 0            | SNARE associated Golgi protein (predicted)   | 0.015        |
| SPBC1347.09         | 0            | hexaprenyldihydroxybenzoate methyltransferase, Coq3 variant (predicted)  | 0.015        |
| SPBC36.03c          | mfs3         | plasma membrane spermidine transmembrane transporter Mfs3  | 0.015        |
| SPAC1952.06c        | 0            | spliceosomal complex subunit (predicted)   | 0.016        |
| SPAC8E11.04c        | 0            | palmitoyl-(protein) hydrolase (predicted)  | 0.016        |
| SPAC5H10.04         | 0            | NADPH dehydrogenase, (Old yellow enzyme) involved in small alpha,beta-unsaturated carbonyl compounds (predicted) | 0.017        |
| SPAC1565.04c        | ste4         | adaptor protein Ste4   | 0.017        |
| <b>SPAC13G7.08c</b> | <b>crb3</b>  | <b>Rix1 complex WD repeat subunit Crb3</b>   | <b>0.017</b> |
| <b>SPAC823.04</b>   | <b>rrp36</b> | <b>rRNA processing protein Rrp36 (predicted)</b>   | <b>0.017</b> |
| SPAC16A10.03c       | 0            | ubiquitin-protein ligase E3 involved in vesicle docking Pep5/Vps11-like (predicted)                              | 0.017        |
| SPAC23A1.20         | new11        | Schizosaccharomyces specific protein New11   | 0.017        |
| SPAC4F10.04         | ypa1         | protein phosphatase type 2A regulator, PTPA family Ypa1  | 0.017        |
| SPAC1952.03         | otu2         | ubiquitin specific cysteine protease, OTU family, Otu2   | 0.017        |
| <b>SPAC22E12.02</b> | <b>0</b>     | <b>splicing factor, WW domain -binding Rbm42 (predicted)</b>   | <b>0.017</b> |

|               |        |   |       |
|---------------|--------|---|-------|
| SPBC30B4.08   | eri1   | double-strand siRNA ribonuclease Eri1   | 0.017 |
| SPBC19C2.11c  | mdm34  | ERMES complex subunit Mdm34 (predicted)   | 0.017 |
| SPBC18E5.03c  | sim4   | CENP-K ortholog Sim4  | 0.017 |
| SPCC757.10    | vph2   | endoplasmic reticulum membrane protein involved in assembly of the V-ATPase (predicted)                       | 0.017 |
| SPCC11E10.08  | rik1   | CLRC ubiquitin ligase complex WD repeat protein Rik1  | 0.017 |
| SPCC4F11.03c  | 0      | Schizosaccharomyces specific protein  | 0.017 |
| SPCC1183.01   | sec15  | exocyst complex subunit Sec15   | 0.019 |
| SPAC1782.05   | ypa2   | protein phosphatase type 2A regulator, PTPA family Ypa2   | 0.019 |
| SPBC15D4.10c  | amo1   | nuclear rim protein Amo1  | 0.019 |
| SPCC1393.07c  | mug4   | Schizosaccharomyces specific protein, DNAJ domain   | 0.019 |
| SPBC4C3.05c   | nuc1   | DNA-directed RNA polymerase I complex large subunit Nuc1  | 0.020 |
| SPBC1198.03c  | 0      | DUF4646 family conserved fungal protein   | 0.020 |
| SPCC18.13     | trm82  | tRNA (guanine-N7-)-methyltransferase WD repeat subunit Trm82 (predicted)                                      | 0.020 |
| SPBC18E5.10   | 0      | mitochondrial iron-sulfur cluster protein (predicted)   | 0.020 |
| SPBC146.10    | mug57  | cell surface fascilin domain protein, implicated in adhesion Mug57  | 0.020 |
| SPAC57A10.07  | 0      | conserved membrane protein with Rossmann-like alpha/beta/alpha sandwich fold, conserved in fungi and protozoa | 0.021 |
| SPAC19B12.05c | fcp1   | CTD phosphatase Fcp1  | 0.021 |
| SPBC16C6.01c  | 0      | lysine methyltransferase, human SETD6 ortholog (predicted)  | 0.021 |
| SPCC1223.04c  | set11  | ribosomal protein lysine methyltransferase Set11  | 0.021 |
| SPBC2F12.02c  | mrpl7  | mitochondrial ribosomal protein subunit L7 (predicted)  | 0.021 |
| SPCC1620.12c  | 0      | GTPase activating protein (predicted)   | 0.021 |
| SPAC3G6.05    | 0      | mitochondrial Mpv17/PMP22 family protein 1 (predicted)  | 0.022 |
| SPBC336.10c   | tif512 | translation elongation and termination factor eIF5A (predicted)   | 0.022 |
| SPAC25B8.06c  | dia4   | mitochondrial serine-tRNA ligase (predicted)  | 0.022 |
| SPAC29E6.04   | nrf1   | NMS complex subunit Nrf1  | 0.022 |
| SPBP23A10.12  | frg1   | FRG1 family protein, involved in mRNA splicing (predicted)  | 0.022 |
| SPBC23G7.06c  | nvj2   | nucleus-vacuole junction protein Nvj2   | 0.022 |
| SPBC21C3.02c  | dep1   | Sds3-like family protein Dep1   | 0.022 |
| SPBC16A3.07c  | nrm1   | MBF complex corepressor Nrm1  | 0.022 |
| SPCC622.19    | jmj4   | peptidyl-lysine 3-dioxygenase activity jmj4 (predicted)   | 0.022 |
| SPCC1753.04   | tol1   | 3'(2'),5'-bisphosphate nucleotidase/inositol-1,4- bisphosphate 1-phosphatase                                  | 0.022 |
| SPCC1223.02   | nmt1   | 4-amino-5-hydroxymethyl-2-methylpyrimidine phosphate synthase Nmt1  | 0.022 |
| SPCC1739.07   | cti1   | exosome C1D family subunit Cti1   | 0.022 |
| SPBC2G5.07c   | rpc25  | DNA-directed RNA polymerase III complex subunit Rpc25   | 0.022 |
| SPAC31A2.15c  | dcc1   | Ctf18 RFC-like complex subunit Dcc1   | 0.023 |
| SPAC16C9.03   | nmd3   | export adaptor Nmd3 (predicted)   | 0.023 |
| SPAC6F6.05    | ost2   | oligosaccharyltransferase epsilon subunit Ost2 (predicted)  | 0.023 |
| SPBP23A10.15c | qcr1   | mitochondrial processing peptidase (MPP) complex beta subunit Mas1 (predicted)                                | 0.023 |
| SPBC1289.07c  | rpc40  | DNA-directed RNA polymerase I and III subunit Rpc40   | 0.023 |

|                      |              |   |              |
|----------------------|--------------|---|--------------|
| SPCP31B10.04         | 0            | DUF4448 family conserved fungal membrane protein, similar to cell surface proteins          | 0.023        |
| <b>SPBC16D10.04c</b> | <b>dna2</b>  | <b>DNA replication endonuclease-helicase Dna2</b>   | <b>0.024</b> |
| SPAC823.13c          | she9         | mitochondrial inner membrane protein She9 (predicted)                                       | 0.025        |
| SPBC12C2.12c         | glo1         | glyoxalase I  | 0.025        |
| SPCC162.03           | 0            | short chain dehydrogenase (predicted)   | 0.025        |
| SPCC126.06           | twf1         | twinfilin (predicted)   | 0.025        |
| SPAC2F3.01           | imt1         | mannosyltransferase Imt1  | 0.026        |
| SPAC25B8.09          | 0            | trans-aconitate 3-methyltransferase (predicted)   | 0.026        |
| SPAC24H6.02c         | tim15        | TIM23 translocase complex subunit Tim15 (predicted)   | 0.027        |
| SPBC18E5.05c         | elp5         | elongator complex subunit Elp5 (predicted)  | 0.027        |
| <b>SPAC20H4.01</b>   | <b>utp5</b>  | <b>U3 snoRNP-associated protein Utp5 (predicted)</b>  | <b>0.028</b> |
| SPBC713.03           | dld2         | mitochondrial D-lactate dehydrogenase, cytochrome Dld2 (predicted)                          | 0.029        |
| SPAC6C3.08           | nas6         | proteasome assembly chaperone, gankyrin   | 0.030        |
| SPAC6G9.05           | pcd1         | coenzyme A diphosphatase (predicted)  | 0.030        |
| SPBC1734.08          | hse1         | STAM like protein Hse1  | 0.030        |
| SPCC1393.05          | ers1         | RNA-silencing factor Ers1   | 0.030        |
| SPCC18.19c           | ost5         | oligosaccharyltransferase complex zeta subunit Ost5 (predicted)                             | 0.030        |
| SPAC15F9.01c         | glm1         | Glomulin, ubiquitin-protein transferase inhibitor Glm1 (predicted)                          | 0.030        |
| SPAC12B10.04         | pby1         | tubulin-tyrosine ligase Pby1 (predicted)  | 0.030        |
| SPAC869.04           | 0            | formamidase-like protein, implicated in cellular detoxification (predicted)                 | 0.030        |
| SPBC1198.08          | dug1         | dipeptidase Dug1 (predicted)  | 0.030        |
| <b>SPBC646.14c</b>   | <b>orc5</b>  | <b>origin recognition complex subunit Orc5</b>  | <b>0.030</b> |
| SPBC1215.01          | shy1         | cytochrome c oxidase assembly protein Shy1 (predicted)                                      | 0.030        |
| SPBC15C4.01c         | oca3         | TPR repeat protein Oca3/ ER membrane protein complex Ecm2 (predicted)                       | 0.030        |
| SPCC5E4.10c          | 0            | human leukocyte receptor 1 ortholog   | 0.030        |
| <b>SPAC664.08c</b>   | <b>bfr2</b>  | <b>traub family protein involved in ribosome biogenesis (predicted)</b>                     | <b>0.030</b> |
| SPAC21E11.05c        | cyp8         | cyclophilin family peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase Cyp8                                 | 0.030        |
| SPAC27D7.03c         | mei2         | RNA-binding protein involved in meiosis Mei2  | 0.030        |
| <b>SPBC337.06c</b>   | <b>cwf15</b> | <b>Prp19 complex subunit Cwf15</b>  | <b>0.030</b> |
| SPCC126.02c          | pku70        | Ku domain protein Pku70   | 0.030        |
| SPCC970.01           | rad16        | DNA repair endonuclease XPF   | 0.031        |
| SPCC4B3.01           | tum1         | thiosulfate sulfurtransferase, involved in tRNA wobble position thiolation Tum1 (predicted) | 0.031        |
| SPAC23H4.12          | alp13        | MRG family Clr6 histone deacetylase complex subunit Alp13                                   | 0.031        |
| SPBC776.03           | 0            | homoserine dehydrogenase (predicted)  | 0.031        |
| SPCC1442.11c         | 0            | Schizosaccharomyces pombe specific protein  | 0.031        |
| SPAC1834.05          | alg9         | mannosyltransferase complex subunit Alg9 (predicted)  | 0.032        |
| <b>SPAC1093.04c</b>  | <b>cca1</b>  | <b>CTP 3'-tRNA nucleotidyltransferase Cca1</b>  | <b>0.032</b> |
| SPAC22E12.06c        | gmh3         | alpha-1,2-galactosyltransferase Gmh3  | 0.032        |
| <b>SPBC1604.06c</b>  | <b>noc4</b>  | <b>CBF/Mak21 family Noc4 (predicted)</b>  | <b>0.032</b> |

|               |         |   |       |
|---------------|---------|---|-------|
| SPAC1952.11c  | ure2    | nickel-dependent urease Ure2  | 0.032 |
| SPAC2F7.14c   | rrp4    | exosome subunit Rrp4  | 0.033 |
| SPAC57A10.12c | ura3    | mitochondrial dihydroorotate dehydrogenase Ura3                                   | 0.033 |
| SPAC17A5.12   | ucp7    | UBA/TPR/DNAJ domain protein Ucp7  | 0.033 |
| SPAPB1A10.16  | dpc13   | mitochondrial conserved protein Dpc13 (predicted)                                 | 0.033 |
| SPAC1556.07   | pmm1    | phosphomannomutase Pmm1   | 0.033 |
| SPBC337.13c   | gtr1    | Gtr1/RagA G protein Gtr1  | 0.033 |
| SPBC27B12.01c | mmm1    | ERMES complex subunit Mmm1 (predicted)  | 0.033 |
| SPBC8D2.12c   | tac1    | mitochondrial Cox1 translational activator Tac1 (predicted)                       | 0.033 |
| SPBC1347.05c  | 0       | DNAJ domain protein Scj1 (predicted)  | 0.033 |
| SPCC569.08c   | ade5    | phosphoribosylglycinamide formyltransferase                                       | 0.033 |
| SPAC12G12.02  | efg1    | rRNA processing protein Efg1 (predicted)  | 0.033 |
| SPAC1486.02c  | dsc2    | Golgi Dsc E3 ligase complex subunit Dsc2  | 0.033 |
| SPCC1795.03   | gms1    | Golgi UDP-galactose transmembrane transporter Gms1                                | 0.033 |
| SPAC4F8.05c   | mrpl28  | mitochondrial ribosomal protein subunit L28 (predicted)                           | 0.033 |
| SPAC2E1P5.04c | cwg2    | geranylgeranyltransferase I beta subunit Cwg2                                     | 0.033 |
| SPAC17C9.14   | pex19   | Pex19 protein (predicted)   | 0.033 |
| SPBC1709.14   | ngl1    | peptide N-glycanase Ngl1  | 0.033 |
| SPBC36.11     | 0       | Schizosaccharomyces specific protein  | 0.034 |
| SPBC15C4.04c  | 0       | amino acid transmembrane transporter (predicted)                                  | 0.034 |
| SPAC22G7.05   | kri1    | ribosome biogenesis protein Kri1 (predicted)                                      | 0.034 |
| SPAC21E11.04  | aca1    | L-azetidine-2-carboxylic acid acetyltransferase Aca1                              | 0.034 |
| SPCC1020.03   | mmt1    | mitochondrial iron ion transmembrane transporter Mmt1 (predicted)                 | 0.034 |
| SPCC188.11    | prp45   | Prp19 complex subunit Prp45   | 0.034 |
| SPCC1442.01   | ste6    | guanyl-nucleotide exchange factor Ste6  | 0.034 |
| SPCC74.09     | mug24   | RNA-binding protein, rrm type   | 0.034 |
| SPCC1672.04c  | cox19   | mitochondrial copper chaperone for cytochrome c oxidase Cox19 (predicted)         | 0.034 |
| SPCC645.03c   | isa1    | mitochondrial [4Fe-4S] cluster assembly and transfer protein Isa1                 | 0.035 |
| SPAC823.16c   | atg1802 | autophagy associated WD repeat protein Atg18b                                     | 0.035 |
| SPCC74.01     | sly1    | SNARE binding protein Sly1 (predicted)  | 0.036 |
| SPAC959.04c   | omh6    | alpha-1,2-mannosyltransferase Omh6 (predicted)                                    | 0.036 |
| SPCC584.03c   | 0       | GTPase regulator (predicted)  | 0.036 |
| SPAC4F8.11    | sea2    | SEA complex WD repeat subunit Sea2 (predicted)                                    | 0.036 |
| SPAC652.01    | 0       | BC10 family small membrane protein, unknown biological role, human BLCAP ortholog | 0.036 |
| SPAC26A3.02   | myh1    | adenine DNA glycosylase Myh1  | 0.036 |
| SPAC16E8.10c  | rsm7    | mitochondrial ribosomal protein subunit S7, Rsm7(predicted)                       | 0.036 |
| SPBC428.08c   | clr4    | histone lysine H3 methyltransferase Clr4  | 0.036 |
| SPBC25H2.18   | cox20   | cytochrome c oxidase assembly protein Cox20 (predicted)                           | 0.036 |
| SPCC663.14c   | trp663  | plasma membrane TRP-like ion channel (predicted)                                  | 0.036 |

|                     |               |  |              |
|---------------------|---------------|--|--------------|
| SPAC25B8.04c        | mss51         | mitochondrial Cox1 translation regulator Mss51 (predicted)                     | 0.037        |
| <b>SPAC458.03</b>   | <b>tel2</b>   | <b>Tel2/Rad-5/Clk-2 family protein Tel2</b>                                    | <b>0.037</b> |
| SPBC1773.13         | 0             | aromatic aminotransferase (predicted)  | 0.037        |
| <b>SPBC1734.16c</b> | <b>pst3</b>   | <b>SIN3 family co-repressor Pst3</b>   | <b>0.037</b> |
| SPCC736.11          | ago1          | argonaute  | 0.037        |
| SPCC576.14          | dph5          | diphthine synthase Dph5 (predicted)  | 0.037        |
| SPAC23C11.13c       | hpt1          | guanine/xanthine/hypoxanthine phosphoribosyltransferase Hpt1                   | 0.037        |
| <b>SPAC3F10.03</b>  | <b>grs1</b>   | <b>mitochondrial and cytoplasmic glycine-tRNA ligase Grs1</b>                  | <b>0.038</b> |
| SPCC1739.06c        | met1          | uroporphyrin methyltransferase Met1  | 0.038        |
| SPAC20G4.01         | caf16         | CCR4-Not complex subunit Caf16 (predicted)                                     | 0.039        |
| SPBC29B5.01         | atf1          | transcription factor, Atf-CREB family Atf1                                     | 0.039        |
| <b>SPBC9B6.06</b>   | <b>mrpl10</b> | <b>mitochondrial ribosomal protein subunit L15 (predicted)</b>                 | <b>0.039</b> |
| SPBP4H10.18c        | 0             | Schizosaccharomyces specific protein   | 0.039        |
| SPAC222.15          | meu13         | Tat binding protein 1(TBP-1)-interacting protein (TBPIP) homolog (predicted)   | 0.039        |
| SPAC105.03c         | 0             | transcription factor (predicted)   | 0.039        |
| SPAC328.02          | dbl4          | ubiquitin-protein ligase E3 involved in sporulation Dbl4                       | 0.039        |
| <b>SPAC4F10.10c</b> | <b>mnn9</b>   | <b>mannosyltransferase complex subunit, Anp family Mnn9 (predicted)</b>        | <b>0.039</b> |
| SPAC4F10.14c        | btf3          | nascent polypeptide-associated complex beta subunit                            | 0.039        |
| SPAC186.08c         | 0             | L-lactate dehydrogenase (predicted)  | 0.039        |
| <b>SPBC428.20c</b>  | <b>alp6</b>   | <b>gamma tubulin complex Spc98/GCP3 subunit Alp6</b>                           | <b>0.039</b> |
| SPBP35G2.06c        | nup131        | nucleoporin, WD repeat Nup131  | 0.039        |
| SPBC29A3.03c        | gid2          | GID complex ubiquitin-protein ligase E3 subunit Gid2/Rmd5 (predicted)          | 0.039        |
| SPBC29A3.10c        | atp14         | F1-FO ATP synthase subunit H (predicted)                                       | 0.039        |
| SPBC1711.08         | aha1          | chaperone activator Aha1   | 0.039        |
| <b>SPBC11C11.05</b> | <b>0</b>      | <b>cell wall 1,6-beta-glucan biosynthesis protein, KRE9 family (predicted)</b> | <b>0.039</b> |
| SPBPB2B2.01         | 0             | amino acid transmembrane transporter (predicted)                               | 0.039        |
| SPCC31H12.06        | mug111        | major facilitator family transmembrane transporter Mug111 (predicted)          | 0.039        |
| SPCP1E11.10         | dhm1          | ankyrin repeat protein, unknown biological role                                | 0.039        |
| SPCC4F11.02         | ptc1          | MAP kinase threonine phosphatase Ptc1  | 0.039        |
| SPAC144.06          | apl5          | AP-3 adaptor complex subunit Apl5 (predicted)                                  | 0.039        |
| SPBC359.01          | 0             | amino acid transmembrane transporter (predicted)                               | 0.040        |
| SPBC651.03c         | gyp10         | GTPase activating protein Gyp10  | 0.040        |
| SPCC18.17c          | 0             | proteasome assembly chaperone (predicted)                                      | 0.041        |
| SPBC119.12          | rud3          | Golgi matrix protein Rud3 (predicted)  | 0.041        |
| SPBC1778.03c        | 0             | NADH pyrophosphatase (predicted)   | 0.041        |
| <b>SPBC725.16</b>   | <b>res1</b>   | <b>MBF transcription factor complex subunit Res1</b>                           | <b>0.041</b> |
| <b>SPAC31G5.06</b>  | <b>rrg8</b>   | <b>mitochondrial conserved fungal protein Rrg8 (predicted)</b>                 | <b>0.042</b> |
| SPAC17G6.13         | slt1          | Schizosaccharomyces specific protein Slt1                                      | 0.042        |
| SPAC19G12.13c       | poz1          | shelterin complex subunit Poz1   | 0.042        |

|                     |               |   |              |
|---------------------|---------------|---|--------------|
| <b>SPAC1952.01</b>  | <b>gab1</b>   | <b>Pig-U, Gab1 (predicted)</b>  | <b>0.042</b> |
| SPBC651.07          | 0             | Schizosaccharomyces specific protein  | 0.042        |
| SPBC30B4.06c        | ips1          | mitochondrial GIDA family tRNA uridine 5-carboxymethylaminomethyl modification enzyme Ips1 (predicted)                                | 0.042        |
| SPAC6C3.04          | cit1          | citrate synthase Cit1   | 0.042        |
| <b>SPBC83.15</b>    | <b>wdr74</b>  | <b>ribosome assembly factor, WD repeat protein Nsa1/Wdr74 (predicted)</b>   | <b>0.042</b> |
| SPAC2F3.16          | 0             | ubiquitin-protein ligase E3, implicated in DNA repair (predicted)   | 0.042        |
| SPAC890.02c         | alp7          | TACC protein Alp7   | 0.043        |
| SPAC869.03c         | 0             | plasma membrane urea transmembrane transporter (predicted)  | 0.044        |
| SPBC713.09          | 0             | Schizosaccharomyces specific protein  | 0.044        |
| SPCC1442.07c        | wss2          | ubiquitin/metalloprotease fusion protein Udp7   | 0.044        |
| SPBC1734.09         | yea4          | ER UDP-N-acetylglucosamine transmembrane transporter (predicted)  | 0.044        |
| SPBC32H8.09         | wdr8          | mitosis-specific spindle pole body WD repeat protein Wdr8   | 0.044        |
| SPBC23G7.08c        | rga7          | RhoGAP, GTPase activating protein Rga7  | 0.044        |
| SPCC18.09c          | hnt3          | aprataxin Hnt3  | 0.044        |
| SPAC2G11.09         | 0             | calcium ion transmembrane transporter (predicted)   | 0.044        |
| <b>SPAPB1E7.10</b>  | <b>rpc17</b>  | <b>DNA-directed RNA polymerase III complex subunit Rpc17</b>  | <b>0.044</b> |
| SPAC19D5.03         | cid1          | terminal uridylyltransferase Cid1   | 0.046        |
| <b>SPBC106.06</b>   | <b>cct4</b>   | <b>chaperonin-containing T-complex delta subunit Cct4</b>   | <b>0.046</b> |
| SPBC1347.08c        | 0             | ribonuclease H2 complex subunit (predicted)   | 0.046        |
| SPAC12B10.09        | pet801        | mitochondrial carrier, S-adenosylmethionine (predicted)   | 0.046        |
| SPAC11H11.01        | sst6          | ESCRT I complex subunit Vps23   | 0.046        |
| SPBC29A3.09c        | gcn20         | AAA family ATPase Gcn20 (predicted)   | 0.046        |
| SPBC19G7.04         | 0             | HMG box protein   | 0.046        |
| SPBC1778.10c        | ppk21         | serine/threonine protein kinase Ppk21 (predicted)   | 0.046        |
| SPBC21.03c          | 0             | EVE domain (PUA-related) protein, implicated in tRNA metabolism (possible RNA binding domain associated with tRNA methyltransferases) | 0.046        |
| SPBC3B9.09          | vps36         | ESCRT II complex subunit Vps36  | 0.046        |
| SPAC24C9.05c        | mug70         | CBS and PB1 domain protein, conserved in fungi and plants, implicated in signalling Mug70   | 0.046        |
| SPBC887.18c         | hfi1          | SAGA complex subunit Hfi1/Ada1  | 0.046        |
| <b>SPAC1486.07c</b> | <b>mrpl19</b> | <b>mitochondrial ribosomal protein subunit L19 (predicted)</b>  | <b>0.046</b> |
| <b>SPAC17C9.02c</b> | <b>lys7</b>   | <b>alpha-aminoacidate reductase phosphopantetheinyl transferase Lys7</b>  | <b>0.046</b> |
| SPAC20G8.10c        | atg6          | autophagy associated beclin family protein Atg6   | 0.046        |
| SPAC11H11.03c       | 0             | ATP-dependent polydeoxyribonucleotide 5'-hydroxyl-kinase activity implicated in DNA repair (predicted)                                | 0.046        |
| SPAC3G6.06c         | rad2          | FEN-1 endonuclease Rad2   | 0.046        |
| SPBC19F8.03c        | yap18         | ENTH/VHS domain protein (predicted)   | 0.046        |
| SPCC777.08c         | bit61         | Protector homolog, Bit61  | 0.046        |
| SPBC16C6.10         | chp2          | heterochromatin (HP1) family chromodomain protein Chp2  | 0.047        |
| SPAC27F1.05c        | 0             | aminotransferase class-III, unknown specificity   | 0.047        |
| SPBC342.04          | rpn1301       | 19S proteasome regulatory subunit Rpn13a  | 0.047        |

|                     |               |  |              |
|---------------------|---------------|--|--------------|
| SPAC1F3.10c         | 43739         | mitochondrial intermediate peptidase Oct1 (predicted)                          | 0.047        |
| SPAC3F10.05c        | mug113        | GIY-YIGT nuclease superfamily protein  | 0.047        |
| <b>SPCC285.03</b>   | <b>dbp6</b>   | <b>ATP-dependent RNA helicase Dbp6 (predicted)</b>                             | <b>0.047</b> |
| SPAC8C9.05          | dtd1          | D-Tyr-tRNA deacylase Dtd1 (predicted)  | 0.047        |
| SPAC11H11.04        | mam2          | pheromone p-factor receptor  | 0.047        |
| <b>SPAC16E8.15</b>  | <b>tif45</b>  | <b>translation initiation factor eIF4E, 4F complex subunit</b>                 | <b>0.047</b> |
| <b>SPAC29A4.08c</b> | <b>prp19</b>  | <b>Prp19 complex subunit, ubiquitin-protein ligase E4 Prp19</b>                | <b>0.047</b> |
| SPBC31E1.02c        | pmr1          | plasma membrane P-type ATPase, calcium transporting Pmr1                       | 0.047        |
| SPBC20F10.02c       | 0             | DUF1741 family protein, human C10orf76 ortholog                                | 0.047        |
| SPBC56F2.10c        | alg5          | dolichyl-phosphate beta-glucosyltransferase Alg5                               | 0.047        |
| SPBC14F5.01         | 0             | DUF4504 family protein, human C1orf74 ortholog                                 | 0.047        |
| <b>SPAC6G9.02c</b>  | <b>nop9</b>   | <b>pumilio family RNA-binding protein Nop9 (predicted)</b>                     | <b>0.048</b> |
| SPAC6B12.03c        | bit2          | HbrB family protein involved in TOR signaling Bit2 (predicted)                 | 0.048        |
| SPAC8F11.08c        | 0             | ER membrane associated esterase/lipase (predicted)                             | 0.049        |
| SPAC589.11          | pth4          | mitochondrial translation release factor                                       | 0.049        |
| <b>SPAC22F8.10c</b> | <b>sap145</b> | <b>U2 snRNP-associated protein Sap145</b>                                      | <b>0.049</b> |
| SPAC1250.02         | mug95         | Schizosaccharomyces specific protein Mug95                                     | 0.049        |
| SPBC18E5.11c        | edc3          | enhancer of mRNA decapping Edc3  | 0.049        |
| SPBC12D12.09        | rev7          | DNA polymerase zeta Rev7 (predicted)   | 0.049        |
| SPBC13G1.13         | tfb2          | transcription factor TFIIF complex subunit Tfb2                                | 0.049        |
| SPBC3B9.06c         | atg3          | autophagy associated protein Atg3  | 0.049        |
| <b>SPAC23H4.18c</b> | <b>rbx1</b>   | <b>SCF complex, Cul4-RING and CLRC ubiquitin ligase ligase E3 subunit Rbx1</b> | <b>0.049</b> |
| SPAC19B12.10        | sst2          | human AMSH/STAMBP protein homolog, ubiquitin specific-protease                 | 0.049        |
| SPBC16E9.07         | mug100        | Schizosaccharomyces pombe specific protein Mug100                              | 0.049        |
| SPAC11E3.09         | pyp3          | protein-tyrosine phosphatase Pyp3  | 0.049        |
| SPBC16A3.13         | meu7          | alpha-amylase homolog Aah4   | 0.049        |
| SPCC16A11.03c       | 0             | DUF2009 family protein, conserved in yeast and apicomplexa                     | 0.049        |
| SPAC1687.13c        | csn5          | COP9/signalosome complex protease subunit Csn5                                 | 0.049        |
| SPBC29A10.11c       | vps902        | guanyl-nucleotide exchange factor, CUE domain absent Vps902                    | 0.050        |
| SPAC6F6.11c         | 0             | pyridoxine-pyridoxal-pyridoxamine kinase (predicted)                           | 0.050        |
| SPAC4F8.03          | sdo1          | SBDS family ribosome assembly protein Sdo1 (predicted)                         | 0.050        |
| SPAC144.14          | klp8          | kinesin-like protein Klp8  | 0.050        |
| SPBC56F2.02         | rpl1901       | 60S ribosomal protein L19  | 0.050        |
| SPAC17G6.04c        | cpp1          | protein farnesyltransferase beta subunit Cpp1                                  | 0.050        |



**TABLE 2.2. GO analysis of significantly enriched genes within the Hermes PEV screen.**

| GO biological process complete   | Genes passing filter | Genes p<0.05 | Expected | Fold Enrichment | P-value  |
|--|----------------------|--------------|----------|-----------------|----------|
| chromatin silencing at telomere (GO:0006348)                                   | 18                   | 6            | 1.25     | 4.78            | 3.57E-03 |
| negative regulation of chromatin organization (GO:1905268)                     | 18                   | 6            | 1.25     | 4.78            | 3.57E-03 |
| chromatin silencing at centromere (GO:0030702)                                 | 41                   | 9            | 2.86     | 3.15            | 4.33E-03 |
| chromatin silencing by small RNA (GO:0031048)                                  | 28                   | 7            | 1.95     | 3.59            | 6.37E-03 |
| gene silencing by RNA (GO:0031047)   | 29                   | 7            | 2.02     | 3.46            | 7.47E-03 |
| negative regulation of histone H3-K4 methylation (GO:0051572)                  | 4                    | 3            | 0.28     | 10.77           | 7.85E-03 |
| negative regulation of histone methylation (GO:0031061)                        | 4                    | 3            | 0.28     | 10.77           | 7.85E-03 |
| removal of RNA primer involved in mitotic DNA replication (GO:1903469)         | 4                    | 3            | 0.28     | 10.77           | 7.85E-03 |
| protein N-linked glycosylation (GO:0006487)                                    | 48                   | 9            | 3.34     | 2.69            | 1.04E-02 |
| regulation of histone H3-K9 methylation (GO:0051570)                           | 10                   | 4            | 0.7      | 5.74            | 1.05E-02 |
| DNA replication, removal of RNA primer (GO:0043137)                            | 5                    | 3            | 0.35     | 8.61            | 1.20E-02 |
| membrane docking (GO:0022406)  | 41                   | 8            | 2.86     | 2.8             | 1.27E-02 |
| organelle localization by membrane tethering (GO:0140056)                      | 41                   | 8            | 2.86     | 2.8             | 1.27E-02 |
| regulation of histone methylation (GO:0031060)                                 | 18                   | 5            | 1.25     | 3.99            | 1.44E-02 |
| negative regulation of histone modification (GO:0031057)                       | 6                    | 3            | 0.42     | 7.18            | 1.71E-02 |
| protein processing involved in protein targeting to mitochondrion (GO:0006627) | 6                    | 3            | 0.42     | 7.18            | 1.71E-02 |
| regulation of mitotic cell cycle phase transition (GO:1901990)                 | 150                  | 3            | 10.45    | 0.29            | 1.77E-02 |
| chromatin silencing at silent mating-type cassette (GO:0030466)                | 27                   | 6            | 1.88     | 3.19            | 1.80E-02 |
| regulation of cell cycle process (GO:0010564)                                  | 227                  | 7            | 15.81    | 0.44            | 2.00E-02 |
| lactate metabolic process (GO:0006089)   | 7                    | 3            | 0.49     | 6.15            | 2.33E-02 |
| regulation of cell cycle (GO:0051726)  | 245                  | 8            | 17.07    | 0.47            | 2.44E-02 |
| regulation of chromatin organization (GO:1902275)                              | 47                   | 8            | 3.27     | 2.44            | 2.45E-02 |
| negative regulation of chromosome organization (GO:2001251)                    | 48                   | 8            | 3.34     | 2.39            | 2.70E-02 |
| regulation of histone modification (GO:0031056)                                | 22                   | 5            | 1.53     | 3.26            | 2.79E-02 |
| glycoprotein metabolic process (GO:0009100)                                    | 65                   | 10           | 4.53     | 2.21            | 2.84E-02 |
| cellular protein metabolic process (GO:0044267)                                | 787                  | 70           | 54.82    | 1.28            | 2.90E-02 |
| mitochondrial protein processing (GO:0034982)                                  | 8                    | 3            | 0.56     | 5.38            | 3.05E-02 |
| telomere localization (GO:0034397)   | 15                   | 4            | 1.04     | 3.83            | 3.13E-02 |
| mitochondrial translation (GO:0032543)   | 67                   | 10           | 4.67     | 2.14            | 3.16E-02 |
| cleavage involved in rRNA processing (GO:0000469)                              | 23                   | 5            | 1.6      | 3.12            | 3.22E-02 |
| regulation of cell cycle phase transition (GO:1901987)                         | 154                  | 4            | 10.73    | 0.37            | 3.25E-02 |

|  |     |    |       |      |          |
|--|-----|----|-------|------|----------|
| negative regulation of cell cycle process<br>(GO:0010948)  | 114 | 2  | 7.94  | 0.25 | 3.31E-02 |
| donor selection (GO:0007535)   | 3   | 2  | 0.21  | 9.57 | 3.71E-02 |
| positive regulation of histone H3-K9<br>methylation (GO:0051574)   | 3   | 2  | 0.21  | 9.57 | 3.71E-02 |
| positive regulation of histone methylation<br>(GO:0031062)   | 3   | 2  | 0.21  | 9.57 | 3.71E-02 |
| proteasome regulatory particle assembly<br>(GO:0070682)  | 3   | 2  | 0.21  | 9.57 | 3.71E-02 |
| regulation of gene silencing by RNA<br>(GO:0060966)  | 3   | 2  | 0.21  | 9.57 | 3.71E-02 |
| mitochondrion-endoplasmic reticulum<br>membrane tethering (GO:1990456)   | 9   | 3  | 0.63  | 4.78 | 3.87E-02 |
| pheromone-dependent signal transduction<br>involved in conjugation with cellular fusion<br>(GO:0000750)  | 9   | 3  | 0.63  | 4.78 | 3.87E-02 |
| mating type switching (GO:0007533)   | 17  | 4  | 1.18  | 3.38 | 4.37E-02 |
| protein transport to vacuole involved in<br>ubiquitin-dependent protein catabolic process<br>via the multivesicular body sorting pathway<br>(GO:0043328) | 17  | 4  | 1.18  | 3.38 | 4.37E-02 |
| cell division (GO:0051301)   | 87  | 1  | 6.06  | 0.16 | 4.44E-02 |
| protein metabolic process (GO:0019538)   | 814 | 71 | 56.71 | 1.25 | 4.47E-02 |
| cellular protein modification process<br>(GO:0006464)  | 476 | 45 | 33.16 | 1.36 | 4.50E-02 |
| protein modification process (GO:0036211)  | 476 | 45 | 33.16 | 1.36 | 4.50E-02 |
| glycosylation (GO:0070085)   | 62  | 9  | 4.32  | 2.08 | 4.72E-02 |
| macromolecule glycosylation (GO:0043413)   | 62  | 9  | 4.32  | 2.08 | 4.72E-02 |
| protein glycosylation (GO:0006486)   | 62  | 9  | 4.32  | 2.08 | 4.72E-02 |
| regulation of histone H3-K4 methylation<br>(GO:0051569)  | 10  | 3  | 0.7   | 4.31 | 4.80E-02 |
| regulation of translational elongation<br>(GO:0006448)   | 10  | 3  | 0.7   | 4.31 | 4.80E-02 |
| vesicle docking involved in exocytosis<br>(GO:0006904)   | 10  | 3  | 0.7   | 4.31 | 4.80E-02 |
| glycoprotein biosynthetic process<br>(GO:0009101)  | 63  | 9  | 4.39  | 2.05 | 4.98E-02 |

**TABLE 2.3. Genes targeted for CRISPR-Cas9 mediated mutagenesis.** Genes are listed with their corresponding coding sequence cleavage site position(s) and the gRNA sequence used for targeting/construction of their respective sgRNA expressing plasmid.

| Gene        | Cleavage site<br>(CDS nucleotide<br>position) | gRNA sequence        |
|-------------|---|----------------------|
| <i>rik1</i> | nt 32   | TCATTCCTTCTGGGCAACGG |
| <i>dcr1</i> | nt 917  | GAAGCAGTTGTCAGATGACG |
| <i>dcr1</i> | nt 1696                                       | CAATACCAACCTGAAAGACA |
| <i>dcr1</i> | nt 3619                                       | TCAATTTCAAACCAGAACCA |
| <i>top3</i> | nt 60   | TCGGTAGCAAGCATTCTAGG |
| <i>top3</i> | nt 208  | CTCCAAGTAGAATATTCAGA |
| <i>top2</i> | nt 1000                                       | ACATGTTCATAAATTACCCT |
| <i>top2</i> | nt 1163                                       | TATAGATGAAGTCGTCAAGA |
| <i>top2</i> | nt 1610                                       | AGGAAAAGTACTGAATGTAC |
| <i>top2</i> | nt 1755                                       | ATGACAGATCAAGATCATGA |
| <i>top2</i> | nt 1805                                       | CCTATCATTAAGTGCACTCG |
| <i>top2</i> | nt 1869                                       | TTGCAAAAGAGAAGGATACG |
| <i>tel2</i> | nt 49   | TTAAGGATTCTTTTAAACG  |
| <i>tel2</i> | nt 788  | TGTTATACGATCATCTCTTG |
| <i>tel2</i> | nt 2294                                       | ATATGTTGACGTTTTAAATG |

**TABLE 2.4. Strains used in this study**

| Strain ID | Genotype  | Used for   |
|-----------|---|--|
| TV312     | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ura4-DS/E, ade6-210, leu1-32  | Used in Hermes PEV screen  |
| ZB2116    | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210, ura4-D18, ?  | CRISPR mutagenesis parent strain   |
| DG14      | otr1R(SphI)::ura4, ura4-DS/E, ade6-210, his7-366, leu1-32   | Used to obtain diploids for transformation   |
| DG21      | otr1R(SphI)::ura4, ura4-DS/E, ade6-216, his7-366, leu1-32   | Used to obtain diploids for transformation   |
| FY18409   | rqh1::kanMX6, leu1-32, ura4-D18   | Used for rqh1 nat/kan marker swap to generate rqh1::natmx4 transforming fragment             |
| ZB2124    | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210, ura4-D18, top2 1163-6 (K388Q)  | CRISPR mutant  |
| ZB2157    | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210, ura4-D18, top3 208 C1 (E70K)   | CRISPR mutant  |
| ZB2159    | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210, ura4-D18, top3 208 t1 (S69del)   | CRISPR mutant  |
| ZB2162    | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210, ura4-D18, top3 208 s (E70Y71->D70 conversion)                              | CRISPR mutant  |
| ZB2163    | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210, ura4-D18, tel2 2294 a1 (N765E766->K765 conversion)                         | CRISPR mutant  |
| ZB2518    | rqh1::natmx4, leu1-32, ura4-D18   | used to amplify rqh::nat transforming fragment for transformation into top3::Hermes diploids |
| ZB2140    | dcr1-1696 (dcr565 fs), ura4-D18, otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210  | CRISPR mutant  |
| ZB2601    | otr1R(SphI)::ura4, ura4-DS/E, ade6-(210 or 216), his7-366, leu1-32. top3::hermes kanMX ins1, rqh::nat (1) | Double KO, analyzed by qPCR  |
| ZB2602    | otr1R(SphI)::ura4, ura4-DS/E, ade6-(210 or 216), his7-366, leu1-32. top3::hermes kanMX ins1, rqh::nat (3) | Double KO, analyzed by qPCR  |
| ZB2603    | otr1R(SphI)::ura4, ura4-DS/E, ade6-(210 or 216), his7-366, leu1-32. top3::hermes kanMX ins1, rqh::nat (5) | Double KO, analyzed by qPCR  |
| ZB2713    | otr1R(SphI)::ura4, ura4-DS/E, ade6-(210 or 216), his7-366, leu1-32. top3::hermes kanMX ins2, rqh::nat ©   | Double KO, analyzed by qPCR  |
| ZB2714    | otr1R(SphI)::ura4, ura4-DS/E, ade6-(210 or 216), his7-366, leu1-32. top3::hermes kanMX ins2, rqh::nat (H) | Double KO, analyzed by qPCR  |
| ZB2715    | otr1R(SphI)::ura4, ura4-DS/E, ade6-(210 or 216), his7-366, leu1-32. top3::hermes kanMX ins2, rqh::nat (D) | Double KO, analyzed by qPCR  |
| ZB2716    | otr1R(SphI)::ura4, ura4-DS/E, ade6-(210 or 216), his7-366, leu1-32. top3::hermes kanMX ins2, rqh::nat €   | Double KO, analyzed by qPCR  |
| ZB2742    | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-4137::ura4+ top2 1163-6 (K388Q) ade6-? otr-?  | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown)                 |
| ZB2743    | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-30292::ura4+ top2 1163-6 (K388Q) ade6-? otr-?                                       | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown)                 |
| ZB2744    | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-4137::ura4+ top3 208 C1 (E70K) ade6-? otr-?   | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown)                 |
| ZB2745    | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-7921::ura4+ top3 208 C1 (E70K) ade6-? otr-?   | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown)                 |
| ZB2746    | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-4137::ura4+ top3 208 t1 (S69del) ade6-? otr-?                                       | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown)                 |
| ZB2747    | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-4137::ura4+ top3 208 t1 (S69del) ade6-? otr-?                                       | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown)                 |
| ZB2748    | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-30292::ura4+ top3 208 t1 (S69del) ade6-? otr-?                                      | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown)                 |
| ZB2749    | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-4137::ura4+ top3 208 s (E70Y71->D70 conversion) ade6-? otr-?                        | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown)                 |
| ZB2750    | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-4137::ura4+ top3 208 s (E70Y71->D70 conversion) ade6-? otr-?                        | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown)                 |
| ZB2751    | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-4137::ura4+ top3 208 s (E70Y71->D70 conversion) ade6-? otr-?                        | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown)                 |
| ZB2752    | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-7921::ura4+ top3 208 s (E70Y71->D70 conversion) ade6-? otr-?                        | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown)                 |
| ZB2753    | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-7921::ura4+ top3 208 s (E70Y71->D70 conversion) ade6-? otr-?                        | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown)                 |

|        |  |  |
|--------|--|--|
|        | conversion) ade6-? otr-?   | in spotting assay (not shown)  |
| ZB2754 | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-30292::ura4+ top3 208 s (E70Y71->D70 conversion) ade6-? otr-?                  | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown) |
| ZB2755 | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-4137::ura4+ tel2 2294 a1 (N765E766->K765 conversion) ade6-? otr-?              | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown) |
| ZB2756 | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-7921::ura4+ tel2 2294 a1 (N765E766->K765 conversion) ade6-? otr-?              | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown) |
| ZB2757 | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-7921::ura4+ tel2 2294 a1 (N765E766->K765 conversion) ade6-? otr-?              | CRISPR mutant with subtelomeric reporter, used in spotting assay (not shown) |
| zb2575 | leu1-32? ura4-D18 T2R1-4137::ura4+ (#2)  | subtelomeric reporter control strain, used in spotting assay (not shown)     |
| zb2577 | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-7921::ura4+ (#1)   | subtelomeric reporter control strain, used in spotting assay (not shown)     |
| zb2579 | leu1-32 ura4-D18 T2R1-30292::ura4+ (#3)  | subtelomeric reporter control strain, used in spotting assay (not shown)     |
| zb2521 | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210, ura4-D18, top3 208 C1 (E70K), rqh1::kanmx6 (#2)                       | Double KO, analyzed by qPCR  |
| zb2522 | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210, ura4-D18, top3 208 C1 (E70K), rqh1::kanmx6 (#3)                       | Double KO, analyzed by qPCR  |
| zb2523 | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210, ura4-D18, top3 208 t1 (S69del), rqh1::kanmx6 (#1)                     | Double KO, analyzed by qPCR  |
| zb2524 | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210, ura4-D18, top3 208 t1 (S69del), rqh1::kanmx6 (#2)                     | Double KO, analyzed by qPCR  |
| zb2525 | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210, ura4-D18, top3 208 s (E70Y71->D70 conversion), rqh1::kanmx6 (#1)      | Double KO, analyzed by qPCR  |
| zb2526 | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210, ura4-D18, top3 208 s (E70Y71->D70 conversion), rqh1::kanmx6 (#2)      | Double KO, analyzed by qPCR  |
| zb2527 | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210, ura4-D18, tel2 2294 a1 (N765E766->K765 conversion), rqh1::kanmx6 (#1) | Double KO, analyzed by qPCR  |
| zb2528 | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210, ura4-D18, tel2 2294 a1 (N765E766->K765 conversion), rqh1::kanmx6 (#2) | Double KO, analyzed by qPCR  |
| zb2529 | otr1R(SphI)::ade6+, ade6-M210, ura4-D18, rqh1::kanMX6 (#1)   | Rqh1 KO control, analyzed by qPCR  |

**TABLE 2.5. Oligonucleotides used in this study**

| Primer ID | Primer name     | Sequence   | Used for   |
|-----------|-----------------|--|--|
| om1567    | CFp75ura4R      | CATCTGGTGTGTACAAAATTG  | used to amplify CF CRISPR gRNA backbone                                  |
| top2 1000 | top2 1000       | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAAACAT<br>GTTCAATAATTACCTGtttttagagctagaataagcaag   | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| top2 1163 | top2 1163       | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAAATATA<br>GATGAAGTCGTCAAGAgtttttagagctagaataagcaag | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| top2 1610 | top2 1610       | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAAAGGA<br>AAACTACTGAATGTACgtttttagagctagaataagcaag  | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| top2 1755 | top2 1755       | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAAATGA<br>CAGATCAAGATCATGAgtttttagagctagaataagcaag  | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| top2 1869 | top2 1869       | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAACTAT<br>CATTAAAGTGCCTCGgttttagagctagaataagcaag    | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| top2 1805 | top2 1805       | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAAATTGCA<br>AAAGAGAAGGATACGgttttagagctagaataagcaag  | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| tel2 49   | tel2 49         | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAAATTAA<br>GGATTCTTTTAAACGgttttagagctagaataagcaag   | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| tel2 788  | tel2 788        | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAAATGTTA<br>TACGATCATCTCTTggttttagagctagaataagcaag  | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| tel2 2294 | tel2 2294       | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAAATAT<br>GTTGACGTTTTAAATGgttttagagctagaataagcaag   | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| tel2 968  | tel2 968        | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAAAAAG<br>GAGCTAGAAAAACAGgttttagagctagaataagcaag    | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| tel2 2310 | tel2 2310       | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAACTGG<br>AGTGTCTGATCGAAGTgttttagagctagaataagcaag   | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| tel2 848  | tel2 848        | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAAAATTA<br>ATCGAAGGAAGTGAGgttttagagctagaataagcaag   | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| top3 208  | top3 208        | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAACTCCA<br>ACTAGAATATTCAGAgtttttagagctagaataagcaag  | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| top3 60   | top3 60         | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAACTCGG<br>TAGCAAGCATTCTAGGgttttagagctagaataagcaag  | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| rik1 32   | rik1 32         | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAAATCATT<br>CCTTCTGGGCAACGGgttttagagctagaataagcaag  | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| dc1 917   | dc1 917         | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAAAG<br>CAGTTGTCAGATGACGgttttagagctagaataagcaag     | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| dc1 1696  | dc1 1696        | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAAACAATA<br>CCAACCTGAAAGACAgtttttagagctagaataagcaag | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| dc1 3619  | dc1 3619        | ATAGTTGCTGTTGCCAAAAACATAACCTGTACCGAAGAAATCAAT<br>TTCAAACAGAACCAggttttagagctagaataagcaag  | Used to amplify sgRNA fragment for CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis               |
| om1807    | top2 f nt905    | acctgaacaatgaacgcatc   | used to amplify top2 coding sequence for genotyping by Sanger sequencing |
| om1808    | top2 r nt1922   | TTCCAGTATTCGTACTCGGG   | used to amplify top2 coding sequence for genotyping by Sanger sequencing |
| om1809    | tel2 f 5utr -50 | ATCCACCGAAGGTTACTGTC   | used to amplify tel2 coding sequence for genotyping by Sanger sequencing |
| om1810    | tel2 r 1102     | TGGAGAACATTAGGGATTGGA  | used to amplify tel2 coding sequence for genotyping by Sanger sequencing |
| om1811    | tel2 f 1918     | CACGATCAGTTTTATTCACCCA   | used to amplify tel2 coding sequence for genotyping by Sanger sequencing |
| om1812    | tel2 r 2573     | AAAGGAGCTGAGTCATCCAG   | used to amplify tel2 coding sequence for genotyping by Sanger sequencing |
| om1813    | top3 f 5utr     | GACCTTAACACCTTACACGC   | used to amplify top3 coding sequence for genotyping by Sanger sequencing |
| om1814    | top3 r          | GAAGTCTGCTCGGATAACCT   | used to amplify top3 coding sequence for genotyping by Sanger sequencing |
| om2061    | rqh1 F          | aatttgtaagtcgcgagtc  | used to amplify Rqh1 KO frag   |
| om2063    | rqh1 R          | ggagaccaacaatgcatggac  | used to amplify Rqh1 KO frag   |

|        |                  |  |   |
|--------|------------------|--|---|
| oM988  | p33_F_qPCR       | tatcctgcgtctcggtatcc                                 | used to amplify dg repeats (qPCR)   |
|        |                  |  |   |
| oM989  | p33_R_qPCR       | ctgttcgtgaatgctgagaaag                               | used to amplify dg repeats (qPCR)   |
| oM984  | p30_F_qPCR       | ccatatcaatttcccatgttcc                               | used to amplify dh repeats (qPCR)   |
| oM985  | p30_R_qPCR       | catcaagcgagtcgagatga                                 | used to amplify dh repeats (qPCR)   |
| oM4    | act1qPCRf        | TGCACCTGCCTTTTATGTTG                                 | used to amplify actin (qPCR)  |
| oM5    | act1qPCRr        | TGGGAACAGTGTGGGTAACA                                 | used to amplify actin (qPCR)  |
| om1946 | hermes TIR R new | cag aga act tca aca agc ca                           | used to amplify Hermes TIR/KanMX6 for Gibson assembly   |
| om1947 | hermes TIR L new | caa caa caa gtg gct tat ttt                          | used to amplify Hermes TIR/KanMX6 for Gibson assembly   |
| om1948 | top2 ins1 USF F  | CGAGGTTTCGATGGAGCAAAC                                | used to amplify <i>top2</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top2::Hermes ins1</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1949 | top2 ins1 USF R  | AAAATAAGCCACTTGTGTGGTCTTAAATTAGCAGTTATATCC           | used to amplify <i>top2</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top2::Hermes ins1</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1950 | top2 ins1 DSF F  | TGGCTTGTGAAGTTCTCTGTTAAGACATATGCTTAATGGCGAGCCTTG     | used to amplify <i>top2</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top2::Hermes ins1</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1951 | top2 ins1 DSF R  | CGTTGCTTGAAGTACGCGACAGTT                             | used to amplify <i>top2</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top2::Hermes ins1</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1952 | top2 ins2 USF F  | AACTTGGTATGACAATATGTC                                | used to amplify <i>top2</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top2::Hermes ins2</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1953 | top2 ins2 USF R  | AAAATAAGCCACTTGTGTGGTCATTAACATGTTCAAAATTACCTAGGAGG   | used to amplify <i>top2</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top2::Hermes ins2</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1954 | top2 ins2 DSF F  | TGGCTTGTGAAGTTCTCTGTTAATGACCGTTGGGACGTGGCCTTGCTGTTTC | used to amplify <i>top2</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top2::Hermes ins2</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1955 | top2 ins2 DSF R  | ACCTCCTCACTACAGAAGAT                                 | used to amplify <i>top2</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top2::Hermes ins2</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1956 | top3 ins1 USF F  | ATGCGCGTCCTATGTGTTGC                                 | used to amplify <i>top3</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top3::Hermes ins1</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1957 | top3 ins1 USF R  | TGGCTTGTGAAGTTCTCTGCTGTTAAGTGACCGGATACAGAAGTCATTG    | used to amplify <i>top3</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top3::Hermes ins1</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1958 | top3 ins1 DSF F  | AAAATAAGCCACTTGTGTGCTTAACAGAAGCTCTTTCTCTCTGAA        | used to amplify <i>top3</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top3::Hermes ins1</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1959 | top3 ins1 DSF R  | TATAACTTACGACCGTTCCA                                 | used to amplify <i>top3</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top3::Hermes ins1</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1960 | top3 ins2 USF F  | ACCGACCAATTTGACTCTTC                                 | used to amplify <i>top3</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top3::Hermes ins2</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1961 | top3 ins2 USF R  | TGGCTTGTGAAGTTCTCTGCTTCCATTTTAACCTGCACCAACGTTTCGGCT  | used to amplify <i>top3</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top3::Hermes ins2</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1962 | top3 ins2 DSF F  | AAAATAAGCCACTTGTGTGAATGGAAGAAGAGCTTTTTCTAAAGG        | used to amplify <i>top3</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top3::Hermes ins2</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1963 | top3 ins2 DSF R  | ACAAATTCAGTTACACCTTGGC                               | used to amplify <i>top3</i> CDS homology fragment for generation of <i>top3::Hermes ins2</i> transforming fragment by Gibson assembly |
| om1968 | top2 ins1 USF    | gaattcggagctcggtaccatcgccgaggtttcgtgagagcaaac        | used to introduce plasmid backbone  |



|        |                       |   |  |
|--------|-----------------------|---|--|
|        | F GA                  |   | homology for Gibson assembly of <i>top2::Hermes ins1</i> transforming fragment                                       |
| om1969 | top2 ins1 DSF<br>R GA | gactctagaggatccccgatccgttgcttgatgacgcagctt  | used to introduce plasmid backbone<br>homology for Gibson assembly of <i>top2::Hermes ins1</i> transforming fragment |
| om1970 | top2 ins2 USF<br>F GA | gaattcgagctcggtaccatcgcaacttggtatgacaatatgtc  | used to introduce plasmid backbone<br>homology for Gibson assembly of <i>top2::Hermes ins2</i> transforming fragment |
| om1971 | top2 ins2 DSF<br>R GA | gactctagaggatccccgatcacctcctcactacagaagat   | used to introduce plasmid backbone<br>homology for Gibson assembly of <i>top2::Hermes ins2</i> transforming fragment |
| om1972 | top3 ins1 USF<br>F GA | gaattcgagctcggtaccatcgcatgctgctctatgtgttc   | used to introduce plasmid backbone<br>homology for Gibson assembly of <i>top3::Hermes ins1</i> transforming fragment |
| om1973 | top3 ins1 DSF<br>R GA | gactctagaggatccccgatcataacttacgacgttcca   | used to introduce plasmid backbone<br>homology for Gibson assembly of <i>top3::Hermes ins1</i> transforming fragment |
| om1974 | top3 ins2 USF<br>F GA | gaattcgagctcggtaccatcgacccaccaatttgactcttc  | used to introduce plasmid backbone<br>homology for Gibson assembly of <i>top3::Hermes ins2</i> transforming fragment |
| om1975 | top3 ins2 DSF<br>R GA | gactctagaggatccccgatcacaaattcagttacaccttggc   | used to introduce plasmid backbone<br>homology for Gibson assembly of <i>top3::Hermes ins2</i> transforming fragment |
| om2089 | rDNA_18S_qP<br>CR F   | ccctgcattgtatttcttg   | used to amplify 18S rDNA repeats (qPCR)  |
| om2090 | rDNA_18S_qP<br>CR R   | tcaacttctgatgtaggat   | used to amplify 18S rDNA repeats (qPCR)  |
| om1567 | CFp75ura4R            | CATCTGGTGTGTACAAAATTG   | used to amplify CF CRISPR gRNA backbone  |
| oM894  | ura4#3                | CGAGGATTTGACCCAGGATA  | used to amplify ura4 (qPCR)  |
| oM895  | ura4#4                | GAGACCACGTCCCAAAGGTA  | used to amplify ura4 (qPCR)  |
|        | p7bc1LinkV2           | CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATATCACGGTAAT<br>ACGACTCACTATAGGGC                                  | Hermes library prep linker   |
|        | p7bc8LinkV2           | CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATACTTGAGTAATA<br>CGACTCACTATAGGGC                                  | Hermes library prep linker   |
|        | p7bc10LinkV2          | CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATTAGCTTGAATACGACTCAC<br>TATAGGGC                                   | Hermes library prep linker   |
|        | p7bc11LinkV2          | CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATGGCTACGTAATACGACTCAC<br>TATAGGGC                                  | Hermes library prep linker   |
|        | HERbc05               | AATGATACGGCGACCAACCGAGATCTACACTCTTCCCTACACGAC<br>GCTCTCCGATCTACAGTGCTATGTGGCTTACGTTTGCCTG | Hermes library prep barcode primer   |
|        | HERbc06               | AATGATACGGCGACCAACCGAGATCTACACTCTTCCCTACACGAC<br>GCTCTCCGATCTGCCAATCTATGTGGCTTACGTTTGCCTG | Hermes library prep barcode primer   |
|        | HERbc12               | AATGATACGGCGACCAACCGAGATCTACACTCTTCCCTACACGAC<br>GCTCTCCGATCTTGTACTATGTGGCTTACGTTTGCCTG   | Hermes library prep barcode primer   |
|        | HERbc09               | AATGATACGGCGACCAACCGAGATCTACACTCTTCCCTACACGAC<br>GCTCTCCGATCTGATCAGCTATGTGGCTTACGTTTGCCTG | Hermes library prep barcode primer   |

**TABLE 2.6. Plasmids used in this study**

| Plasmid ID |                   | Used for  |
|------------|-------------------|---|
| pMZ241     | pHL2578           | Hermes transposase-expressing plasmid   |
| pMZ242     | pHL2577           | Hermes transposon donor plasmid   |
| pMZ639     | pDB4280           | Cloning-free CRISPR ura4 plasmid (linearize to generate backbone)                                 |
| pMZ641     | pDB4282           | Cloning-free CRISPR ura4 plasmid (linearize to generate fragment for sgRNA amplification)         |
| pmz771     | top2::hermes ins1 | Contains assembled top2::Hermes ins1 transformation fragment                                      |
| pmz773     | top2::hermes ins2 | Contains assembled top2::Hermes ins2 transformation fragment                                      |
| pmz774     | top3::hermes ins1 | Contains assembled top3::Hermes ins1 transformation fragment                                      |
| pmz777     | top3::hermes ins2 | Contains assembled top3::Hermes ins2 transformation fragment                                      |
| pMZ160     | pTfURA4           | XhoI digested to remove insert; backbone used in Gibson Assembly of Hermes transforming fragments |
| pMZ54      | p4339             | Digested w/ EcoRI to generate nat fragment for nat/kan marker swap in FY18409                     |

## CHAPTER III: INVESTIGATION OF VARIABLES AFFECTING TF2 TRANSPOSABLE ELEMENT INTEGRATION IN *S. POMBE*

### 3.1 Introduction

Transposable elements, also known as “jumping genes”, are mobile genetic elements which possess the ability to “jump” or mobilize and integrate into discrete locations throughout host genomes. Eukaryotic transposable elements are divided into two classes depending on whether their mobilization occurs via a transcribed RNA intermediate that is subsequently reverse-transcribed into cDNA and then inserted, thereby creating a new copy of the transposon (Class I retroelements, also referred to as retrotransposons) or a DNA intermediate that is excised followed by insertion into a new locus (Class II transposable elements) (Wessler, 2006). Many transposable elements exhibit distinct integration targeting preferences; some of the best-described examples include the targeting of Ty1 and Ty3 upstream of RNA Pol III-transcribed promoters, the preference of Ty5 for heterochromatic regions, and the sequence specificity of ZAM retroelements in *Drosophila*. (Brodeur, Sandmeyer, & Olson, 1983; Faye et al., 2008; Guo & Levin, 2010; Zou et al., 1996). In many instances, such as those described above, the targeting preferences exhibited by transposons are mediated by their accompanying integrase protein, which facilitates target site selection, tethering, and integration (Gai & Voytas, 1998; Sultana et al., 2017; Xie et al., 2001).

Previously, our lab has shown that Tf1 retrotransposon integration in fission yeast is guided by an interaction between Tf1 integrase and the host DNA binding protein Sap1 and that this targeting depends on Sap1’s efficiency as a replication fork barrier (Jacobs et al., 2015). The fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* is colonized by the Tf family

of retrotransposons which includes Tf1 and closely related Tf2 elements. Laboratory strains of *S. pombe* contain 13 full-length Tf2 elements while Tf1 transposons can be found in some wild yeast isolates (Esnault & Levin, 2015). There is a high degree of sequence similarity between Tf1 and Tf2; while their respective Gag sequences are divergent, the coding sequence for reverse transcriptase (RT) and integrase (IN) are nearly identical. Despite their apparent sequence similarity, Tf1 and Tf2 have significantly different mobilization efficiencies and integration modalities (Esnault & Levin, 2015; Weaver, Shpakovski, Caputo, Levin, & Boeke, 1993). Tf1 predominantly mobilizes via an integrase-dependent mechanism while Tf2 mobilizes by homologous recombination (HR) with pre-existing full-length Tf2 elements independent of integrase approximately 70% of the time (Hoff et al., 1998). Despite the marked difference in mobilization efficiency and preference, domain swapping experiments have revealed that Tf2 integrase retains full activity (Esnault & Levin, 2015).

Due to the high degree of similarity between Tf1 and Tf2 integrase, we generated a yeast strain in which all 13 Tf2 elements have been removed using CRISPR-Cas9 facilitated inter-LTR recombination (hereafter referred to as Tf-0) to test whether Tf2 integrase could compensate in the absence of full length transposable elements via integrase-mediated transposition. We also set out to characterize the integration site preference of Tf2 integrase, since standard methods for integration site analysis such as high throughput sequencing of *de novo* insertions are technically challenging due to the transposable element's propensity for mobilization via HR. We found that Tf2 integration site preference is remarkably divergent from Tf1; while *de novo* Tf2 integrations show a bias towards gene promoters and H2A.z-enriched regions similar to Tf1, Sap1 binding

has no predictive value in determining the location of Tf2 insertions. Despite this uncoupling, Sap1's RFB activity is still required for efficient Tf2 mobilization by HR. In this work we explore several possible mechanisms behind this requirement, including the possibility that Sap1's RFB activity may lead to generation of fragile sites at Tf2 elements by forcing replication-transcription collisions. Interestingly, we find that loss of Sap1's RFB activity stabilizes heterochromatin at Tf2 elements, which may in turn influence the recombinogenicity of these regions.

### **3.2 Materials and Methods**

#### *Strains*

Strains used in this study are listed in Table 3.1.

#### *Mobilization assays*

The mobilization assays were performed as previously described (Hoff et al., 1998) with some modification. Plasmids carrying either a full-length Tf2 transposon (pHL1631), a Tf2 transposon with a frameshift in the Gag coding sequence (Tf2 Gag FS, pHL1632), or a Tf2 transposon with a frameshift affecting the Integrase coding sequence (Tf2 IN FS, pHL1633) under the control of an *nmt1* promoter were independently transformed into each strain to be tested and plated on EMMG+DO-URA+15 uM B1 to select for successful plasmid transformation. For each time point (4 and 6 day induction periods) two transformants from each strain and plasmid combination were patched onto EMMG+DO-URA+15 uM B1 as independent biological replicates and incubated for 2 days at 32° C before replica plating onto non-repressive plates (EMMG+DO-URA). After the appropriate induction period patches were replica plated onto YEA+ 1g/L FOA

to select against Tf2-expressing plasmids and incubated for an additional two days at 32° C. To quantify Tf2 mobilization frequency each patch was scraped off of the YEA+FOA counterselective plates and resuspended in 1 mL of water. 100 uL of each crude cell suspension was removed and added to 900 uL of sterile water in a spectrophotometer cuvette to measure the optical density at 595 nm (OD<sub>600</sub>). The adjusted optical density was then used to calculate the volume of cells required to prepare a 1 mL cell suspension with an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.8. The cell suspension at OD<sub>600</sub> 0.8 was then diluted five fold by removing 300 uL and transferring it to a fresh 2 mL eppendorf tube with 1.2 mL of sterile water for a final OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.16. The diluted (OD<sub>600</sub> .16) cell suspension was then further diluted 200X by adding 7.5 uL of the OD<sub>600</sub> .16 cell suspension to 1492.5 uL of sterile water in a 2 mL eppendorf tube. 1 mL of the OD<sub>600</sub> .16 cell suspension was plated on 4 YEA+FOA plates supplemented with 200 mg/L G418 (KSE Scientific) while 1 mL of the corresponding 200 mL dilution was plated on 4 YEA plates (250 uL per plate) to quantify the number of viable colony forming units in each suspension. All strains were incubated at 32° C for approximately 2.5 days with the exception of *sap1-c* containing strains. Due to the delayed growth phenotype exhibited by *sap1-c* mutants, all *sap1-c* containing strains were incubated for 4 days at 32° C to allow for an approximately equivalent generation time as their wild type counterparts. To quantify the mobilization frequency in each genetic background the number of colonies which grew on selective (YEA+FOA+G418) plates was counted for each strain replicate in addition to the number of colonies which grew on the corresponding non-selective (YEA) plates. The percent mobilization frequencies for each strain analyzed were obtained using the following equation: 
$$[(\# \text{ of FOA}^R\text{G418}^R \text{ colonies}) / (\# \text{ of viable colonies on YEA} \times 200)]$$

### *RNA preparation, Reverse Transcription, and qPCR*

5 mL yeast cultures were grown overnight, washed, and harvested. Bulk RNA was isolated for reverse transcription and analysis using a Direct-Zol Miniprep RNA purification kit (Zymo Research) or by hot acid phenol RNA extraction following the protocol outlined in (Bahler & Wise, 2017). For RNA purifications performed using the Direct-Zol Miniprep kit cell pellets were resuspended in 300 mL of the provided TRI reagent and dispensed into 2 mL screw cap tubes with approximately 500 uL of glass beads. Cells were lysed in TRI Reagent by bead beating (4 cycles of 2.5 minutes each carried out at 4° C, followed by a 2 minute rest on ice in between cycles). The remaining steps were carried out according to the manufacturer's instructions. Reverse transcription was subsequently performed using SuperScript VILO Master Mix (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. qPCR reactions were set up using KAPA SYBR FAST qPCR Master Mix (2x) according to the manufacturer's instructions and run on a Mastercycler ep realplex Real-time PCR System (Eppendorf) for analysis. Cell cycle Tf2 expression was analyzed as described in the Cell Cycle Analysis of Tf2 Expression Methods section; plasmid Tf2 expression levels were quantified by extracting RNA from all plasmid-transformed strains in media lacking thiamine to induce Tf2 expression prior to RNA extraction, cDNA preparation, and quantification of plasmid Tf2 expression levels by using primers directed against the *neo* cassette (om175,176) to ensure specificity for plasmid-expressed *Tf2* and normalizing to *act1* (om4,5).

### *ChIP-qPCR*

Chromatin immunoprecipitation was performed as previously described with some modifications (H. P. W. Cam, Simon, 2016). 100 mL of cells were grown overnight at 32° C to an OD<sub>600</sub> of .5-.8 and fixed with freshly prepared 1% formaldehyde for 10 minutes. Cells were lysed by bead beating in lysis buffer (4 cycles of 2.5 minutes each carried out at 4° C, followed by a 2 minute rest on ice in between cycles).

Immunoprecipitations were carried out with approximately 15-25 ug of input chromatin in a total reaction volume of 250 ul with 2 ug of ChIP Grade Anti-Histone H3 (di methyl K9) antibody (ab1220, Abcam) or 1.8 ug of Recombinant Biotinylated H3K9me3 Antibody (C15500003, Diagenode) with 2 IP replicates per strain/antibody combination. Chromatin from each strain was prepared, solubilized, and pooled prior to splitting the corresponding sample from each strain in half for subsequent H3K9me2 and H3K9me3 immunoprecipitation performed in parallel. The H3K9me3 ChIPs were performed using a modified protocol according to the manufacturer's recommendations; briefly, 73 uL of M-280 Streptavidin Dynabeads (Invitrogen) per ChIP reaction were prepared by washing with TBS/BSA before addition of 1.8 ug of H3K9me3 antibody diluted in 100 uL of TBS/BSA, followed by a 1 hour long incubation at 4° C to allow for antibody-bead binding. The antibody-conjugated beads were subsequently blocked by washing twice with 200 uL of 5 uM biotin to prevent binding of endogenous biotinylated proteins to the beads before proceeding with immunoprecipitation. Antibody incubation and washing steps were all carried out in Eppendorf Protein LoBind microcentrifuge tubes; after elution of cross-linked chromatin from Dynabeads Protein G (Invitrogen) or Dynabeads M-280 Streptavidin (Invitrogen), reverse cross-linking and all subsequent steps were carried out using Eppendorf DNA LoBind microcentrifuge tubes.



After immunoprecipitation, samples were analyzed by qPCR as described in the previous section. Fold enrichment was determined by calculating target region enrichment relative to a mock ChIP reaction in which no antibody was added and normalizing to *act1* enrichment (H3K9me2 ChIP-qPCR) or enrichment relative to a mock ChIP reaction in which a biotinylated anti-IgG antibody (provided as part of a set with the anti-H3K9me3 antibody) was added as a negative control before normalizing to *act1* enrichment (H3K9me3 ChIP-qPCR).

#### *Generation of ectopic promoter-RFB modified Tf2-3 strains*

Fragments carrying the desired *Tf2-3* modifications were prepared by Gibson assembly. Upstream and downstream homology fragments were generated by amplifying flanking DNA directly from the parent strain ZB1923. Several kilobases of DNA are missing from ZB1923 as a result of inter-LTR recombination in the process of generating the final Tf-0 strain, and so upstream sequence was taken from the sequence immediately adjacent to the breakpoint of the Tf2 LTR involved in the recombination event while downstream sequence was amplified from the *Tf2-3* CDS. The *eno1* promoter fragment was generated by amplification from plasmid pMZ371 ; Ter2 S and AS sequences were introduced by generating primers incorporating the desired sequence; and the natMX4 cassette was amplified from pMZ371 in the presence of 5% DMSO . After plasmids containing the desired sequences for transformation were prepared and verified by Sanger sequencing, the assembled fragment was amplified in its entirety from each plasmid as a complete transforming fragment (including target site homology and a selectable marker), gel purified, and transformed into ZB1923 by electroporation. Transformants were selected by plating electroporated cells on YEA for 24 hours before replica plating

to YEA supplemented with 200 ug/mL clonNAT (Werner BioAgents). The transforming fragment was subsequently re-amplified from genomic DNA by colony PCR (Phire Plant Direct PCR Master Mix, Thermo Scientific), gel extracted, and sent for Sanger sequencing to confirm that all of the active sequences (*eno1* promoter, Ter2, Tf2 CDS) were intact. A fragment was amplified across the breakpoint closest to the natMX4 cassette by colony PCR to further confirm integration in the correct genomic location. All strains were subsequently transformed with pHL1633 (Tf2 IN FS) to assay retrotransposition in each strain.

### *Colony PCR*

Colony PCR was performed by preparing 10 uL colony PCR reactions using Phire Plant Direct PCR Master Mix (Thermo Scientific) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Genotyping Tf2 recombination events in wild type cells was performed by picking colonies with a retrotransposition event and resuspending them in 20 uL of sterile water and adding 1 uL of cell suspension to 9 uL of PCR master mix. 13 reactions were prepared per colony; 12 reactions for Tf2 transposon genotyping using individual primers specific to each of the 12 transposons and an internal primer directed against the spliced *neo* junction within retrotransposed Tf2 and one reaction containing primers directed against an external region as a PCR control. PCR reactions were subsequently amplified in an ABI 2720 Thermal Cycler and the presence and location of Tf2 recombination events were recorded. Genotyping *Tf2-3* recombination events in the ectopic promoter-RFB retrotransposition assay was performed using a primer directed against the spliced *neo* junction in retrotransposed Tf2 elements and a primer immediately downstream of *Tf2-3* to identify plasmid Tf2- *Tf2-3* recombination events. A pinhead-sized amount of

cells were removed from each colony and added directly into each PCR reaction prior to amplification on an ABI 2720 Thermal Cycler.

*Library preparation of Tf2 insertions for high-throughput sequencing*

Insertion libraries were prepared as previously described (Guo & Levin, 2010) with some modification. The mobilization assay plasmids expressing WT Tf2 and Tf2 IN FS were modified for preparation of Tf2 insertion libraries for high-throughput sequencing by addition of a unique tag of substituted nucleotides in the U5 sequence of Tf2 and introduction of a SpeI site to prohibit PCR amplification of the internal transposon sequence, as outlined in (Guo & Levin, 2010). Plasmids compatible with high-throughput sequencing library preparation were generated by Gibson assembly of a ~700 bp synthesized gene fragment (Invitrogen) for introduction of the desired modifications and a fragment obtained by amplifying the entirety of the WT Tf2 or Tf2 IN FS mobilization assay plasmids with the exclusion of the region to be replaced by the synthesized gene fragment. The modified plasmids were then transformed into the desired yeast strains by electroporation and plated on EMMG+DO-URA+15 uM B1 to select for transformants while maintaining plasmid Tf2 repression.

Twenty-eight plates containing 16 independent patches were prepared for each replicate/strain by patching transformants onto EMMG+DO-URA + 15 uM B1 and incubating for 2 days at 32° C followed by a 4 day induction period on EMMG+DO-URA. After the transposition period all plates were scraped and the cells obtained were resuspended in liquid YEA+ 1g/L FOA+15 uM B1 to a starting OD<sub>600</sub> of .25 and grown to an OD of 6.0 to select against Tf2-expressing plasmids. Cells were then passaged to

YEA+FOA+G418+B1 at a starting density of .5 and incubated at 32° C before reaching a final OD<sub>600</sub> of 8.0 to select for cells carrying de novo Tf2 integrations. The final cultures were harvested followed by extraction of genomic DNA by potassium acetate precipitation and phenol-chloroform extraction (J. M. Murray, Watson, & Carr, 2016). Illumina MiSeq samples were prepared as previously described (Guo & Levin, 2010); briefly, genomic DNA was digested with MseI (NEB) overnight followed by column purification to obtain digested genomic DNA. Linker oligonucleotides were annealed and ligated to MseI-digested DNA (T4 DNA Ligase, Invitrogen) followed by an additional column purification step. The purified ligation reaction products were then digested with SpeI (NEB) overnight followed by PCR amplification of the SpeI-cut product (Titanium Taq DNA Polymerase, Clontech) using primers om538 and the desired barcoding primer (bc02 [om544] or bc07 [om543]). Sequencing libraries were column purified and amplicons between 200-600 bp were isolated by Pippin Prep. Sequencing runs were subsequently performed on an Illumina miSeq (RUCDR).

#### *Cell cycle analysis of Tf2 expression*

Cell cycle analysis of Tf2 expression was conducted using strain DG704 which contains the temperature sensitive *cdc25-22* mutant, which at the restrictive temperature arrests the cell cycle in the G2-M transition. Cultures were grown overnight at permissive temperature (26° C) to a starting OD<sub>600</sub> of .45 before shifting to the restrictive temperature (36° C) for 4.5 hours. G2 arrest was confirmed by microscopy prior to release at the permissive temperature (26° C). Samples were then taken every 15 minutes for ~2.5 hours with 10 mL of culture harvested, washed, and pelleted before resuspending in Trizol reagent for RNA extraction using the Direct-zol RNA Miniprep Purification Kit

(Zymo Research) as described in the RNA extraction Methods section. Several uL of cells were placed on a slide for analysis by microscopy after ethanol fixation; the proportion of septated cells was quantified and recorded for each time point. qRT-PCR was subsequently performed for relative quantification of *Tf2* expression at all time points as described in the RNA Extraction, Reverse Transcription, and qPCR Methods section using primers directed against *Tf2* LTR (om16,17) or *Tf2* CDS (om18,19) and normalized to *act1* (om4,5).

#### *S9.6 DNA-RNA Hybrid Immunoprecipitation (DRIP)*

DRIP was performed as previously described, with some modification (Taneja et al.). Briefly, 100 mL cultures were grown at 32° C to an OD<sub>600</sub> of .5-.8, washed, and harvested. Harvested cells were then spheroplasted using Zymolyase 100T, pelleted, and resuspended in 1X TE supplemented with 1% SDS before incubation at 65 C for 10 minutes. All subsequent steps were conducted using Eppendorf DNA LoBind tubes. Chromatin was isolated by adding 350 uL of 5 M potassium acetate, incubating samples on ice for 5 minutes, and centrifuging the samples at 16k x g for 10 minutes at 4 C. Chromatin was then precipitated by addition of 490 uL isopropanol before centrifugation for 5 minutes at 16k x g for 5 minutes. Pelleted chromatin was washed with cold 70% ethanol before being resuspended in 20 uL of TE. All samples were treated with 2 ug of RnaseA for 30 minutes at 42 C followed by 100 ug of Proteinase K for 30 minutes at 65 C. DNA was subsequently purified by phenol chloroform extraction followed by ethanol precipitation in the presence of sodium acetate at -80 C. Purified DNA was then resuspended in TE and each sample was split in half, with one portion reserved for S9.6 experimental immunoprecipitation while the other half was retained as a negative control

after RnaseH treatment. All samples were digested with 50 U each of the restriction enzymes EcoRV, SalI, XhoI, BglII, and HincII in NEB Buffer 3.1 at 37° C overnight; each of the negative controls had an additional 3 uL of Thermostable RnaseH (NEB, M0523S) added simultaneously. After all digestions had gone to completion DNA was again purified by ethanol precipitation. 1 uL was reserved from each sample and diluted in 19 uL of TE as “input” DNA. All samples were subsequently immunoprecipitated with 6 ug of S9.6 antibody (Millipore, MABE1095) overnight at 4 C in 500 uL of binding buffer (10 mM Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, 140 mM NaCl, 0.05% Triton X-100). Immunoprecipitated DNA was recovered by adding 20 uL of Protein A conjugated Dynabeads and incubating for 1 hour at 4 C. Protein A Dynabeads were subsequently washed 3 times with 1 mL of binding buffer and eluted in 50 uL of elution buffer (50 mM Tris HCl, pH 8, 10 mM EDTA, .5% SDS) at 65° C for 10 minutes. The supernatant was removed and transferred to fresh Eppendorf DNA LoBind tubes and the elution step was repeated once more before treating all samples with 100 ug of Proteinase K for 1 hour at 55° C. Immunoprecipitated DNA was purified by phenol-chloroform extraction followed by ethanol precipitation and samples were subsequently analyzed by qPCR.

### **3.3 Results**

#### *3.3.1 Tf2 mobilization is reduced in Tf-0*

Tf2 transposable elements have previously been shown to mobilize via an integrase-independent mechanism reliant on host HR machinery approximately 70% of the time despite their similarity to Tf1 transposable elements which utilize integrase-mediated transposition (Esnault & Levin, 2015; Faye et al., 2008; Sehgal, Lee, &

Espenshade, 2007). Further, Tf2 have been observed to preferentially recombine with pre-existing transposable elements in a phenomenon known as integration site recycling (Esnault & Levin, 2015; Hoff et al., 1998; Sehgal et al., 2007). We set out to analyze whether the mobilization preferences and integration efficiency of Tf2 transposons are impacted by the absence of pre-existing full-length transposable elements as substrates for HR. We performed a series of retrotransposition assays to quantify bulk Tf2 mobilization events by transforming cells with a plasmid expressing a full-length Tf2 transposon under the control of the thiamine-repressible promoter *nmt1* (as described in (Hoff et al., 1998; Mallet, Larochelle, & Bachand, 2017; Sehgal et al., 2007) (Figure 3.1a). In this system the sequence upstream of the 5' LTR transcription start site has been removed from the encoded transposon to ensure production of a functional in-frame Tf2 transcript; additionally, the transposable element carries an intron-containing neomycin resistance gene inserted into the 3' UTR of the transposon in the reverse orientation with respect to the Tf2 coding sequence. In this arrangement only those cells in which at least one transposition event has occurred will exhibit G418 resistance (Mallet et al., 2017; Sehgal et al., 2007). To quantify mobilization events the cells were plated on media lacking thiamine to allow for plasmid Tf2 expression throughout a defined induction period (4 or 6 days), and after counter-selecting against the Tf2 expressing plasmid at the conclusion of the induction period cells were plated on G418 and FOA containing media to select for cells in which a genomic transposition event had occurred. The same cell suspension was simultaneously plated on non-selective YEA media to normalize transposition events based on the number of viable colony forming units present. The transposition events which occurred in strains transformed with the WT Tf2-expressing

plasmid served as a baseline for retrotransposition frequency. Integrase-mediated transposition is precluded in Tf2 IN FS due to a frameshift in the integrase coding sequence, allowing for determination of the proportion of mobilization events which occur via HR with respect to overall retrotransposition rates given that endogenous Tf2 proteins are insufficient to complement plasmid-expressed Tf2 in *trans* (Hoff et al., 1998). The frameshift occurring in Gag in Tf2 Gag FS prevents production of a functional polyprotein, therefore reverse transcription and retrotransposition of plasmid-expressed Tf2 should be prohibited; as expected we were unable to recover any FOA<sup>R</sup>G418<sup>R</sup> colonies from Tf2 Gag FS expressing strains indicating an absence of background colony growth. Tf2 Gag FS results are not shown here because they were all negative for retrotransposition; strains transformed with Tf2 Gag FS-expressing plasmid were included as a negative control.

Assaying Tf2 mobilization rates in the transposon-free strain Tf-0 revealed that gross mobilizations decreased in the absence of full-length Tf2 elements; after 4 and 6 days of plasmid Tf2 expression Tf-0 had 85% and 88% fewer insertions than its wild type counterpart, respectively (Figure 3.1b). The proportion of integrase-independent mobilizations which occurred in Tf-0, assessed by determining the ratio of Tf2 IN fs insertions to WT Tf2 insertions, was only slightly affected by the lack of full-length transposons as HR substrates (Day 4, .73 [PB1] and .60 [Tf-0]; Day 6, .86 and .49). These results suggest that even in the absence of full length transposable elements as HR substrates de novo Tf2 mobilizations still occur predominantly via an integrase-independent mechanism, albeit at a much lower frequency and with integrase-mediated transpositions comprising a slightly larger portion of all retroransposition events.



Tf2 elements have previously been demonstrated to preferentially recombine with pre-existing full-length genomic Tf2 transposons in a phenomenon known as integration site recycling (Hoff et al., 1998). Colonies with a wild type genetic background containing all 13 endogenous Tf2 elements with de novo WT Tf2 integrations were genotyped with primers directed against the spliced neo-AI junction (present within all newly mobilized transposable elements) and primers unique to the region immediately downstream of the 3' end of all 13 existing genomic Tf2 transposons to identify colonies bearing Tf2 integrase-independent insertions which were the products of HR between plasmid Tf2 cDNA and existing transposons. Consistent with previous studies 19/22 colonies tested positive for at least one genomic Tf2 recombination events, with the remainder presumably bearing the products of integrase-dependent mobilization into regions outside of existing Tf2 elements (data not shown). Given the abundance of solo LTRs throughout the genome, mobilizations via HR in Tf-0 are presumably the products of recombination with Tf2 LTRs given that they are the only remaining homologous genomic elements. The significantly reduced mobilization frequency in Tf-0 also suggests, however, that overall Tf2 LTRs are weak substrates for HR, possibly due to reduced sequence homology or the absence of another targeting feature associated with full length transposable elements.

### *3.3.2 Tf2 mobilization is reduced in sap1-c and becomes integrase-dependent*

Sap1 is a DNA binding protein which serves as a polar replication fork barrier (RFB); Sap1 binds within the ribosomal DNA (rDNA) repeats where its polar RFB activity ensures replication proceeds only in the sense direction with respect to ribosomal RNA transcription to prevent mitotic recombination (Krings & Bastia, 2005; Mejía-

Ramírez, Sánchez-Gorostiaga, Krimer, Schvartzman, & Hernández, 2005; Noguchi & Noguchi, 2007). Sap1 also binds to Tf1 and Tf2 LTRs where it exerts the opposite effect by promoting regional instability (Zaratiegui, Vaughn, et al., 2011). Previous work from our lab has shown that Sap1-dependent replication fork barriers guide Tf1 integrations and that Sap1 interacts with Tf1 integrase to facilitate retrotransposition (Jacobs et al., 2015). Given the significant degree of similarity between Tf1 and Tf2 elements we wondered whether Tf2 exhibited a similar dependence on Sap1's replication fork barrier activity, as their respective integrases are nearly identical at the sequence level yet they exhibit significant differences in mobilization method and frequency. *sap1-c* is an allele of Sap1 which retains the ability to bind DNA but loses its RFB activity, and so the retrotransposition assay was performed in a *sap1-c* mutant background to assess whether loss of Sap1's RFB activity affected Tf2 retrotransposition (Zaratiegui, Vaughn, et al., 2011). Similar to Tf1 we saw a substantial reduction in Tf2 mobilizations in *sap1-c*, with overall mobilizations decreasing by approximately 95% by both Day 4 and Day 6 in *sap1-c* compared to the wild type strain (Figure 3.1b). There was also a complete loss of mobilizations in the Tf2 IN FS strain, indicating that in the absence of Sap1's RFB activity Tf2 mobilization reverted to an almost entirely integrase-dependent mechanism. To rule out the possibility that retrotransposition rates may reflect transcriptional differences in each strain we quantified plasmid Tf2 expression levels and found that expression levels were fairly consistent between strains (Figure 3.1d). Together, these results suggest that Sap1 RFB activity is necessary for Tf2 IN and HR mediated mobilization.

### 3.3.3 High-throughput sequencing of *de novo* Tf2 mobilizations

High-throughput sequencing of de novo transposable element integrations has often been used to identify host factors influencing transposon integration site preference. Construction of sequencing libraries for de novo Tf2 integrations is technically challenging given its preference for recombination with pre-existing Tf2 elements, since these mobilization events grossly outnumber all other retrotransposition events. The lack of transposons in Tf-0 provides a unique opportunity to assess the de novo integration preferences of Tf2 in a “naïve” host lacking pre-existing transposons as recombination substrates. To this end the plasmids previously used in the Tf2 mobilization assays were modified to include a unique sequence for PCR amplification and construction of Tf2 insertion libraries based on the strategy developed previously by (Guo & Levin, 2010) for high-throughput sequencing of Tf1 integrations.

Analysis of de novo Tf2 integrations revealed some similarity to Tf1 integration site preferences. Like the related Tf1 transposon, Tf2 transposable elements show a slight bias towards insertion in gene promoters (Figure 3.2a). We noted that this preference also accounts for the observation that Tf2 insertions tend to occur in regions enriched for the histone variant H2Az (Figure 3.2b); when insertions which overlap with promoters are excluded from analysis, the apparent enrichment disappears (not shown). Tf1 insertions have been previously demonstrated to exhibit a strong bias for regions bound by the DNA binding protein Sap1, which physically interacts with Tf1 integrase to tether cDNA to integration sites (Hickey et al., 2015; Jacobs et al., 2015). We found that although Tf2 insertions were slightly enriched around Sap1 binding sites and exhibited the same periodicity characteristic of integrase-mediated Tf1 transpositions (Figure 3.2c), unlike Tf1 Sap1 binding was a poor predictor of Tf2 integration (Figure 3.2d). Therefore the

insertions which are targeted to Sap1 binding sites are presumably the products of integrase-mediated mobilizations, which overall make up only a very small portion of Tf2 transposition events. We analyzed the genomic sequences surrounding Tf2 integration sites (15 bp upstream and downstream of the point of insertion) to determine whether transposon integrations exhibited any sequence specificity, given that Tf2 elements preferentially mobilize via sequence-directed HR; however, we did not find any significantly enriched DNA motifs at insertion sites.

#### *3.3.4 The homologous recombination pathway is preserved in sap1-c*

The observation that Tf2 insertions decrease so dramatically in *sap1-c* and yet Sap1 binding has little predictive value for determining Tf2 integration presented a paradox, but also raised the possibility that the *sap1-c* allele may be associated with a more general defect in homologous recombination, as the transposable element is reliant on host HR machinery for integrase-independent mobilization via HR (Murton, Grady, Chan, Cam, & Whitehall, 2016; Sehgal et al., 2007). To assay the competence of DNA integration via HR in *sap1-c* and a wild type strain both were transformed with either a Tf2 fragment marked with *ura4* or a fragment containing the *leu1* coding sequence to alleviate the prototrophy for uracil and leucine present in both strains and provide a read-out for HR efficiency. In this arrangement the frequency of fragment integration via HR is not subject to other potentially limiting factors within the retrotransposon lifecycle, such as the presence of retrotransposon capsid protein which limits Tf2 integration levels relative to Tf1 due to sequence differences between the two transposon-encoded factors (Esnault & Levin, 2015). In an independent experiment all three strains were transformed with a *ura4*-marked plasmid, which confirmed that transformation efficiency was

comparable among all three strains (roughly 2 transformants per 200 ng of DNA per 10,000 colony forming units [CFUs]). In *sap1-c* the efficiency of *leu1-32* correction by *leu1* fragment was nearly 18 times higher than in wild type, while the efficiency of *Tf2::ura4* integration was approximately 30% lower but not entirely absent as in the retrotransposition assay (Figure 3.1c). We concluded that the HR pathway is still present and functional in both strains yet there appear to be site-specific differences in HR efficiency between Tf2 elements and other genomic locations; proper retrotransposition seems to further restrict and augment target site availability as substrates for integrase-independent mobilization.

### 3.3.5 RNA-DNA hybrids (*R loops*) occur at *Tf2* LTRs

Similar to Tf1, Tf2 elements exhibit a striking reliance on Sap1's RFB activity yet in the case of the former it promotes integrase-dependent mobilization while it facilitates retrotransposition through an integrase-independent pathway in the latter. This raised the possibility that while Sap1 itself may not be sufficient to recruit Tf2 cDNA, its RFB activity may create favorable conditions for Tf2 retransposition via HR; indeed, replication fork barrier activity has been demonstrated to stimulate homologous recombination in an effort to restart the stalled replication fork (B. Michel et al., 2001; Osman & Whitby, 2009; Rothstein, Michel, & Gangloff, 2000). We also noted that Sap1's polar RFB activity forces DNA replication to occur in the antisense direction with respect to transcription through the Tf2 coding sequence (Figure 3.3a), in stark contrast to Sap1's role in coordinating replication within the rDNA repeats and preventing head-on collisions between the DNA replication and RNA transcription machineries, as these collisions can often be deleterious to genome stability (Krings & Bastia, 2005; Mejía-

Ramírez et al., 2005). Replication-transcription collisions are also known to stimulate recombination and induce the formation of RNA-DNA hybrids known as R loops, which can act as further impediments to the replication fork or degenerate to recombinogenic double-strand breaks as a consequence of unpaired stretches of single-stranded DNA (Ponnari Gottipati et al., 2008; Sankar, Wastuwidyaningtyas, Dong, Lewis, & Wang, 2016; Skourti-Stathaki & Proudfoot, 2014). The endoribonuclease Dicer (Dcr1), a component of the core RNAi machinery, is also involved in promoting RNA Pol II release at sites of replication-transcription collisions independently of its role in RNAi-mediated silencing; Dicer localizes to Tf2 elements despite the absence of RNAi activity at Tf2 retrotransposons, suggesting its presence may be a consequence of its role in promoting the former (Castel et al., 2014; Hansen et al., 2005; Lorenz et al., 2012). Additionally, previous studies have found that the body of Tf2 elements is significantly enriched in Histone H2A phosphorylated at Serine 139, also known as gamma-H2A, a marker of replicative stress and DNA damage (Rozenzhak et al., 2010). We hypothesized that replicative stress occurring in the body of transposable elements may be the result of Sap1's polar RFB activity at the 5' end of the gene and DNA-replication transcription conflicts occurring within the gene body as a result; further, the presence of two stalled replication forks in close proximity to one another may lead to the generation of recombinogenic fragile sites within Tf2 elements.

To test this model, we first asked whether transcription and DNA replication occur contemporaneously. Cell-cycle analysis of Tf2 expression in cultures synchronized by *cdc25-22* G2 arrest revealed that transcription of Tf2 elements increases slightly during S phase, thus generating favorable conditions for such encounters to occur (Figure

3.3b). Our results agree with data obtained from expression microarray experiments performed on cultures synchronized by elutriation (Figure 3.3c) (Rustici et al., 2004). We then assayed whether we could detect RNA:DNA hybrids, the hallmark of replication-transcription collisions, at Tf2 LTRs in Tf-0. Using the S9.6 antibody which nonspecifically recognizes RNA-DNA hybrids for DNA-RNA immunoprecipitation we were able to detect low levels of R loops at Tf2 LTRs in Tf-0, which produce low levels of spurious abortive transcripts even in the absence of an associated coding sequence (Figure 3.3d). Since R loops are a naturally occurring part of the Tf2 retrotransposon life cycle during reverse transcription of Tf2 cDNA, assaying for their presence in the transposon free strain Tf-0 which lacks all sources of transposon-derived RT allowed us to pinpoint the R loop signal as originating from endogenous genomic Tf2 LTRs. The difference in signal between the wild type and Tf-0 strain, therefore, can be attributed to the loss of reverse transcription-derived R loop signal.

### *3.3.6 Generation of an ectopic promoter-RFB system*

In the model proposed above, increasing transcription at Tf2 target sites should increase the occurrence of replication-transcription collisions thus generating a concomitant increase in Tf2 retrotransposition; conversely, loss of fork barrier activity should decrease retrotransposition events. To minimize the potential for off-target or pleiotropic effects which can occur as a result of genetic manipulation of these variables we generated an ectopic promoter-RFB system to assay the effect of increasing transcription, RFB activity, or both simultaneously at a single Tf2 target site.

Given Tf2 elements' strong preference for recombination with endogenous full-length transposons, we reasoned that in a retrotransposition assay performed in a strain missing all but one full-length transposon "target" the majority of transposition events would result from recombinations between Tf2 cDNA and the target transposon. The Tf-0 strain was initially generated in an iterative process involving multiple rounds of inter-LTR recombination to promote transposon loss stimulated by CRISPR-Cas9 cleavage inside the Tf2 coding sequence; we used a Tf-0 precursor strain which retained only *Tf2-3* and lost all other transposons to generate a series of modified strains for use in a retrotransposition assay (Figure 3.4a). In the first modified strain the entire 5' LTR was removed from the transposon; in the second the 5' LTR was removed and replaced with the constitutively active *eno1* promoter; in the third and fourth strains the 5' LTR was removed and replaced with the Ter2 Reb1-dependent (and Sap1-independent) polar RFB in the sense and antisense direction, respectively (Ter2 S and Ter2 AS). When bound by the polar DNA binding factor Reb1, Ter2 S and Ter2 AS block replication forks approaching in the antisense and sense direction, respectively, with respect to Tf2 transcription. In this arrangement Ter 2 AS provided the closest approximation of our proposed model of replication-transcription collisions as a result of Sap1's RFB activity. Finally, the fifth and sixth strains had the 5' LTR removed and replaced with only Ter2 S and Ter2 AS, respectively. We then repeated the retrotransposition assays in all six modified strains as well as the original parent strain; for the purposes of this assay we only used the plasmid expressing the IN FS transposon to ensure all transpositions are the product of HR and thus more representative of *Tf2-3*- cDNA recombinations. At both timepoints the frequency of transpositions was slightly lower in the  $\Delta 5'$  LTR strain than



in the parent strain (ZB1923), indicating that the LTR or an associated factor promotes mobilization via HR (Figure 3.4c). The modified transposon in all strains still retained the 3' LTR, however, which could potentially present a RFB due to Sap1 binding. The results were otherwise difficult to interpret due to the variation in retrotransposition frequency between the 4 and 6 day timepoints and/or the finding that differences between them were so subtle as to preclude formation of any definitive conclusions. We confirmed that the majority of retrotranspositions in all strains were the product of recombination between plasmid borne cDNA and *Tf2-3* by genotyping all FOA<sup>R</sup>G418<sup>R</sup> colonies by colony PCR using primers specific to the spliced intron junction in the neo cassette and primers specific to the region adjacent to the 3' end of *Tf2-3* (Figure 3.4b). At a minimum we concluded that the combination of an ectopic RFB with an ectopic promoter in this system did not generate a sustained increase in retrotranspositions over the RFB alone. We noted, however, that activation of *Tf2* expression by the *enol* promoter in the absence of an RFB promoter seemed to decrease overall retrotranspositions yet addition of the *Ter2* RFB 'recovered' the frequency of transposition by Day 6.

Going forward, the utility of this assay may be improved with some modification: first, extensive genotyping by PCR could be used to 'normalize' the raw retrotransposition rates to produce more informative data. Given that retrotransposition rates are relatively low, even minor variability in the proportion of *Tf2-3* recombinations vs. external retrotransposition events may obscure analysis of assay outcomes. Second, assembling the same ectopic system in a transposon with a stronger replication bias may improve the ability to differentiate between strains. Unpublished Okazaki fragment

sequencing data from our lab suggests that there is a moderately strong replication origin near the 3' end of *Tf2-3* which replicates through the transposon in the antisense direction. In this arrangement, because the transposon is already being preferentially replicated in the antisense direction, Sap1's RFB activity would not be engaged. Thus, assembling the same ectopic system in a transposon which shows evidence of RFB activity at the 5' LTR may provide a truer test of the proposed model. Finally, we elected to use Ter2 to promote polar RFB activity to assess whether nonspecific fork barrier activity would produce the same effect as Sap1; indeed, by Day 6 the unmodified *Tf2-3* and the Ter2-AS construct exhibited similar retrotransposition frequency, which may suggest that this is the case. The possibility remains that Sap1 could influence Tf2 element retrotransposition outside of its effect on the replication fork, therefore substitution of Ter2 with Ter1, the sequence associated with Sap1 binding, may further elucidate and separate the role of Sap1 within the proposed model. Further investigation is needed, therefore, to determine whether replication-transcription collisions influence Tf2 mobilization. Here we have described an ectopic system which, with some optimization, may provide a platform for dissecting the relative contributions of each component within the model set forth in this study.

### 3.3.7 Increased H3K9 trimethylation at *Tf2* elements in *sap1-c*

The HR efficiency assay described previously revealed a site-specific decrease in HR at Tf2 elements in *sap1-c* despite having operational HR machinery. We explored the possibility that recombinations at Tf2 elements could be suppressed in *sap1-c* by altered chromatin status, as an unrelated experiment revealed that *sap1-c* exhibits increased heterochromatin at the normally repressed subtelomeric region of chromosome II (data

not shown). Tf2 elements typically exhibit low levels of heterochromatic silencing, as they are largely silenced by CENP-B homologs and histone deacetylases through an RNAi-independent mechanism (Hugh P Cam et al., 2008; H. P. Cam et al., 2005). Interestingly, while *sap1-c* exhibited a mild reduction in di-methylated H3K9 (H3K9me2), we found an approximately three fold enrichment in tri-methylated H3K9 (H3K9me3) (Figure 3.5a, 3.5b). H3K9me2 has been shown to exhibit faster recovery kinetics than H3K9me3 and to be more permissive to transcription, while H3K9me3 is required for stable (RNAi-independent) inheritance of epigenetic domains in *S. pombe* (Jih et al., 2017).

Since Tf2 silencing is not dependent on RNAi, Tf2-derived siRNAs are often undetectable or only present at very low levels in cycling cells; siRNA levels were not significantly increased in *sap1-c*, ruling out the possibility that RNAi may be ectopically activated in this mutant (Figure 3.5c). Taken together, these results suggest that heterochromatin may be stabilized in *sap1-c* as opposed to generally increased at transposons. Increased stability of heterochromatin at Tf2 elements may consequently generate a reduction in integrations at heterochromatinized transposons, as recombination is typically suppressed in heterochromatic domains (Peng & Karpen, 2008). Going forward, more work is needed to verify the causality of the relationship between increased heterochromatin in *sap1-c* and reduced transposition; repeating the retrotransposition assay in a  $\Delta clr4$  *sap1-c* double mutant, for example, may shed light on the relationship between the observed phenomena.

### 3.4 Discussion

Tf2 retrotransposons are unique in their preference for integrase-independent mobilization and exhibit a strong predisposition for recombination with endogenous full-length Tf2 elements. In this study we analyzed Tf2 retrotransposition in the absence of full-length Tf2 transposons and asked whether removing their preferred HR substrates would influence their mobilization preferences or the efficiency of retrotransposition. We found that although Tf2 retrotransposition still occurred via a primarily integrase-independent mechanism in Tf-0 overall retrotransposition frequency was significantly reduced, indicating that Tf2 LTRs are not suitable substrates for efficient integration via HR and that integration site recycling is restricted to full-length retrotransposons. Using a novel transposon-free strain we were able to generate insertion profiles of de novo Tf2 retrotransposition to investigate Tf2 integration site preferences. We found that Tf2 elements exhibited some shared similarity with Tf1, including a bias towards insertion in gene promoters. Strikingly, we found that Sap1 binding was not strongly associated with Tf2 integrations, despite the dramatic reduction in retrotransposition efficiency observed in Sap1 mutants lacking RFB activity and the requirement of Sap1 RFB activity for Tf2 mobilization via HR. Thus, both Tf1 and Tf2 exhibit a shared dependence on a single host factor for efficient retrotransposition which materializes through divergent mechanisms.

In this study we propose a model in which Sap1's RFB activity generates fragile sites at Tf2 elements which in turn may increase the recombinogenicity of Tf2 target sites, thus improving their suitability as target sites for HR-mediated mobilization. Tf2 expression occurs at low levels and increases slightly at S phase, indicating that transcription and replication occur simultaneously. Further, we were able to

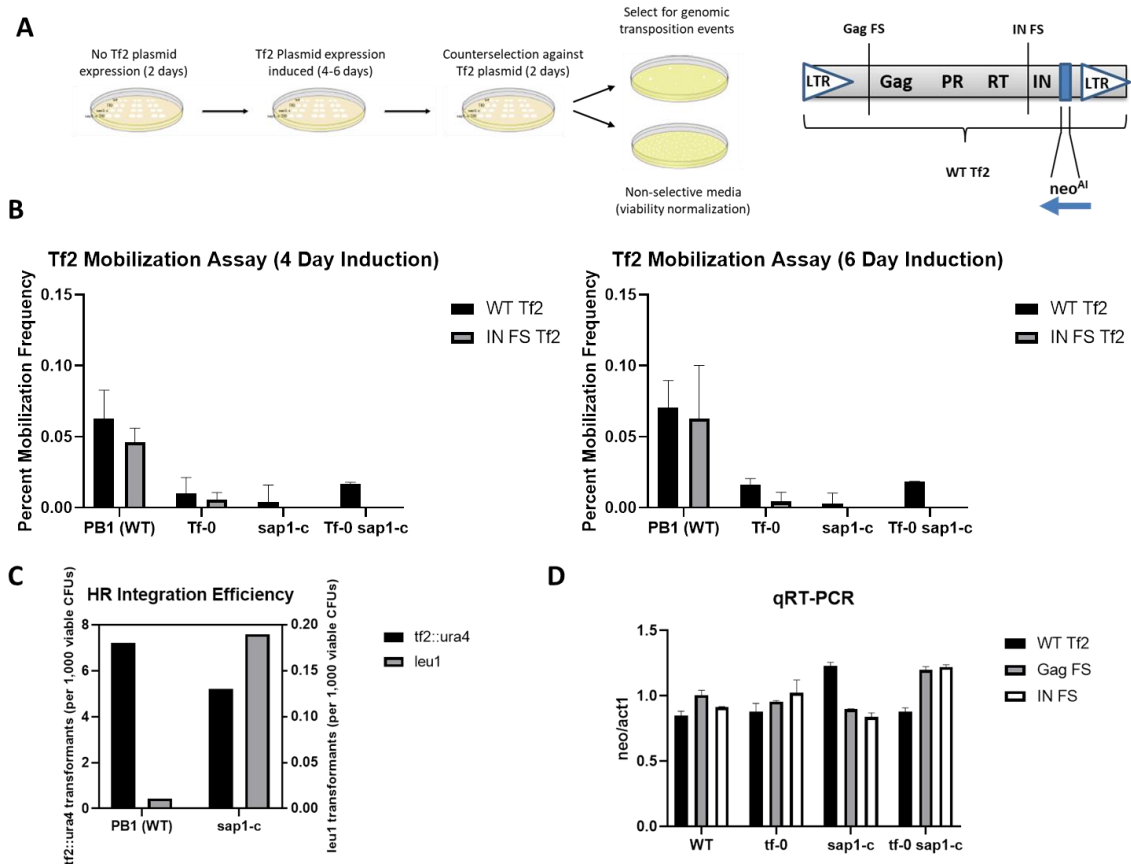
unambiguously detect the presence of R loops at endogenous Tf2 LTRs, which are hallmarks of replication-transcription collisions. We then asked whether we could treat the two components of this model- transcription and directional replication- as separable components by generating an ectopic promoter-RFB system to directly test this hypothesis; however, we were unable to make meaningful conclusions from the assay without further optimization.

Interestingly, we found that levels of H3K9me3 increase in *sap1-c*, indicating that heterochromatin may be stabilized in the absence of Sap1's RFB activity. Homologous recombination is often repressed in heterochromatin, therefore increased stability and epigenetic inheritance of heterochromatin at Tf2 elements may generate a corresponding reduction in target site recombination. Replication fork perturbation is accompanied by subsequent loss of heterochromatic markings in some contexts and increased epigenetic plasticity, thus in addition to promoting genetic instability at Tf2 elements Sap1's RFB activity may shield Tf2 transposons from heterochromatic silencing.

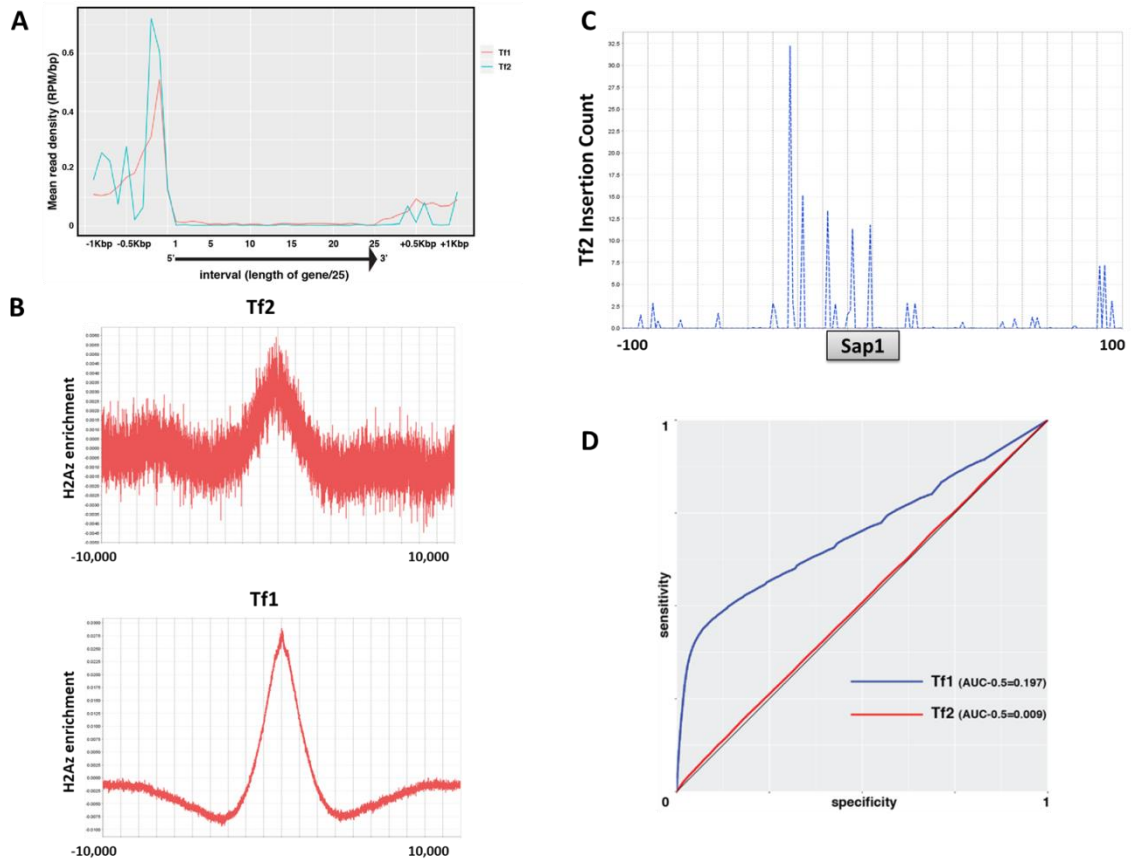
This model is not mutually exclusive with the former hypothesis- in previous studies increased transcription of Tf2 elements is accompanied by increased H3K9 methylation (Chalamcharla et al., 2015; Lorenzi et al., 2015). The finding that transcription can stimulate recombination (transcription-associated recombination, TAR), particularly in actively replicating cells, has been well documented; accordingly, a number of strategies have evolved to attenuate the recombination of encounters between the transcription and replication machinery given the potential for illicit recombination events that can contribute to genomic instability (Aguilera & García-Muse, 2012; Gavalda et al., 2013; Mischo et al., 2011; Prado & Aguilera, 2005). One

such observation is the finding that R loop formation can promote chromatin condensation and compaction, a feature associated with heterochromatin (Castellano-Pozo et al., 2013). Thus, while R loop formation as a consequence of replication-transcription collisions in the body of Tf2 elements and/or increased transcription at Tf2s may trigger local silencing, the presence of a secondary stalled replication fork nearby may influence repair outcomes by promoting HR to restart the fork, thereby modulating the overall effect of these insults.

On an evolutionary time scale, recombination between Tf2 elements significantly contributes to shaping the fission yeast genome, as many of the breakpoints of structural variations which appear in wild fission yeast isolates are located in proximity to Tf2 LTRs (Jeffares et al., 2017). While these structural variations may simply be the product of chance occurrences of non-allelic homologous recombination (NAHR), we note that Tf2 LTRs have previously been demonstrated to serve as stress-activated promoters (Nakase & Matsumoto, 2018; Sehgal et al., 2007). In these instances, TAR may enhance the adaptive response of the host cell by focusing the power of structural evolution at the most critical loci in response to stressful environmental conditions. Going forward, understanding the factors modulating and influencing recombination at Tf2 elements is essential to understanding the forces shaping genomic architecture evolution in fission yeast.

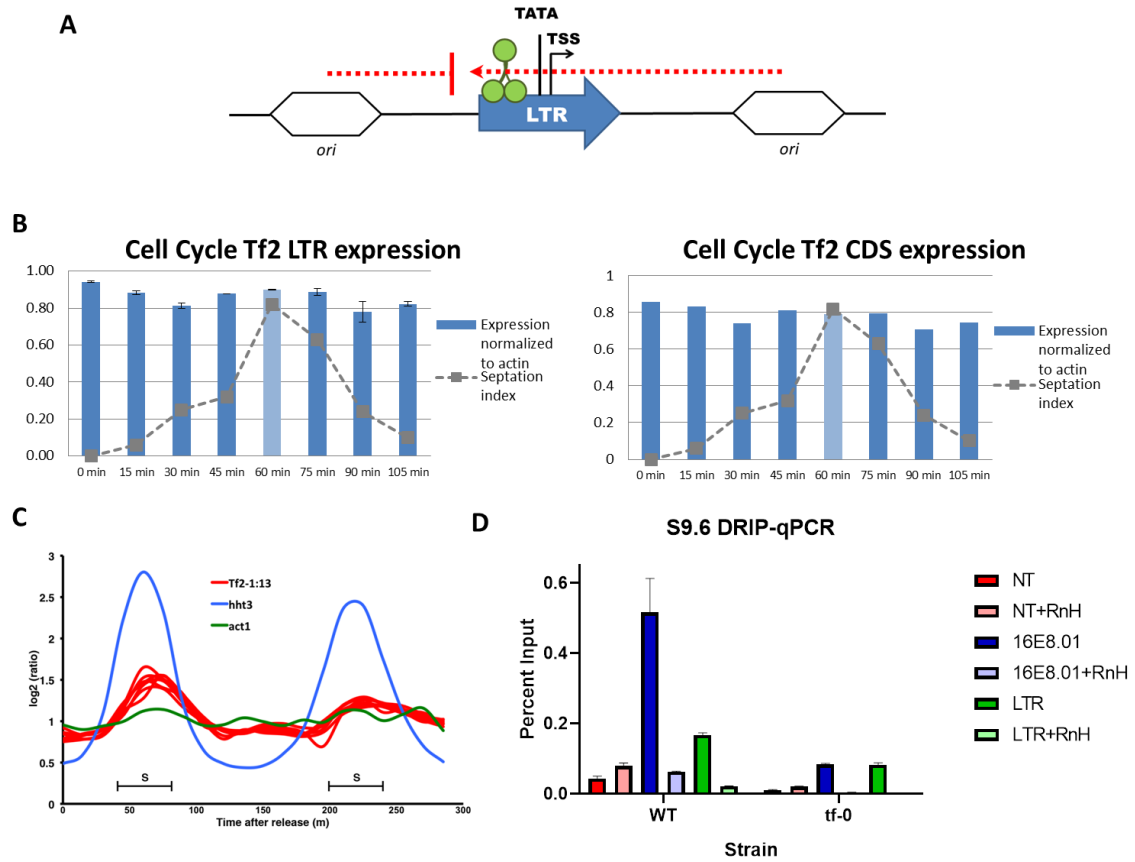


**Figure 3.1. Tf2 shows reduced retrotransposition in the absence of full length transposons and Sap1 RFB activity.** A. Retrotransposition assay overview (left), schematic of Tf2-expressing plasmids (right). Details of the assay are described in the Methods section of this chapter. *Figure adapted from N. Chalhoub.* B. Retrotransposition assays were performed after four and six day inductions of plasmid Tf2 expression. Each strain was transformed with a plasmid expressing wild type Tf2 (WT Tf2), Tf2 with a frameshift in the Gag coding sequence (Gag FS Tf2), or Tf2 with a frameshift in the Integrase coding sequence (IN FS Tf2). Retrotransposition was reduced in a strain lacking full-length transposons (Tf-0) as well as in a *sap1-c* mutant background. Data represent the results from at least two independent experiments with each strain assayed in duplicate. Error bars= sample ranges. C. Tf2 elements exhibit a site-specific decrease in HR integration efficiency in *sap1-c*. Graph shows the HR integration efficiency of a wild type strain (PB1) and *sap1-c* transformed with a *ura4*-marked *Tf2* fragment and a *leu1* fragment (left axis= *tf2::ura4* transformants per 1,000 viable CFUs; right axis= *leu1* transformants per 1,000 viable CFUs). Integration efficiency of *tf2::ura4* is 30% lower in *sap1-c* compared to wild type while *leu1* correction is approximately 17 times higher. d. qRT-PCR results quantifying relative plasmid Tf2 expression levels in retrotransposition assay strains. Transcript levels were quantified using primers directed against *neo* and normalized to *act1* expression. Plasmid Tf2 expression is consistent in all four strains used in the retrotransposition assay. Error bars=SEM.

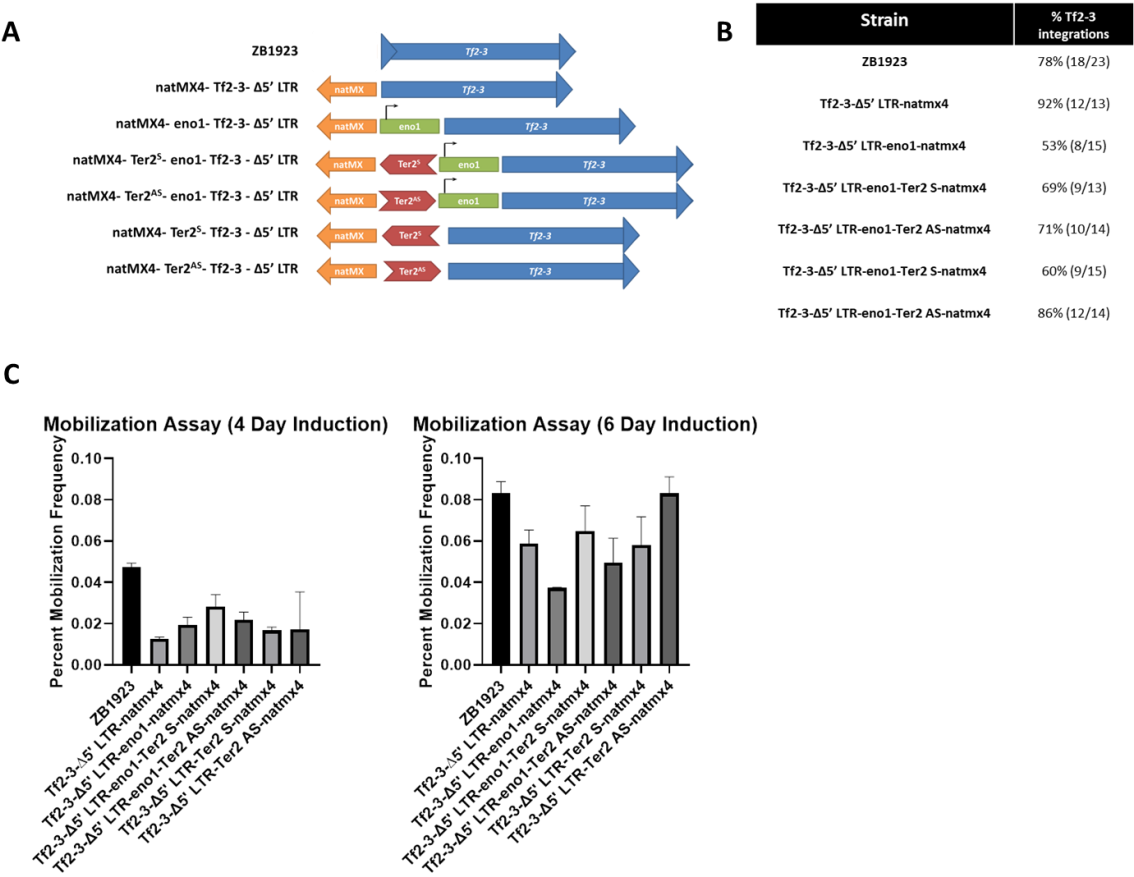


**Figure 3.2. Integration site preferences of Tf2 retrotransposons.** A. Mean read density distribution of Tf1 and Tf2 insertions over all protein coding genes (n=5,823). Similar to Tf1, Tf2 shows a preference for gene promoters. B. Anchor plot showing H2A.z enrichment with respect to Tf2 insertions (upper panel) and Tf1 insertions (lower panel). Similar to Tf1, Tf2 shows a slight bias towards insertion in H2A.z-enriched regions in accordance with its preference for gene promoters; the enrichment is lost when Tf2 insertions overlapping with promoters are excluded from the analysis. c) Tf2 insertions are slightly enriched at Sap1 binding sites and exhibit the same periodicity associated with integrase-dependent mobilization in Tf1. These insertions likely represent the relatively small population of integrase-dependent retrotransposition events. D. ROC curves from a representative Tf2 insertion library (red) and Tf1 insertion library (blue). Unlike Tf1, Sap1 binding is a poor predictor of Tf2 integration.

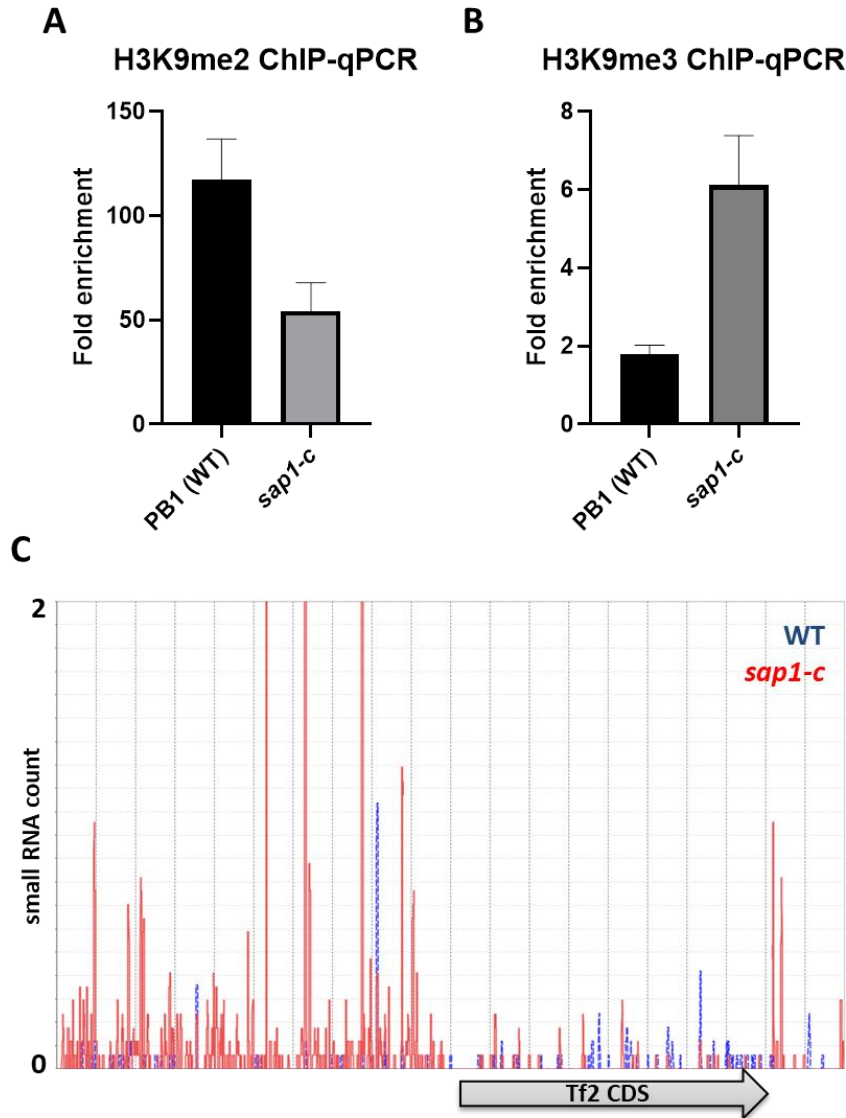




**Figure 3.3. Sap1 RFB activity may promote replication-transcription collisions at Tf2 elements.** A. Cartoon showing the orientation of Tf2 transcription with respect to Sap1's RFB activity. Sap1's polar RFB activity permits replication in a direction that is antisense to transcription at Tf2 LTRs. B. Cell cycle analysis of Tf2 LTR and CDS expression. Tf2 expression shows a slight peak at S phase; low level expression occurs throughout the cell cycle. *cdc25-22* ts mutant cells were grown at 26° C before shifting to the restrictive temperature (36° C) for 4 hours to induce cell cycle arrest in G2. Samples were then taken every 15 minutes after release at the permissive temperature to analyze the septation index by microscopy and resuspended in Trizol for RNA extraction followed by qRT-PCR to analyze Tf2 expression levels using primers directed against the Tf2 LTR (left panel) or Tf2 CDS (right panel). Target expression is normalized to *act1* expression; all qPCR reactions were set up in quadruplicate. C. Microarray expression data obtained from Rustici et. al., *Nature* (2004). Synchronized cells were obtained by centrifugal elutriation and gene expression was monitored throughout the cell cycle. Shown is expression data for *act1* (actin), *hht3* (Histone H3), and *tf2-1-13*. D. R loop formation occurs at endogenous genomic Tf2 LTRs. DNA-RNA Immunoprecipitation (DRIP) was performed to probe for R loop formation at genomic Tf2 LTRs; R loop signal accumulates as a result of naturally occurring RT intermediates in the wild type strain but is still detectable in the absence of RT intermediates in Tf-0. NT= not transcribed, 16E8.01= positive control, error bars=SEM.



**Figure 3.4. Generation of an ectopic promoter-RFB system to probe the contributions of transcription and RFB activity at Tf2 target sites and their influence on retrotransposition into Tf2 targets.** A. Overview of the modified strains generated for use in the Tf2 retrotransposition assay. The 5' LTR was removed from all strains (with the exception of the parent strain ZB1923) and subsequently modified to include the constitutive *eno1* promoter to promote *Tf2* transcription and/or polar RFB Reb1-binding Ter2 sequence in the sense or antisense orientation in addition to the selectable marker *natmx4*. B. Colonies in which a retrotransposition event had occurred were genotyped by colony PCR to determine the proportion of recombination events occurring between plasmid-derived Tf2 cDNA and *Tf2-3*. In all strains the majority of insertions were the result of recombination with *Tf2-3*. C. Results of the retrotransposition assay. All strains were transformed with an Tf2 IN FS-expressing plasmid to increase the proportion of HR-mediated retrotransposition events. Results represent the outcome of one experiment; two independent transformants were analyzed for each strain. Tf2 expression was induced for 4 and 6 days before quantifying retrotransposition frequency. Error bars= ranges.



**Figure 3.5. *sap1-c* promotes stable heterochromatin formation at Tf2 elements.** A. H3K9me2 ChIP-qPCR in a wild type strain and *sap1-c*. H3K9me2 levels decrease by approximately 30% in *sap1-c*. Data represents the results of two IP replicates with each replicate assayed by qPCR in duplicate. Error bars=SEM. B. H3K9me3 ChIP-qPCR in a wild type strain and *sap1-c*. H3K9me3 levels increase approximately three fold in *sap1-c*. Data represents the results of two IP replicates with each replicate assayed by qPCR in duplicate. H3K9me2 and H3K9me3 ChIPs were performed in parallel, with a single pool of sonicated chromatin split before use in both subsequent IPs. Error bars=SEM. C. Tf2-derived small RNAs are comparable to wild type in *sap1-c*. Small RNA read counts in both strains are normalized per million reads produced by each sequencing run.

**TABLE 3.1 Strains used in this study**

| Strain name | Genotype   | Used for   |
|-------------|--|--|
| PB1         | leu1-32 ura4-D18   | Retrotransposition assay/ChIP/DRIP/transformation efficiency assay |
| ZB1925      | leu1-32, ura4-D18, pan-deltaTf2  | Retrotransposition assay/ChIP/DRIP                                 |
| ZB1947      | sap1c, leu1-32, ura4-D18, pan-deltaTf2   | Retrotransposition assay   |
| ZB1069      | sap1-c, ura4-D18   | Retrotransposition assay/ChIP                                      |
| DG704       | cdc25-22 ts, leu1  | Cell cycle Tf2 expression synchronization                          |
| ZB1923      | leu1-32, ura4-D18, deltaTf2-1, deltaTf2-2, deltaTf2-4, deltaTf2-5, deltaTf2-6, deltaTf2-7, deltaTf2-8, deltaTf2-9, deltaTf2-10, deltaTf2-11, deltaTf2-12, deltaTf2-13                                    | Ectopic promoter-RFB retrotransposition assay                      |
| ZB1107      | sap1c, leu1-32, ura4+, ade6+   | sap1-c transformation efficiency assay                             |
| ZB2483      | Tf2-3 A1 (#1) :: natmx4, leu1-32, ura4-D18, deltaTf2-1, deltaTf2-2, deltaTf2-4, deltaTf2-5, deltaTf2-6, deltaTf2-7, deltaTf2-8, deltaTf2-9, deltaTf2-10, deltaTf2-11, deltaTf2-12, deltaTf2-13           | Ectopic promoter-RFB retrotransposition assay                      |
| ZB2486      | Tf2-3 B5 #1 :: eno1 natmx4, leu1-32, ura4-D18, deltaTf2-1, deltaTf2-2, deltaTf2-4, deltaTf2-5, deltaTf2-6, deltaTf2-7, deltaTf2-8, deltaTf2-9, deltaTf2-10, deltaTf2-11, deltaTf2-12, deltaTf2-13        | Ectopic promoter-RFB retrotransposition assay                      |
| ZB2488      | Tf2-3 C2 #1 :: eno1 Ter2S natmx4, leu1-32, ura4-D18, deltaTf2-1, deltaTf2-2, deltaTf2-4, deltaTf2-5, deltaTf2-6, deltaTf2-7, deltaTf2-8, deltaTf2-9, deltaTf2-10, deltaTf2-11, deltaTf2-12, deltaTf2-13  | Ectopic promoter-RFB retrotransposition assay                      |
| ZB2491      | Tf2-3 D1 #1 :: eno1 Ter2AS natmx4, leu1-32, ura4-D18, deltaTf2-1, deltaTf2-2, deltaTf2-4, deltaTf2-5, deltaTf2-6, deltaTf2-7, deltaTf2-8, deltaTf2-9, deltaTf2-10, deltaTf2-11, deltaTf2-12, deltaTf2-13 | Ectopic promoter-RFB retrotransposition assay                      |
| ZB2493      | Tf2-3 E5 #4 :: Ter2S natmx4, leu1-32, ura4-D18, deltaTf2-1, deltaTf2-2, deltaTf2-4, deltaTf2-5, deltaTf2-6, deltaTf2-7, deltaTf2-8, deltaTf2-9, deltaTf2-10, deltaTf2-11, deltaTf2-12, deltaTf2-13       | Ectopic promoter-RFB retrotransposition assay                      |
| ZB2496      | Tf2-3 F3 #3 :: Ter2AS natmx4, leu1-32, ura4-D18, deltaTf2-1, deltaTf2-2, deltaTf2-4, deltaTf2-5, deltaTf2-6, deltaTf2-7, deltaTf2-8, deltaTf2-9, deltaTf2-10, deltaTf2-11, deltaTf2-12, deltaTf2-13      | Ectopic promoter-RFB retrotransposition assay                      |
| zb2551      | ura4-d18, leu1-32 +pHL1631   | Retrotransposition assay   |
| zb2552      | ura4-d18, leu1-32 +pHL1631   | Retrotransposition assay   |
| zb2553      | ura4-d18, leu1-32 +pHL1632   | Retrotransposition assay   |
| zb2554      | ura4-d18, leu1-32 +pHL1632   | Retrotransposition assay   |
| zb2555      | ura4-d18, leu1-32 +pHL1633   | Retrotransposition assay   |
| zb2556      | ura4-d18, leu1-32 +pHL1633   | Retrotransposition assay   |
| zb2557      | leu1-32, ura4-D18, pan-deltaTf2 +pHL1631   | Retrotransposition assay   |
| zb2558      | leu1-32, ura4-D18, pan-deltaTf2 +pHL1631   | Retrotransposition assay   |
| zb2559      | leu1-32, ura4-D18, pan-deltaTf2 +pHL1632   | Retrotransposition assay   |
| zb2560      | leu1-32, ura4-D18, pan-deltaTf2 +pHL1632   | Retrotransposition assay   |
| zb2561      | leu1-32, ura4-D18, pan-deltaTf2 +pHL1633   | Retrotransposition assay   |
| zb2562      | leu1-32, ura4-D18, pan-deltaTf2 +pHL1633   | Retrotransposition assay   |
| zb2569      | sap1-c, ura4-D18 +pHL1631  | Retrotransposition assay   |

|        |  |                          |
|--------|--|--------------------------|
| zb2570 | sap1-c, ura4-D18 +pHL1631  | Retrotransposition assay |
| zb2571 | sap1-c, ura4-D18 +pHL1632  | Retrotransposition assay |
| zb2572 | sap1-c, ura4-D18 +pHL1632  | Retrotransposition assay |
| zb2573 | sap1-c, ura4-D18 +pHL1633  | Retrotransposition assay |
| zb2574 | sap1-c, ura4-D18 +pHL1633  | Retrotransposition assay |
| ZB2539 | sap1c, leu1-32, ura4-D18, pan-deltaTf2+pHL1631 transformant #1   | Retrotransposition assay |
| ZB2540 | sap1c, leu1-32, ura4-D18, pan-deltaTf2 +pHL1631 transformant #2  | Retrotransposition assay |
| ZB2176 | ZB1947-pHL1632<br>sap1-c, leu1-32, ura4-D18, pan-deltaTf2; GagFS | Retrotransposition assay |
| ZB2177 | ZB1947-pHL1633<br>sap1-c, leu1-32, ura4-D18, pan-deltaTf2; INFS  | Retrotransposition assay |

**TABLE 3.2 Oligonucleotides used in this study**

| Primer ID | Primer name                        | Sequence   | Used for  |
|-----------|------------------------------------|--|---|
| oM4       | act1qPCRf                          | TGCACCTGCCTTTTATGTTG                                     | act1 primer for qPCR/ChIP/cell cycle expression normalization |
| oM5       | act1qPCRr                          | TGGGAACAGTGTGGGTAACA                                     | act1 primer for qPCR/ChIP/cell cycle expression normalization |
| om153 5   | 16E8.01 drip ctrl F                | Ctgccgatccatttcaatct                                     | DRIP positive control for qPCR                                |
| om153 6   | 16E8.01 drip ctrl R                | Agtggcctgaacaggaattg                                     | DRIP positive control for qPCR                                |
| om199 2   | primer #1 tf2_3 CDS F ABCDEF       | gtgaattcgagctcggtacccatcgctcatttgggaataatgaagggtattc     | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains          |
| om199 3   | primer #2 Tf2_3 DS R ABCDEF        | cgactctagaggatccccgatctcgaccagcctattgggcataatgct         | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains          |
| om199 4   | primer #3 Tf2_3 DS F ABCDEF        | ggagggtattctggcctccatgtccaacaagacagacgcgtttcaaaataag     | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains          |
| om199 5   | primer #4 natmx4 R ABCDEF          | Ggacatggaggcccagaataacc                                  | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains          |
| om199 6   | primer #5 Tf2_3 CDS R BCD          | tacagtaaacatcgctgcagcgggataactgaactcttgtgatctaca         | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains          |
| om199 7   | primer #6 eno1 F BCD               | Cccgctgcagcgatgttactgt                                   | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains          |
| om199 8   | primer #7 eno1 ter2S C             | cgctatactgaggttaagggtaatgcacgcatgcaactgcagcatcttggccc    | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains          |
| om199 9   | primer #8 eno1 Ter2 AS D           | ctatactggtgcattacccttacctgcagcatgcaactgcagcatcttggcccttc | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains          |
| om200 0   | primer #9 Ter2S natmx4 CE          | gtgcattacccttacctcagtatagcgaccagcattcaca                 | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains          |
| om200 1   | primer #10 Ter2 AS DF              | aggtaagggtaatgcaccagtatagcgaccagcattcaca                 | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains          |
| om200 2   | primer #11 natmx4 AB               | Cagtatagcgaccagcattca                                    | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains          |
| om200 3   | primer #12 Tf2_3 CDS R natmx4 A    | aatcgtagtgatgctggtcactactgataactgaactcttgtgatctacaatta.. | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains          |
| om200 4   | primer #13 eno1 natmx4 B           | cgtagtgtaatgctggtcgtactactggcatgcaactgcagcatcttggccc     | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains          |
| om200 5   | primer #14 Tf2_3 CDS Ter2S R E     | aggtaagggtaatgcacataactgaactcttgtgagtc                   | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains          |
| om200 6   | primer #15 Tf2_3 CDS Ter2AS R F    | gtcattacccttacctataactgaactcttgtgatctaca                 | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains          |
| om202 2   | Tf2-3 CDS amp F for transformation | Gctcatttgggaataatgaagggt                                 | Used for amplification of modified Tf2-3 constructs           |

|        |                                   |  |   |
|--------|-----------------------------------|--|---|
| om2023 | Tf2-3 DS amp R for transformation | Cgctgtaatggtgtaagtatcaa                      | Used for amplification of modified Tf2-3 constructs                     |
| om2024 | primer 16 eno1 r                  | Gcatgcaactgcagcat                            | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains                    |
| om2025 | primer 17 CDS r                   | ataactgaactcttgatctacatgacgctcagtggaaacga    | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains                    |
| om2026 | primer 18 ColE1 OriF              | Tgacgctcagtggaaacga                          | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains                    |
| om2027 | primer 19 ColE1 OriR              | Tcgttccactgagcgctca                          | Used in construction of ectopic promoter-RFB strains                    |
| om2067 | neo jct F                         | Gacattatcgcgagccatt                          | Neo junction primer for genotyping Tf2 insertions                       |
| om2085 | leu2 F                            | Cttcttcaacaacatgtgtgc                        | Primer for amplification of leu1+ frag                                  |
| om2087 | leu2 R                            | Gttcttcaacaacagccttagt                       | Primer for amplification of leu1+ frag                                  |
| oM16   | TF2LTRqF                          | tgataggtaacattataaccagct                     | Tf2 LTR primer for qPCR/ChIP/DRIP/Tf2 expression                        |
| oM17   | TF2LTRqR                          | Acgcagtttggtatctgatt                         | Tf2 LTR primer for qPCR/ChIP/DRIP/Tf2 expression                        |
| oM18   | TF2CDSqF                          | Ggtaggcagtttatgtgctc                         | TF2 CDS primer for qPCR/ChIP/Tf2 expression                             |
| oM19   | TF2CDSqR                          | Agaacagcctcgtatggtaa                         | TF2 CDS primer for qPCR/ChIP  |
| OM1366 | Tf2-1_MP_A                        | Aggactttctgatgtttgtacct                      | Tf2 genotyping primer   |
| OM1367 | Tf2-2_MP_A                        | Tggttgttcaatgccaaattagt                      | Tf2 genotyping primer   |
| OM1368 | Tf2-3_MP_B                        | Gaggataagtaaagaaagtctgtga                    | Tf2 genotyping primer   |
| OM1369 | Tf2-4_MP_A                        | Caagttgtcgattccactcc                         | Tf2 genotyping primer   |
| OM1370 | Tf2-5_MP_A                        | Agcattgcataccctaaagca                        | Tf2 genotyping primer   |
| om1371 | Tf2-6_MP_B                        | Gccgtcaccaattagcatgac                        | Tf2 genotyping primer   |
| OM1372 | Tf2-7_MP_B                        | Accaggcgttacttcaatcttg                       | Tf2 genotyping primer   |
| OM1373 | Tf2-9_MP_C                        | Attcccgttaagtttcccgtt                        | Tf2 genotyping primer   |
| OM1374 | Tf2-10_MP_B                       | Tggcgttatcaagctacggaa                        | Tf2 genotyping primer   |
| OM1375 | Tf2-11_MP_C                       | Gattgccctcccttgatcaca                        | Tf2 genotyping primer   |
| OM1376 | Tf2-12_MP_C                       | Agaggggtttgcgatcttgt                         | Tf2 genotyping primer   |
| OM1377 | Tf2-13_MP_C                       | Aaaaccttcaaactgctgcc                         | Tf2 genotyping primer   |
| om1850 | chr1 NT region F                  | Caacttttcttcaccaacc                          | DRIP NT control for qPCR  |
| om1851 | chr1 NT region R                  | Aaaagacgctattcgaaggt                         | DRIP NT control for qPCR  |
| oM538  | p7 linker                         | caagcagaagacggcatagatgtaataacgactcactatagggc | Linker primer for Tf2 insertion high throughput sequencing library prep |

|            |                   |  |   |
|------------|-------------------|--|---|
| oM543      | TF1bc07           | Aatgatacggcgaccaccgagatctacactctttccctacacgacgctcttccgatctcagatcgatgcat<br>aggaatttagtttatgg | Barcoding primer for Tf2<br>insertion high throughput<br>sequencing library prep                |
| oM544      | TF1bc02           | Aatgatacggcgaccaccgagatctacactctttccctacacgacgctcttccgatctcagatgtagtcata<br>ggaatttagtttatgg | Barcoding primer for Tf2<br>insertion high throughput<br>sequencing library prep                |
| oM536      | HL 1870           | Gtaatacgaactactatagggtccgcttaaggagac   | Annealed to generate<br>linker for Tf2 insertion<br>high throughput<br>sequencing library prep  |
| oM537      | HL 1871           | 5Phos/tagtccttaaccggag/3AmMO   | Annealed to generate<br>linker for Tf2 insertion<br>high throughput<br>sequencing library prep  |
| om180<br>3 | [5LTR] tf2<br>cds | caa aca ggg aaa gta caa gga tcc aac aaa ggt gat cgt tta ac                                   | Used to generate high-<br>throughput sequencing<br>ready plasmid for Tf2<br>insertion profiling |
| om180<br>4 | [nmt1] 5LTR       | cta ata tag ctc ata act gaa ctc gag gat atg cca gga ttc c                                    | Used to generate high-<br>throughput sequencing<br>ready plasmid for Tf2<br>insertion profiling |
| oM175      | neoProbeF1        | TTATGCCTCTTCCGACCATC   | neo primer for qPCR   |
| oM176      | neoProbeR1        | GCCTGAGCGAGACGAAATAC   | neo primer for qPCR   |



**TABLE 3.3 Plasmids used in this study**

| Plasmid ID |  | Used for  |
|------------|--|---|
| pHL1631    | pEH704-18, Tf2-neoAI   | Retrotransposition assay  |
| pHL1632    | pEH705-15, Gag FS  | Retrotransposition assay  |
| pHL1633    | pEH712-1, IN FS  | Retrotransposition assay  |
| pMZ160     | pTF-Ura4   | Digested with XhoI to obtain tf2::ura4 fragment for transformation efficiency assay |
| pmz684     | pEH704-18, Tf2-neoAI hts ready                                 | Generation of Tf2 insertions for high throughput sequencing                         |
| pmz685     | pEH712-1, IN FS, hts ready                                     | Generation of Tf2 insertions for high throughput sequencing                         |
| pmz788     | Tf2-3 A1 (construct A, Tf2-3 CDS-natmx4-Tf2-3 DS)              | Used to amplify transforming fragment for generation of modified Tf2-3              |
| pmz789     | Tf2-3 B5 (construct B, Tf2-3 CDS-eno1-natmx4-Tf2-3 DS)         | Used to amplify transforming fragment for generation of modified Tf2-3              |
| pmz790     | Tf2-3 C2 (construct C, Tf2-3 CDS-eno1-Ter2 S-natmx4-Tf2-3 DS)  | Used to amplify transforming fragment for generation of modified Tf2-3              |
| pmz791     | Tf2-3 C5 (construct C, Tf2-3 CDS-eno1-Ter2 S-natmx4-Tf2-3 DS)  | Used to amplify transforming fragment for generation of modified Tf2-3              |
| pmz792     | Tf2-3 D1 (construct D, Tf2-3 CDS-eno1-Ter2 AS-natmx4-Tf2-3 DS) | Used to amplify transforming fragment for generation of modified Tf2-3              |
| pmz793     | Tf2-3 D3 (construct D, Tf2-3 CDS-eno1-Ter2 AS-natmx4-Tf2-3 DS) | Used to amplify transforming fragment for generation of modified Tf2-3              |
| pmz794     | Tf2-3 E5 (construct E, Tf2-3 CDS-Ter2 S-natmx4-Tf2-3 DS)       | Used to amplify transforming fragment for generation of modified Tf2-3              |
| pmz795     | Tf2-3 F3 (construct F, Tf2-3 CDS-Ter2 AS-natmx4-Tf2-3 DS)      | Used to amplify transforming fragment for generation of modified Tf2-3              |

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