

Transcriptomic analysis of feminizing somatic stem cells in the *Drosophila* testis reveals putative downstream effectors of the transcription factor Chinmo

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Abstract

One of the best examples of sexual dimorphism is the development and function of the gonads, ovaries and testes, which produce sex-specific gametes, oocytes, and spermatids, respectively. The development of these specialized germ cells requires sex-matched somatic support cells. The sexual identity of somatic gonadal cells is specified during development and must be actively maintained during adulthood. We previously showed that the transcription factor Chinmo is required to ensure the male sexual identity of somatic support cells in the *Drosophila melanogaster* testis. Loss of *chinmo* from male somatic gonadal cells results in feminization: they transform from squamous to epithelial-like cells that resemble somatic cells in the female gonad but fail to properly ensheath the male germline, causing infertility. To identify potential target genes of Chinmo, we purified somatic cells deficient for *chinmo* from the adult *Drosophila* testis and performed next-generation sequencing to compare their transcriptome to that of control somatic cells. Bioinformatics revealed 304 and 1549 differentially upregulated and downregulated genes, respectively, upon loss of *chinmo* in early somatic cells. Using a combination of methods, we validated several differentially expressed genes. These data sets will be useful resources to the community.

Keywords: testis; ovary; Chinmo; sexual identity; sex transformation

Introduction

In all sexually reproducing species, distinct transcriptional programs instruct the development of male and female individuals. Resulting sex differences manifest in the anatomy, physiology, and behavior of adult populations. Importantly, inappropriate sexual specification underpins numerous developmental defects and pathologies across many species, including human disorders of sexual development (reviewed in Bashamboo and McElreavey 2015). Therefore, dissecting the underlying mechanisms for sex determination and maintenance are of critical importance.

The first mechanism of sex determination was characterized in the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* and controls the expression of Doublesex (Dsx), a key effector of sexual differentiation. Dsx is the founding member of the doublesex/Mab-3-related transcription factor family and regulates many known sex differences in *Drosophila* morphology and behavior (reviewed in Camara et al. 2008). Importantly, Dsx plays a well-documented role in establishing sex-specific somatic gonads (DeFalco et al. 2003; Le Bras and Van Doren 2006; Camara et al. 2019). In somatic cells that require knowledge of their sex, an alternative splicing cascade yields female-specific expression of the RNA-binding proteins Sex-lethal (Sxl) and Transformer (Tra; Boggs et al. 1987; Inoue et al. 1990; Bell et al. 1991). In female somatic cells, Tra binds to dsx pre-mRNA to yield the female isoform dsx^F , while male somatic cells lack Sxl and Tra and produce the default male dsx^M mRNA (Inoue et al. 1992; Lynch and Maniatis 1996). The resulting sex-specific Dsx^M and Dsx^F proteins control transcriptional programs that instruct male and female sexual differentiation, respectively.

Sexual dimorphism is perhaps most apparent in the development of reproductive organs—ovaries and testes—which must produce sex-specific gametes to ensure continuation of the species. In many sexually reproducing species, including *Drosophila melanogaster*, the testis and ovary harbor germ cells that give rise to sperm and oocytes, respectively. These gametes depend on signals from somatic support cells housed in the same tissue throughout their development (Leatherman and Dinardo 2008, 2010; Waterbury et al. 2000; Wawersik et al. 2005).

Anchored to the apex of the testis, a tight cluster of postmitotic cells termed the hub contributes to the male stem cell niche, producing secreted factors that support both germline stem cells (GSCs) and somatic cyst stem cells (CySCs; Figure 1A, reviewed in Greenspan et al. 2015). GSCs undergo oriented mitotic divisions to produce daughter cells with asymmetric cell fates: the cell adjacent to the hub self-renews and remains a GSC, while the

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Figure 1 Transcriptomic profiling of chinmo-deficient CySCs. (A) Diagram of the adult Drosophila testis (left) and ovary (right). (Left) The testis niche is composed of quiescent somatic cells termed "hub" cells (green). The niche supports ~8–12 GSCs (dark pink) and ~13 somatic CySCs (dark blue). The GSC divides to produce a Gb (light pink) that differentiates. The Gb is ensheathed by two quiescent cyst cells (light blue), daughter cells of the CySCs. These same two cyst cells continue to ensheath the Gb as it divides four more times with incomplete cytokinesis, giving rise to spermatogonia (light pink and as "differentiating germ cells") that enter meiosis. (Right) The ovarian niche (green) supports approximately two to three GSCs (dark pink). The GSC divides to produce a cystoblast that begins differentiation. IGS cells (light orange, also called escort cells) wrap around the cystoblast as it differentiates. Approximately one to four FSCs (dark blue) reside in the middle of the germarium and produce mitotic follicle cells (FCs) which function as epithelium that envelops the 16-cell germ cyst. (B, C) Representative confocal image of a control tj>GFP testis (B) and a tj>GFP+chinmo-RNAi testis (C) at 2 days of adulthood. In the control testis, GFP (magenta) was expressed in the nuclei of tj-expressing somatic support cells (i.e., CySCs and cyst cells) that ensheathed early germ cells (B). In the tj>GFP + chinmo-RNAi testis, GFP (magenta) was still expressed in the nuclei of tj-expressing somatic support cells (C). However, these chinmo-deficient somatic support cells were in close contact with each other and no longer properly enveloping germ cells, demonstrating that they were becoming sex-transformed. Vasa (green) marks germ cells. An asterisk marks the niche. Scale bar = 20 µm (D) Work-flow of the RNA-seq. Briefly, we purified GFP-positive cells from tj>GFP or tj>GFP+chinmo-RNAi adult testes at 2-3 days after eclosion. We isolated total RNA from these cells and generated cDNA libraries, which were used for the RNA-seq. The reads were mapped to the Drosophila genome (dm6). 1853 genes were differentially expressed (i.e., FC \geq 2 and $P^{adj} \leq$ 0.05) in tj>GFP+chinmo-RNAi cells compared with tj>GFP cells, with 304 upregulated and 1549 downregulated. (E) Principal component analysis of tj>GFP (red circles labeled "WT") and tj>GFP+chinmo-RNAi (blue circles labeled "chinmo-RNAi"). The WT samples clustered together and were distinct from the chinmo-RNAi samples. Genotypes (B) w/Y; tj-Gal4, UAS-GFP^{nls}/UAS-GFP^{nls}; +/+, (C) w/Y; tj-Gal4, UAS-GFP^{nls}/+; UAS-chimmo-RNAi/UAS-Dcr-2, (E) w/Y; tj-Gal4, UAS-GFP^{nls}/UAS-GFP^{nls}/+, (labeled "WT") and w/Y; tj-Gal4, UAS-GFP^{nls}/+; UAS-chinmo-RNAi/UAS-Dcr-2 (labeled "chinmo-RNAi")

other daughter cell, now a gonialblast (Gb), is physically displaced from the stem cell niche and begins to differentiate (Hardy et al. 1979; Yamashita et al. 2003). Each Gb undergoes four rounds of mitosis with incomplete cytokinesis to produce 2-, 4-, 8-, and 16-cell spermatogonial cysts. Each 16-cell cyst undergoes meiosis to generate mature spermatids (Fuller 1998). GSCs are supported by CySCs, which act as an extended niche in concert with hub cells (Leatherman and Dinardo 2008, 2010). Each Gb is ensheathed by two differentiating cyst cells, which both exit the cell cycle and continue growing in size to support germ cells throughout spermatogenesis (Lenhart and DiNardo 2015; Shields et al. 2014).

Multiple somatic cell types contribute to female germline development in the ovary (Figure 1A, reviewed in (Drummond-Barbosa 2019; Rust and Nystul 2020)). In each ovary, 16-20 ovarioles each comprise a chain of developing egg chambers: mature oocytes reside at the base of the ovary, whereas the apical end of each ovariole houses two to three female GSCs. The most apical chamber in the ovariole, the germarium, contains a stack of six to seven niche cells. GSCs divide asymmetrically to produce a cystoblast that, aided by somatic inner germarial sheath (IGS) cells, undergoes four rounds of mitotic division similar to male GSC differentiation. The 16-cell germ cyst is enclosed in an egg chamber that goes through 14 stages of differentiation. Developing egg chambers are surrounded by a follicle epithelium that assembles around the germline in the germarium. These somatic follicle cells are descendants of approximately one to four follicle stem cells (FSCs) that reside at the 2a/2b boundary in the germarium (Fadiga and Nystul 2019). FSCs may be functionally analogous to CySCs as both require similar proliferative pathways and exhibit similar competitive behaviors (Amoyel et al. 2013, 2014; Cook et al. 2017; Issigonis et al. 2009; Leatherman and Dinardo 2008; Michel et al. 2012; Vied et al. 2012).

Although germ cells autonomously specify their sex identity, they also rely on cues from sex-specific somatic cell types. In the early developing testis, the male somatic gonad produces the IL-6-like ligand Unpaired to activate the sole *Drosophila* STAT family protein Stat92E in male germ cells (Sheng et al. 2009; Wawersik et al. 2005). This male-specific Stat92E activation is required for male germ cell development. In contrast, female germ cells lack Stat92E activity. Consistent with this, several lines of research have demonstrated that in order for gametogenesis to proceed successfully, the sex identity of somatic support cells in the gonad must match that of the neighboring germ cells (Grmai et al. 2018; Ma et al. 2014; Sheng et al. 2009; Waterbury et al. 2000; Wawersik et al. 2005).

We initially characterized a target of Stat92E, the Broad complex, Tramtrack, and Bric-à-brac (BTB)/Zinc finger (ZF)-containing transcription factor Chronologically inappropriate morphogenesis (Chinmo), for its role in adult CySC maintenance. CySC clones lacking chinmo are rapidly lost from the testis niche, indicating that Chinmo is required autonomously for CySC niche residency (Flaherty et al. 2010). Interestingly, Chinmo is also required to preserve the male sexual identity of adult CySCs. Although Chinmo is expressed in all cell types of the testis stem cell niche, including CySCs, it is absent from somatic cells in the ovary (Grmai et al. 2018; Ma et al. 2014). Loss of chinmo in adult CySCs, either by endogenous mutation or tissue-specific depletion, causes CySCs to transform into epithelial-like cells (Grmai et al. 2018; Ma et al. 2014). These sex-transformed somatic cells exhibit gene expression and morphology reminiscent of follicle cells in the adult ovary. The resulting germline-soma mismatch

in sex identity upon somatic *chinmo* depletion causes male sterility (Grmai et al. 2018).

Despite the importance of somatic Chinmo in preserving the male germline, to date no direct Chinmo targets have been reported. Identifying factors that are regulated by Chinmo in adult CySCs will reveal important insights about Chinmo as a regulator of male stem cell identity. In pursuit of such factors, we performed transcriptomic profiling and bioinformatic analyses of purified control and chinmo-depleted CySCs. Additionally, we used a positional weight matrix (PWM) for DNA bound by the Chinmo zinc finger domains to survey the Drosophila genome for loci containing these sites (Enuameh et al. 2013). By comparing the list of genes with putative Chinmo binding sites to our RNA-seq, we narrowed down our list of differentially expressed genes to those that may be direct Chinmo targets. Some of these genes, such as β heavy spectrin ($\beta_{\rm H}$ -spectrin; Flybase: karst (kst)), polychaetoid (pyd), and scribble (scrib), function in epithelial polarity and structure. We validated these targets as being enriched both in wild-type (WT) ovarian follicle cells and in sex-transformed testicular somatic cells. These data suggest that in WT testicular somatic cells, Chinmo might repress the expression of factors that promote epithelial morphogenesis.

Materials and methods

Fly stocks

We used traffic jam (tj)-Gal4 (Kyoto Stock Center-104055); UAS-GFP^{nls} (Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center (BDSC-4775); UAS-chinmo^{HMS00036}-RNA nterference (RNAi) (BDSC-33638); UAS-Dcr-2 (BDSC-24651); mirr-lacZ^{cre2} (BDSC-10880); chinmoST (Ma et al. 2014); and the protein trap scrib-GFP (scrib^{CA07683}) (Buszczak et al. 2007; a gift from Ronald Davis, Scripps Research Florida, FL, USA). We maintained crosses at 25°C in a 12-h light/dark incubator.

Flies were reared on food made with these ingredients: 1800 mL Molasses (LabScientific, Catalog no. FLY-8008-16), 266 g Agar (Mooragar, Catalog no. 41004), 1800 g Cornmeal (LabScientific, Catalog no. FLY-8010-20), 744 g Yeast (LabScientific, Catalog no. FLY-8040-20F), 47 L Water, 56 g Tegosept (Sigma no. H3647-1KG), 560 mL Reagent Alcohol (Fisher no. A962P4), and 190 mL Propionic Acid (Fisher no. A258500).

Testis dissociation, flow cytometry, and RNA isolation for RNA-seq

We dissected testes from adult Drosophila tj>GFP (genotype: w/Y; tj-Gal4, UAS-GFP^{nls}/UAS-GFP^{nls}; +/+) or tj>GFP+chinmo-RNAi (genotype: w/Y; tj-Gal4, UAS-GFP^{nls}/+; UAS-chinmo-RNAi/UAS-Dcr-2) males at 2 or 3 days post-eclosion. The testis dissociation protocol was generously provided by Margaret Fuller (Stanford University, Palo Alto, CA, USA) and modified slightly for this experiment. Testes were dissected into Schneider's medium and transferred to prepared tubes with 500 µL of Schneider's medium with L-glutamine. Once testes sunk to the bottom of the tubes, the media was carefully aspirated using a Pasteur pipet. To each tube was added 150 µL 0.25% Trypsin + EDTA; 150 µL collagenase (starting concentration 1 mg/mL) + 1% BSA. Samples were vortexed vigorously for 15 min at room temperature; after confirming that testes were no longer intact, the enzymatic reactions were terminated by adding 1 mL Schneider's medium + 12.5% Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS), 0.1 mg/mL gentamicin, 2 mM EDTA. Cell suspensions were filtered through a 100 µm Falcon filter into an Eppendorf tube and centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. Supernatants were removed carefully and cell pellets were resuspended in Schneider's/FBS/gentamicin/EDTA solution. If necessary, samples of the same genotype were pooled at this point. GFP-expressing somatic cells were purified from the resulting filtrate by FACS using a Sony SY3200 highly automated parallel sorting cell sorter into 750 μ L TRIzol LS (Thermo Fisher). RNA was isolated and precipitated according to manufacturer's instructions. RNA extracts were cleaned using RNeasy Mini Kit (QIAGEN) according to manufacturer's instructions. RNA quality and quantity were determined using the Agilent 1200 Bioanalyzer.

RNA-sequencing and analysis

The RNA-sequencing was performed by the Genome Technology Center at the NYU Langone Medical Center. One nanogram of total RNA was used for library prep, and cDNA was amplified by using Nugen Ovation RNA-Seq System V2 kit (Part No. 7102-32), 100 ng of Covaris-fragmented cDNA were used as input to prepare the libraries, using the Ovation Ultralow Library system (Nugen, Part 0330-32), and amplified by 10 cycles of PCR. The samples were mixed into two pools and run in two 50-nucleotide paired-end read rapid run flow cell lanes on the Illumina HiSeq 2500 sequencer.

Bioinformatics

Bioinformatic analysis was performed by the Applied Bioinformatics Laboratories at NYU Langone Medical Center. Sequencing results were demultiplexed and converted to FASTQ format using Illumina Bcl2FastQ software. Reads were aligned to the dm6 release of the Drosophila melanogaster genome using the splice-aware STAR aligner. PCR duplicates were removed using the Picard toolkit (http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard). The HTSeq package (Love et al. 2014) was utilized to generate counts for each gene based on how many aligned reads overlap its exons. These counts were then used to test for differential expression using negative binomial generalized linear models implemented by the DESeq2 R package (Anders et al. 2015). The adjusted P-value (P^{adj}) was generated by using the False Discovery Rate with the Benjamini-Hochberg method. A scatter (Volcano) plot was generated using Stata 15.1 (StataCorp LLC, College Station, TX, USA). For Supplementary Tables S1 and S2, we chose a cutoff of fold change (FC) ≤ -2.0 or ≥ 2.0 and P^{adj} < 0.05.

Genome-wide analysis of Chinmo binding sites

We obtained a PWM for Chinmo from Fly Factor Survey (https:// mccb.umassmed.edu/ffs/; Enuameh et al. 2013), the consensus being (G/A)ATGCAC(T/C)(T/N)NN (Supplementary Tables S3 and S4, READ ME Tab). We used a web-based program PWMScan (https://ccg.epfl.ch//pwmtools/pwmscan.php; Ambrosini et al. 2018) to search the Drosophila genome for Chinmo binding sites that matched that PWM with a stringent P value less than 1 \times 10^{-5} (recommended by developers of the PWMScan website; Ambrosini et al. 2018). We then compared the list of locations of Chinmo binding sites with the list of genes and their locations (https://genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-bin/hgTables?command=start). We report in Supplementary Tables S3 and S4 differentially regulated genes in chinmo-deficient CySCs with at least one Chinmo binding site in noncoding regions, defined as 1500 bps upstream of the transcription start site, introns, and 1500 bps downstream of the termination sequence.

Antibody staining

Immunofluorescence was performed as described in Flaherty et al. (2010). The following primary antibodies were used: goat anti-Vasa (1:50, dC-13, Santa Cruz), rabbit anti-Vasa (1:3000; gift of Ruth Lehmann, Whitehead Institute, MA, USA), guinea pig anti-Tj (1:5000; gift of Dorothea Godt, University of Toronto, ON, Canada), mouse anti-Fasciclin (Fas) 3 (1:50; Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank (DSHB), rat anti-DE-cad (1:25, DSHB), mouse anti-Pyd (clone Pyd2) (1:10) (DSHB); rabbit anti- β_{H} -spectrin (1:250) (gift of Claire Thomas, Penn State University, PA, USA); rabbit anti-GFP (1:250) (Invitrogen), mouse anti- β -gal (1:50) (DSHB). We used fluorescent secondary antibodies at 1:250 (Jackson Laboratories). The samples were then mounted in Vectashield. We collected fluorescent images at 63× magnification using a Zeiss LSM 700 confocal microscope.

Results

Next-generation sequencing of FACS-purified, chinmo-depleted somatic cells

We isolated viable control tj>GFP cells (Figure 1B) or viable chinmo-depleted somatic cells (tj>chinmo-RNAi; Figure 1C) by flow cytometry based on their lack of propidium iodide uptake and their expression of GFP in the tj domain (i.e., CySCs and early cyst cells; Fairchild et al. 2016). We chose to isolate these cells at 2-3 days of adulthood because this is the time point when physical changes in the testis stem cell niche are observed (Figure 1C; Ma et al. 2014). The isolated RNA was processed for expression profiling, and the sequencing was performed using Illumina HiSeq2500 Paired-End 50 Cycle Flow Cell (Figure 1D). Principal Component Analysis revealed that control (labeled "WT") and tj>chinmo-RNAi samples were distinct clusters (Figure 1E). The variability between the chinmo-RNAi samples is likely a result of the early time point we chose to maximize the chance of detecting transcriptional changes at the initiation of male-to-female sex transformation

For the bioinformatics analyses, we chose an arbitrary cutoff of $P^{adj} \leq 0.05$ and FC ≥ 2 and found 304 upregulated genes and 1549 downregulated genes (Supplementary Tables S1, S2, and Figure 2A). We analyzed the differentially regulated genes in tj>chinmo-RNAi somatic cells for presence of a Chinmo binding site in noncoding regions. We found that 99 significantly upregulated genes ($P^{adj} \leq 0.05$) had at least 1 Chinmo binding site, including β_{H} -spectrin (kst) with 3 sites, pyd and scrib, with 2 sites each (Supplementary Table S3). This analysis did not identify any Chinmo binding sites in *DE-cadherin* (*DE-cad*) (Flybase: shot-gun). Of the differentially downregulated genes, 208 had at least one Chinmo binding site (Supplementary Table S4).

To identify common biological functions among differentially expressed genes, we analyzed the 99 upregulated annotated genes with putative Chinmo binding sites using DAVID (Database for Annotation, Visualization and Integrated Discovery; Huang da et al. 2009a, b). Consistent with the epithelial morphogenesis triggered upon chinmo loss, we found that most significantly enriched gene ontology terms were related to actin organization, apical-basal polarity, cytoskeleton and cell junction (Figure 2B). We then selected four genes for further validation based on availability of resources, including antibodies, enhancer- or protein-trap lines, and known roles in the ovarian follicular epithelium: $\beta_{\rm H}$ -spectrin, DE-cad, pyd, and scrib (Figure 2A). The expression patterns of these four factors were assessed in WT ovaries, WT testes, and in testes in which chinmo was somatically depleted, either by use of the chinmoST loss-of-function allele or by expression of UAS-chinmo-RNAi using tj-Gal4.



Figure 2 Genotype ontology and gene expression in *chinmo*-depleted somatic cells. (A) Scatter (Volcano) plot for genes in *chinmo*-depleted somatic cells (tj>GFP+*chinmo*-RNAi) compared with controls (tj>GFP). The x-axis is the log₂ of the fold change and the y-axis is the negative log₁₀ of the adjusted P-value (P^{adj}). Gray line indicates P^{adj} = 0.05. Gray circles indicate genes with log₂ (FC) between -1 and 1 (corresponding to FC between 0.5 and 2). Blue circles indicate genes with log₂ (FC) greater than 1 (corresponding to FC >2). The larger black circles indicate the differentially upregulated genes β_{H^-} spectrin, *pyd*, scrib, and *DE-cad*. (B) Gene Ontology. DAVID Functional Annotation Clustering analysis depicting enriched biological processes for the 100 upregulated genes with putative Chinmo binding sites. The enrichment score plotted on the y-axis is based on the Fisher's exact P-values of each gene in the group. The higher the score, the more enriched is the group. Genotype: (A) w/Y; tj-Gal4, UAS-GFP^{nls}/+; UAS-chinmo-RNAi/UAS-Dcr-2.

chinmo-depleted somatic cells upregulate $\beta_{\rm H}$ -spectrin

Spectrins serve structural roles in cells as they line the intracellular side of the plasma membrane (Liem 2016). Spectrin dimers are composed of α and β subunits that interact in an anti-parallel manner. Two $\alpha\beta$ dimers then associate to form a tetramer (Byers et al. 1987; Dubreuil et al. 1996). In Drosophila, there is a second type of spectrin dimer composed of the same $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ subunit and a higher molecular weight protein called β_H spectrin (Dubreuil et al. 1990). In Drosophila embryos and adult follicle cells, the spectrin cytoskeleton is polarized: $\alpha\beta_{H}$ -spectrin dimers localize to the apical domain while $\alpha\beta\text{-spectrin}$ dimers are found at the basolateral margin (Lee et al. 1997; Thomas and Williams 1999). Consistent with prior work, an xy-section of the adult germarium showed that $\beta_{\text{H}}\text{-spectrin}$ is expressed in niche cells (Figure 3A", bracket; Zarnescu and Thomas 1999). Furthermore, β_{H} -spectrin is enriched at the apical side of follicle cells in the germarium and in later egg chambers (Figure 3A", arrows). In a WT testis, β_{H} -spectrin was expressed exclusively in niche cells

(outlined in Figure 3B"). In contrast, β_H -spectrin was ectopically expressed in all somatic cells in a *chinmo*ST mutant testis and in testes somatically depleted for *chinmo*, and this was particularly apparent in the apical domain of feminized, follicle-like cells that line the periphery of the testis adjacent to the muscle sheath (Figure 3, C" and D", arrows).

chinmo-depleted somatic cells upregulate DE-cad

A homolog of classical vertebrate cadherins, *Drosophila* DE-cad mediates cell-cell adhesion through homophilic interactions (Tepass et al. 1996; Hill et al. 2001). DE-cad is a main component of adherens junctions (AJs), which maintain epithelial integrity (Harris and Tepass 2010). The DE-cad intracellular domain associates with cytoskeletal proteins like Armadillo/ β -catenin, which in turn anchors actin filaments to the plasma membrane (Bulgakova et al. 2012). Consistent with prior work, xy-sections of a WT ovary showed that DE-cad was expressed in AJs in the somatic follicle cells (Figure 4, A–B''', arrows; Franz and Riechmann



Figure 3 *chinmo*-deficient somatic cells upregulate β_H -Spectrin. (A–A") xy-section of a WT ovary shows that β_H -spectrin (white) is present in somatic cells. Bracket in A" indicates the niche cells. Arrows in A" indicate apical enrichment of β_H -spectrin in follicle cells. (B–B") In a WT testis, β_{H^-} spectrin (white) is expressed strongly in niche cells (outlined by a dashed line in B") and at very low levels in other somatic cells. (C–D") In a*chinmo*ST mutant testis (C–C") or a testis somatically depleted for *chinmo* (D–D"), β_H -spectrin (white) is expressed in feminized somatic cells. Arrows in C" and D" indicate apical enrichment of β_H -spectrin (white) is expressed in feminized somatic cells. Arrows in C" and D" indicate apical enrichment of β_H -spectrin in *chinmo*-depleted somatic cells. In (A–D), Vasa (green) marks the germline and Tj (magenta) marks cyst cells. Scale bar = 10 µm. Time point in (A–D) is 7–8 days post-eclosion. Genotypes: (A) +/+; +/+ (OregonR), (B) +/Y; +/+; +/+ (OregonR), (C) w/Y; *chinmo*ST/*chinmo*ST; +/+, and (D) w/Y; tj-Gal4/+; UAS-chinmo-RNAi/UAS-Dcr-2 (labeled "tj>chinmo-RNAi")

2010). In a WT testis, DE-cad was expressed strongly in somatic niche cells (outlined in Figure 4C"') and at lower levels in somatic support cells (Figure 4C''', arrow). DE-cad levels strongly increased in feminized, follicle-like somatic cells in $chinmo^{ST}$ testes or in *chinmo*-depleted somatic cells (Figure 4, D–G''', arrows). Middle xy-sections of feminized testes showed enrichment of DE-cad in AJs (Figure 4, D''' and 4F''', arrows).

chinmo-depleted somatic cells upregulate Pyd

Pyd is the single zonula occludens (ZO) protein in *Drosophila* and the homolog of ZO-1 (Takahisa et al. 1996; Wei and Ellis 2001). A

member of the membrane-associated guanylate kinase family of proteins, ZO-1 is a primary component of tight junctions, which maintain barriers between epithelial cells. (Takahisa et al. 1996; Nelson 2008; Fanning and Anderson 2009). In invertebrates, the barrier-forming junction between epithelial cells is called the septate junction, and it is localized more basally than AJs (Furuse and Tsukita 2006). Surprisingly, in several epithelia in *Drosophila*, Pyd localizes apically at AJs with DE-cad and not to the septate junction (Wei and Ellis 2001; Jung et al. 2006; Seppa et al. 2008; Choi et al. 2011). Consistent with prior work, a middle and apical xy-section of a WT ovary showed that Pyd was expressed



Figure 4 *chinmo*-deficient somatic cells upregulate DE-cad. (A–A''') Middle xy-section of a WT ovary shows that DE-cad (white) is expressed at AJs (arrows in A'') in somatic follicle cells. (B–B''') An apical xy-section of a WT ovary shows that DE-cad (white) is apically enriched in follicle cells. (C–C'') In a WT testis, DE-cad (white) is expressed strongly in the niche (outlined by a dashed line in C''') and at a modest level in the somatic cells (arrow, C'''). (D–D'') Middle xy-section of a *chinmo*ST mutant testis shows that DE-cad (white) is ectopically expressed at AJs (arrows, D''') in feminized somatic cyst cells. (E–E''') An apical xy-section of a *chinmo*ST mutant testis reveals apical enrichment of DE-cad (white) in the feminized somatic cyst cells. (F–F''') Middle xy-section of a *tj*-chinmo-RNAi testis shows that DE-cad (white) is ectopically expressed at AJs (arrows, D''') in feminized somatic cyst cells. (E–E''') An apical xy-section of a *chinmo*ST mutant testis reveals apical enrichment of DE-cad (white) in the feminized somatic cyst cells. (G–G''') An apical xy-section of a *tj*-chinmo-RNAi testis shows apical enrichment of DE-cad (white) in the feminized somatic cyst cells. (G–G''') An apical xy-section of a *tj*-chinmo-RNAi testis shows apical enrichment of DE-cad (white) in the feminized follicle-like cells. In (A–G), Vasa (green) marks the germline and Tj (magenta) marks cyst cells. Scale bar = 10 µm. (A'''-G'') is a magnification of the boxed regions in (A''-G''), respectively. Time point in (A–G) is 7–8 days post-eclosion. Genotypes: (A, B) +/+; +/+; +/+ (OregonR), (C) +/Y; +/+; +/+ (OregonR), (D, E) w/Y; chinmoST/chinmoST; +/+ (F, G) w/Y; tj-Gal4/+; UAS-chinmo-RNAi/UAS-Dcr-2 (labeled "tj>chinmo-RNAi'').



Figure 5 *chinmo*-deficient somatic cells upregulate Pyd. (A–A'") Middle xy-section of a WT ovary shows that Pyd (white) is expressed strongly in somatic follicle cells. Arrows (A'") indicate Pyd expression in AJs. (B–B'") An apical xy-section of a WT ovary shows the apical enrichment of Pyd (white) in the follicle cells. (C–C'") In a WT testis, Pyd (white) is expressed at moderate levels in the niche (outlined by a dashed line in C'") and at low levels in other somatic cells (C", arrows). (D–D'") Middle xy-section of a *chinmo*ST mutant testis shows that Pyd (white) is ectopically expressed in AJs (arrows in D'") in feminized somatic cyst cells. (E–E'") An apical xy-section of a *chinmo*ST mutant testis shows apical enrichment in the feminized cells. (F–F"") Middle xy-section of a *thinmo*ST mutant testis shows apical enrichment in the feminized cells. (F–F"") Middle xy-section of a *thinmo*ST mutant testis shows apical enrichment in the feminized cells. (G–G'") An apical xy-section of a *tj-chinmo*-RNAi testis shows apical enrichment of Pyd (white) is ectopically expressed in AJs (arrows in F'") in feminized somatic cyst cells. (G–G'") An apical xy-section of a *tj-chinmo*-RNAi testis shows apical enrichment of Pyd (white) is ectopically expressed in AJs (arrows in F'") in feminized cells. (G–G'") An apical xy-section of a *tj-chinmo*-RNAi testis shows apical enrichment of Pyd (white) is ectopically expressed in AJs (arrows in F'") in feminized cells. (G–G'") An apical xy-section of a *tj-chinmo*-RNAi testis shows apical enrichment of Pyd (white) is ectopically expressed in AJs (arrows in F'") in feminized somatic cyst cells. (G–G'") An apical xy-section of a *tj-chinmo*-RNAi testis shows apical enrichment of Pyd (white) in the feminized follicle-like cells. In (A–G), Vasa (green) marks the germline and Tj (magenta) marks cyst cells. Scale bar = 10 µm. (A'"–G") is a magnification of the boxed regions in (A"–G"), respectively. Time point in (A–G) is 7–8 days post-eclosion. Genotypes: (A, B) +/+; +/+

exclusively in somatic follicle cells (Figure 5, A–B''', arrows; Djiane et al. 2011). In a WT testis, Pyd was expressed strongly in niche cells (outlined in Figure 5C''') and at lower levels in CySCs (Figure 5C''', arrows). In testes somatically deficient in *chinmo*, Pyd expression increased substantially in feminized, follicle-like cells and localized to AJs (Figure 5, D–G''', arrows).

chinmo-depleted somatic cells upregulate Scrib

A scaffolding protein that localizes to the septate junction of epithelial cells, Scrib contains leucine-rich repeats and PDZ domains (Bilder and Perrimon 2000; Bryant and Huwe 2000; Santoni et al. 2002). Both types of domains are critical for Scrib localization and stabilization at the plasma membrane (Albertson et al. 2004; Zeitler et al. 2004). scrib mutant follicle cell clones display loss of apico-basal polarity, characterized by a disrupted actin cytoskeleton and multi-layered morphology (Bilder et al. 2000). In a WT ovary, Scrib is restricted to the lateral membranes of the follicle epithelium (Bilder et al. 2000; Kronen et al. 2014). We used a Scrib-GFP protein trap that recapitulates Scrib protein localization (Batz et al. 2014; Buszczak et al. 2007). In a middle xy-section of a WT ovary, Scrib-GFP was strongly expressed in the lateral domain of follicle cells (Figure 6, A-B'", arrows; Bilder et al. 2000; Kronen et al. 2014). Consistent with prior report, in a WT testis, Scrib was expressed strongly in niche cells (outlined in Figure 6C"") and at lower levels in somatic support cells (Figure 6C'", arrows; Papagiannouli 2013). In testes in which chinmo was somatically depleted, Scrib-GFP expression increased in the lateral domain of feminized, follicle-like cells (Figure 6, D-E", arrows).

chinmo-depleted somatic cells upregulate Mirror

A recent report revealed that Mirror (Mirr), an Iroquois complex homeobox transcription factor, is expressed in IGS cells and early follicle cells in the germarium, in addition to its known expression in dorsal follicle cells at stage 10 of oogenesis (Jordan et al. 2000; Zhao et al. 2000; Cavodeassi et al. 2001; Xi et al. 2003; Tu et al. 2020). Importantly, mirr transcripts were increased 2.1-fold in chinmo-depleted somatic cells compared with controls, but this result was not statistically significant (P<0.349). Nevertheless, we decided to validate these results. We confirmed that a mirr-LacZ enhancer trap was robustly expressed in tj-positive, early follicle cells in a WT germarium (Figure 7, A-A'", arrows). In a WT testis, mirr was expressed strongly in niche cells (outlined in Figure 7B'") and at much lower levels in the somatic CySCs (Figure 7B'"). Consistent with increased mirr transcripts in the RNA-seq, *mirr-LacZ* was strongly expressed in all somatic cells in a chinmoST mutant testis and in a testis somatically depleted for chinmo (Figure 7, C-D"', brackets). These results indicate that during sex transformation, chinmo-deficient CySCs upregulate mirr.

Discussion

Here, we report the transcriptional profiling of purified WT somatic cyst cells or those depleted for the putative transcriptional repressor Chinmo. We demonstrate that their respective transcriptional profiles are distinct and that depletion of Chinmo triggers a dramatic transcriptional response within 2 days of its loss. Our interest lies in identifying genes and gene networks that are direct or indirect targets of Chinmo and the perturbations that regulate sex transformation of male cyst cells. Using a combination of immunofluorescence, enhancer traps and protein traps, we validated upregulated candidate genes broadly implicated in epithelial architecture. Our work demonstrates that *chinmo*-dependent feminization is accompanied with dramatic molecular changes in epithelial morphogenesis marked by ectopic expression of cell polarity regulators like DE-cad, Pyd, and Scrib, cytoskeleton regulators like $\beta_{\rm H}$ -spectrin, and cell fate regulators like Mirr. Furthermore, some of these genes (*pyd*, *scrib*, and $\beta_{\rm H}$ -spectrin) harbor multiple putative Chinmo binding sites in noncoding regions, suggesting that they might be direct Chinmo targets.

Despite the fact that Chinmo regulates a variety of processes, from neuronal temporal development to sex determination, very few Chinmo target genes are known. In fact, most publications concerning Chinmo have revealed upstream regulators of the chinmo gene and its transcripts and not factors acting downstream of Chinmo (Ostrin et al. 2006; Flaherty et al. 2010; Wu et al. 2012; Liu et al. 2015; Syed et al. 2017). We found only one other RNA-seq that reported Chinmo target genes in larval neural stem cells (Narbonne-Reveau et al. 2016). Although $\beta_{\rm H}$ -spectrin is a common target of both RNA-seq data sets, it is regulated in opposite directions, positively by Chinmo in neural tumors (Narbonne-Reveau et al. 2016) and negatively in testicular somatic cells (this study). Future work will be needed to determine whether β_{H} -spectrin and other genes are direct targets of Chinmo in vivo and whether there is any cell type specificity. Ideally, this would involve ChIP-seq experiments using an endogenously tagged Chinmo (currently lacking in the field) in purified CySCs and in larval stem cells. Such ChIP-seq experiments would be useful in validating the Chinmo PWM [(G/A)ATGCAC(T/C)(T/ N)NN] identified through bacterial one-hybrid (B1H) approaches (Enuameh et al. 2013). We note that our whole-genome screen for sites matching the Chinmo B1H PWM identified large genes, suggesting that Chinmo binding to chromatin in vivo may be more complex.

Data availability

Strains are available upon request. A PWM for Chinmo was obtained by B1H assays (Enuameh et al. 2013). We used a webbased program PWMScan (https://ccg.epfl.ch//pwmtools/pwmscan. php; Ambrosini et al. 2018) to search the Drosophila genome for Chinmo binding sites. Supplementary Tables S1 and S2 contain the list of genes that are differentially up- or downregulated ($P^{adj} \leq 0.05$) in somatic cells depleted for *chinmo*, respectively. Supplementary Tables S3 and S4 contain the list of genes that are differentially upand downregulated, respectively, in *chinmo*-depleted somatic cells that contain at least one Chinmo binding site. The RNA-seq data in this study have been deposited at NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus (Edgar et al. 2002) and are accessible through GEO Series accession number (GSE148230). Supplementary material is available at figshare: https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13604270.

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Figure 6 *chinmo*-deficient somatic cells upregulate Scrib. (A–A''') Middle xy-section of a WT ovary shows that Scrib (white) is expressed strongly in the lateral domains (arrows in A''') of follicle cells and at lower levels in the germline. (B–B''') An apical xy-section of a WT ovary shows the apical enrichment of Scrib (white) in the follicle cells. (C–C''') In a WT testis, Scrib (white) is expressed in the niche (outlined in C'''), at moderate levels in germ cells, and at low levels in somatic cyst cells (arrows in C''). (D–D''') Middle xy-section of a tj>*chinmo*-RNAi testis shows that Scrib (white) is ectopically expressed in the lateral domain (arrows in D''') of epithelial feminized somatic cells. (E–E''') An apical xy-section of a tj>*chinmo*-RNAi testis shows apical enrichment of Scrib (white) in the feminized follicle-like cells. In (A–E), Vasa (green) marks the germline and Tj (magenta) marks cyst cells. Scale bar = 10 µm. (A'''–E''') is a magnification of the boxed regions in (A''–E''), respectively. Time point in (A–E) is 7–8 days post-eclosion. Genotypes: (A, B) w/w; +/+; scrib-GFP/scrib-GFP (C) w/Y; +/+; scrib-GFP/scrib-GFP, and (D, E) w/Y; tj-Gal4/UAS-Dcr-2; UAS-chinmo-RNAi/scrib-GFP (labeled "tj>*chinmo*-RNAi").



Figure 7 *chinmo*-deficient somatic cells upregulate *mirr*. (A–A'") Middle xy-section of a WT germarium shows that *mirr* (green) is present in early FSCs (arrows in A'–A'"). (B–B'") In a WT testis, *mirr* (green) is expressed strongly in niche cells (outlined in B"") and at a modest level in other somatic cells. (C–C'") In a*chinmo*ST mutant testis, *mirr* (green) is ectopically expressed in feminized somatic cells (bracket in C" and C'"). (D–D'") *mirr* (green) is ectopically expressed in feminized somatic cells (bracket in C" and C'"). (D–D'") *mirr* (green) is ectopically expressed in the feminized somatic cells (brackets in D" and D'") in a tj>*chinmo*-RNAi testis. In (A–D), Vasa (blue) marks the germline and Tj (red) marks cyst cells. Scale bar = 10 µm. Time point in (A–D) is 7–8 days post-eclosion. Genotypes: (A) w/w; +/+; *mirr-lacZ/TM6B*, Tb, (B) w/Y; tj-Gal4/UAS-Dcr-2; UAS-chinmo-RNAi/mirr-lacZ (labeled "tj>*chinmo*-RNAi").

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