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Large-scale transcriptomic analyses reveal downstream target genes of ZFY1 and ZFY2 transcription factors in male germ cells

Hayden Holmlund¹, Manon Coulée², Yasuhiro Yamauchi¹, Benazir Yarbabaeva¹, Muhammetnur Tekayev¹, Isabella R. Garcia ³, Olivier U. Feudijo^{2,4}, Alberto de la Iglesia², Lee Larcombe ⁵, Peter J. I. Ellis³, Julie Cocquet² and Monika A. Ward ¹

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The mouse zinc finger genes Zfy1 and Zfy2 are essential for male fertility. Recently, we produced Zfy1 knock-out (KO), Zfy2 KO, and Zfy1/2 double-knock-out (Zfy DKO) mice, and found that Zfy DKO males were infertile. The mechanism by which ZFY contributes to reproduction remains unknown but based on predicted protein sequence and in vitro assays we hypothesize that it controls expression of genes essential for spermatogenesis. To identify which genes ZFY regulates, we performed comparative transcriptome analysis of sorted male germ cells at three different spermatogenesis stages from three Zfy KO models and control wild-type males. Significantly altered germ cell transcriptomes were identified with Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO. Analyses of differentially expressed genes supported that Zfy loss altered spermatogenesis, DNA packaging/chromatin organization, and apoptosis pathways. Alternative splicing was deregulated in Zfy KO models, affecting sperm function and chromatin regulation pathways. In support of in-silico findings, Zfy DKO males were shown to have impaired post-meiotic chromatin remodeling and sperm chromatin organization, functional sperm deficiencies, and increased germ cell apoptosis. ZFY regulation of apoptotic pathways was demonstrated also in transfected human cells. We conclude that Zfy is a critical regulator of meiosis and spermiogenesis in addition to its previously described function as a cell-cycle regulator.

HIGHLIGHTS

- Murine Zfy regulates expression and alternative splicing of hundreds of genes in male germline.
- Zfy loss alters pathways related to spermatogenesis, DNA packaging/chromatin organization, and apoptosis.
- Regulation of cell cycle and apoptosis pathways is conserved in human ZFY.

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INTRODUCTION

The zinc finger genes Y-linked (*ZFY*) are critical regulators of reproduction and cellular processes (reviewed by [1]). *ZFY* belongs to the broader *ZFX* family of genes that have been recently shown to act primarily as regulators of cell proliferation and general cellular functions [2]. Structurally, all family members comprise an N terminal acidic protein-binding region and a C terminal zincfinger DNA-binding region, separated by a nuclear localization signal. However, while *ZFX* family genes are ubiquitously expressed in mammals, *ZFY* is unique in also expressing a shorter testis-specific splice variant ([3]; reviewed by [1]) with a reduced acidic domain. In humans, the full-length form is ubiquitously expressed, while in mice both short and long forms are testis specific, indicating that in this species ZFY is specialized for its role in spermatogenesis.

Although all *ZFX* family genes are believed to be transcriptional activators [3], the mechanism by which they control cellular processes is still under investigation. Deletion of *ZFX* and *ZNF711* in human female cultured cells (naturally lacking *ZFY*) strongly

reduced cell division rates, and transcriptome analysis of these mutant lines revealed severe downregulation of cell cycle regulation pathways. Epigenetic analysis showed that *ZFY*, *ZFX*, and *ZNF711* bind to the majority of CpG island promoters, suggesting that all three proteins regulate global processes. It was proposed that the *ZFX* family genes share a similar function to the *MYC* family of oncogenic genes, which bind to thousands of promoters but primarily control cell proliferation [2, 4, 5]. Analysis of aneuploid cell lines with varying X and Y chromosome content has shown that the sex chromosomes modulate the expression of hundreds of autosomal genes, with *ZFX* and *ZFY* identified as major drivers of this both in vitro [6] and in vivo [7].

Spermatogenesis is the process during which spermatozoa are formed (Fig. 1A). Briefly, germline stem cells (spermatogonia type A) proliferate mitotically, replenishing the stem cell pool and also giving rise to a daughter lineage (spermatogonia type B) committed to entering meiosis. On initiation of meiosis, they become primary spermatocytes which undergo two successive meiotic divisions: meiosis I produces secondary spermatocytes

¹Yanagimachi Institute for Biogenesis Research, John A. Burns School of Medicine, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, HI, USA. ²Institut Cochin, Université Paris Cité, INSERM, CNRS, Paris, France. ³School of Biosciences, University of Kent, Canterbury, UK. ⁴ADLIN Science, Evry, Cedex, France. ⁵Apexomic, Stevenage Bioscience Catalyst, Stevenage, UK.

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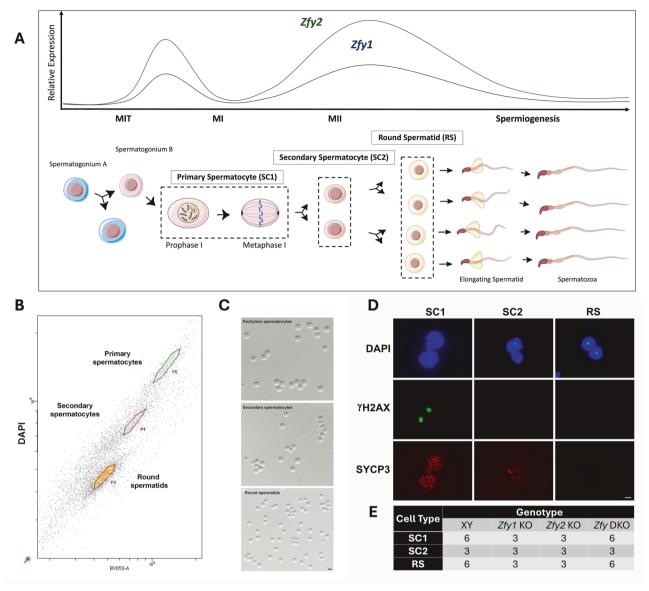


Fig. 1 Isolation of male germ cells from Zfy KO mice. A Schematic diagram illustrating Zfy expression. Expression of both Zfy homologs in relation to mitosis (MIT), meiosis I and II (MI and MII), and spermiogenesis is represented by lines (Zfy1 shown with dark blue, Zfy2 shown with dark green). Relative expression levels shown are representative of published RNA-seq data [80–82]. The paternal and maternal chromosomes are shown in purple and blue, respectively, during prophase I and metaphase I. The Meiotic Sex Chromosome Inactivation (MSCI) sex body in pachytene spermatocytes is shown by green oval. This figure panel was adapted from Fig. 2 in [1]. B Example of FACs sorting showing populations of primary spermatocytes (SC1), secondary spermatocytes (SC2), and round spermatids (RS). C Phase contrast photo showing FACs-purified fractions of SC1, SC2, and RS. Scale, 10 μm. D Identification of male germ cells using DAPI, γH2AX, and SYCP3 immunostaining. Cells are differentiated based on morphology (DAPI) and presence or absence of γH2AX (visible only in primary pachytene spermatocytes) and SYCP3 (visible only in primary and to a lesser extent in secondary spermatocytes). Scale, 10 μm. E number of biological replicates used for RNA-seq. In the pilot experiment, 3 Zfy DKO and 3 XY males were used, each providing SC1 and RS cell types (SC2 were not collected). In the expanded experiment, 3 males of each genotype (Zfy1 KO, Zfy2 KO, Zfy DKO and XY) were used, each male providing three cell types (SC1, SC2, RS). The data from the pilot and the expanded experiment for matching genotypes and cell types were compared and were consistent. Thus, for all analyses, the data from both runs were analyzed together, with the number of biological replicates as shown.

and meiosis II produces haploid round spermatids. Finally, round spermatids undergo spermiogenesis, a morphological differentiation process resulting in the final mature spermatozoa. Differentiated sex chromosomes (XX in females and XY in males) present specific challenges in the pachytene stage of meiosis I prophase, when genetic recombination occurs. Since the great majority of Y chromosome sequence is male-specific, it lacks homology to the X chromosome and does not pair. This triggers global transcriptional silencing of the X and Y chromosomes during pachytene, termed Meiotic Sex Chromosome Inactivation (MSCI) [8]. MSCI is a specialized form of a broader mechanism,

which silences all chromosomal regions that fail to pair during meiosis. MSCI is essential for spermatogenesis and ensures proper meiotic development and sperm formation.

Mouse *Zfy* genes have been previously shown to have multiple functions during spermatogenesis. First, they promote MSCI [9] at the onset of meiosis I prophase, triggering their own silencing. Second, in spermatocytes that fail to correctly undergo MSCI, *Zfy* remains active throughout prophase, triggering apoptotic elimination of these aberrant cells [10, 11] and thus being termed a "meiotic executioner". Thirdly, *Zfy* promotes meiosis II via unknown mechanisms [12], and fourthly, it is essential for

spermiogenesis [13–15]. Zfy's role as a meiotic executioner—for which the strongest evidence comes from mice [9, 10], but also horses [16, 17], pigs [18] and rodents that have lost Y chromosome [19, 20]—is proposed to have broader evolutionary consequences. In general, Y-linked genes are subject to evolutionary pressures that lead either to loss of function, or translocation to other genomic locations—this explains why the Y chromosome is small and gene poor (reviewed in [21]). However, ZFY is essential for male fertility (i.e., it cannot be lost), and must remain subject to meiotic silencing to avoid triggering its executioner function (i.e., it cannot be relocated). This combination of properties gives rise to the "Persistent Y" hypothesis, in which the presence of ZFY explains why the mammalian Y chromosome is seemingly more evolutionarily resilient than Y chromosomes in other taxa, where sex determination mechanisms are more labile and Y chromosomes may be eliminated from the population entirely [21, 22].

The mouse has two *Zfy* genes, *Zfy1* and *Zfy2*, both present as single copies on the Y chromosome short arm. They encode for the isoforms ZFY1 and ZFY2, which are highly similar and are putative transcription factors. Transgene-rescue experiments have shown that these *Zfy* genes are critical for male fertility and normal sperm production [3, 9–13, 15, 23] reviewed by [1]). Recently, we confirmed the importance of *Zfy* by creating *Zfy1* knock-out (KO), *Zfy2* KO, and *Zfy1/2* double knock-out (DKO) mice [14]. The *Zfy1* KO males were fertile with minor abnormalities in spermatogenesis, while the *Zfy2* KO males were sub-fertile, and the *Zfy* DKO males were completely infertile, producing poor quality dysfunctional sperm [14].

Here, we report on using these Zfy KO mouse models to investigate the function of ZFY in vivo. We collected three types of male germ cells, in which Zfy1 and Zfy2 are expressed and expected to play roles, primary spermatocytes (SC1), secondary spermatocytes (SC2), and round spermatids (RS), isolated from Zfy1 KO, Zfy2 KO, and Zfy DKO males, and performed RNA sequencing analyses on 48 different samples. Significantly altered transcriptomes were observed for all germ cell types from Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO males. In-depth analyses of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) supported that loss of Zfy altered pathways relating to spermatogenesis, DNA packaging/chromatin organization, and apoptosis. Alternative splicing was also found deregulated in Zfy KO mouse models, affecting pathways relating to sperm function and chromatin regulation. The in-silico findings were confirmed by showing DNA damage in testicular male germ cells, defects in post-meiotic chromatin remodeling and abnormal chromatin packaging in sperm from Zfy DKO males, and severely impaired sperm function in vitro with Zfy2 KO males. The data provide insights into Zfy roles in male reproduction and guide ongoing attempts to discover the roles of the human ZFY ortholog in vivo.

RESULTS

Large-scale RNA sequencing analyses of the three Zfy KO models show that ZFY1 and ZFY2 regulate expression of thousands of genes in meiotic and postmeiotic cells

To be able to study and compare Zfy1 KO, Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO models, we first backcrossed them to C57BL/6 for at least 10 generations using breeding and assisted reproduction since Zfy DKO are infertile. The currently proposed functions of mouse Zfy include a role in MSCI and apoptosis in primary spermatocytes, completion of meiosis in secondary spermatocytes, and chromatin remodeling, spermatid elongation, and flagellum formation in round spermatids (Fig. 1A) ([3] and reviewed by [1]). We aimed to identify the molecular consequences of Zfy1 and/or Zfy2 loss by looking at the spermatogenesis stages where these phenotypes manifest in the testis in the three Zfy KO models. We focused our analysis on three key germ cell stages: meiotic primary spermatocytes (SC1), meiotic secondary spermatocytes (SC2), and post-meiotic round spermatids (RS) (Fig. 1A). SC1, SC2, and

RS, were isolated from XY, Zfy1 KO, Zfy2 KO, and Zfy DKO males with a purity of at least 90% using FACs sorting (Fig. 1B–D) and bulk RNA-seq analyses were performed on these cell populations. Altogether, the analysis of transcriptome data was performed using 48 different samples originating from 3 different germ cell types and 4 different mouse genotypes, for a total of 1.6 billion reads (Fig. 1E, Fig. S1, Table S1). Principal component analysis (PCA) showed that most significant transcriptional changes were due to the cell type, with SC2 transcriptome being closer to RS than to SC1 (Fig. 2A and S2A, B). Substantial changes in gene expression were also observed for Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO compared to XY samples, and more subtle transcriptional changes were observed for Zfy1 KO samples (Fig. 2A; Fig. S2A, B).

Differential expression analyses comparing KO and XY samples within each germ cell types (fold change, FC > 1.5, FDR < 0.05) showed that for Zfy DKO, 1272 differentially regulated genes (DEGs) were detected for SC1, 283 for SC2, and 3407 for RS (Fig. 2B; Fig. S2C). A larger number of DEGs was observed for Zfy2 KO for all three cell types, with 2905 for SC1, 1463 for SC2, and 5299 for RS (Fig. 2B; Fig. S2C). Only a handful of DEGs were observed in Zfy1 KO, with 1 for SC1, 0 for SC2, and 157 for RS (Fig. 2B; Fig. S2C). Except for Zfy DKO SC1 and SC2, more DEGs were upregulated rather than downregulated (Fig. 2B). To detect minimal transcriptional changes in Zfy1 KO, we also performed a less stringent analysis (FC > 1.5, p < 0.05) to detect DEGs "approaching" significant de-regulation. For Zfy1 KO, 1415 deregulated genes were detected for SC1, 1009 for SC2, and 2024 for RS (Fig. S2C). For Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO, thousands of deregulated genes were detected for all three cell types, with larger transcriptional changes observed in RS compared to SC1 and SC2.

Overall, these data support that the loss of *Zfy2*, and both *Zfy1* and *Zfy2*, leads to extensive transcriptomic changes, while the loss of *Zfy1* alone causes only minor gene expression changes.

Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO have both common and unique sets of DEGs

We compared the DEGs found in all three models (FC > 1.5, FDR < 0.05) and found that many DEGs detected in Zfy2 KO were unique and not present in Zfy DKO (Fig. 2C). To assess the correlation in transcriptional changes between the three Zfy KO models, we performed scatterplot analysis of DEGs (Fig. S3). Overall, the correlation was higher between Zfy DKO and Zfy2 KO than between Zfy2 DKO and Zfy1 KO in SC1 and RS. However, the correlation between Zfy1 KO and Zfy2 KO was higher than when Zfy1 KO and Zfy2 KO were compared with Zfy DKO in DEGs downregulated in SC2 (r = 0.90 vs. 0.40, Fig. S3Biv and r = 0.53 vs. 0.30, Fig. S3Bvi). Since ZFY protein belongs to ZFX family [2], we also specifically looked whether other Zfx related genes are deregulated to identify potential compensation mechanisms. Interestingly, we found that Zfx is downregulated in SC1 and SC2 from Zfy2 KO (FC > 1.5, p < 0.05, not adjusted), while Zfp711 is significantly upregulated in Zfy DKO RS.

Loss of both Zfy1 and Zfy2 deregulates sex chromosomeencoded genes

We next examined the distribution of DEGs across chromosomes. The mean Log_2 fold change of all X and Y-encoded genes compared to all autosomal genes was calculated and confirmed a global upregulation of X and Y genes in *Zfy* DKO SC1, SC2 and RS cells (Fig. 2D). When considering the total number of de-regulated X/Y genes, a significant number (15.3%) of all sex-linked genes were up-regulated (FC > 1.5, FDR < 0.05) in *Zfy* DKO RS cells, whereas only a small number (1.0%) of sex-linked genes were down-regulated (Fig. 2E). Among genes approaching significant de-regulation (FC > 1.5, p < 0.05), many up-regulated sex-linked genes were identified for SC1 and SC2 as well as for RS (Fig. S4A). Upregulation of individual sex-linked genes was also detected

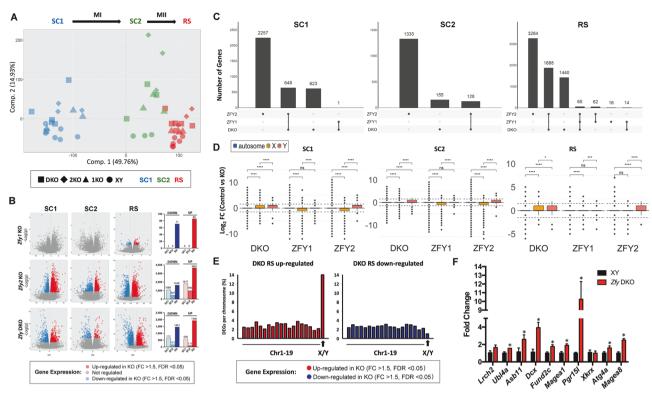


Fig. 2 Significantly altered transcriptomes were observed for Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO germ cells. A Principal component analysis (PCA) comparing transcriptomes of XY, Zfy1 KO, Zfy2 KO, and Zfy DKO primary spermatocytes (SC1), secondary spermatocytes (SC2), and round spermatids (RS). Samples clustered according to the cell type before genotype, with SC2 samples being closer to RS than to SC1. The code for cell type and genotype is as indicated. MI = Meiosis 1; MII = Meiosis 2; 1KO, Zfy1 KO; 2KO, Zfy2 KO; DKO, Zfy DKO; and XY, wild-type male of same genetic background. B Volcano plots and bar graphs showing the differentially expressed genes (DEGs) identified by RNA-seq for SC1, SC2, and RS, Zfy1 KO, Zfy2 KO, or Zfy DKO vs XY. FC = fold change, $-\log(p) = -\log_2$ of FDR-adjusted p value, LFC = \log_2 fold change. C UpSet plot showing overlap (shown as lines connecting filled cells) of DEGs (FC > 1.5, FDR < 0.05) for all KO models and cell types. **D** Boxplot distributions showing the mean Log₂ FC of autosomal genes compared to X and Y genes. Significant increases were observed between X or Y genes compared to autosomes in all cell types from DKO, while downregulation of X genes was observed in SC1 and SC2 from Zfy1 KO and Zfy2 KO, and in RS from Zfy1 KO. Box: 25th/75th percentiles. Bar in the box: median. Whiskers: 1.5 times the interquartile range from the 25th/ 75th percentiles. Dashed lines: 1.5-fold change in increase in percentiles. Dashed lines: 1.5-fold change in increase in percentiles. Dashed lines: 1.5-fold change in increase in percentiles. Benjamini-Hochberg correction (*: p < 0.05, **: p < 0.005, ****: p < 0.0005, rs: non-significant. **E** Zfy DKO up-regulated (red) and downregulated (blue) DEGs (FC > 1.5, FDR < 0.05) listed by chromosome for DKO RS cells. Percentage of DEGs per total gene number on each chromosome (mouse autosomal chromosomes, Chr1-19, and sex chromosomes, XY. F qPCR of sex-linked genes in XY (black) and Zfy DKO (red) whole testes, with the geometric mean of *Ppia*, *Rsp18*, and *Rplp0* used as a reference. Graphs are $n = 3 \pm \text{SEM}$. Significant changes (p < 0.05) are shown with an asterisk.

with RT-qPCR in *Zfy* DKO testes for eight out of ten genes that were selected from the pilot RNA-seq DEGs (Fig. 2F) and in purified round spermatids from *Zfy* DKO males (Fig. S5A).

We looked at the expression dynamics of these X/Y-linked DEGs throughout wild-type meiosis and MSCI to determine if they are expressed before MSCI or only after, in RS. We found that a majority of X/Y upregulated genes in Zfy DKO RS are predominantly RS-expressed genes (i.e., not or poorly expressed in primary spermatocytes) while ~a third is expressed in spermatogonia and in early spermatocytes (at the leptotene stage). This category of genes is shut down at the pachytene stage by MSCI and is not reactivated in RS (Fig. S6). X/Y-linked upregulated genes in Zfy DKO SC1 had similar dynamics (i.e., a mix of RS-enriched genes and MSCI shut down genes) indicating that Zfy DKO germ cells fail to silence X/Y gene expression at the pachytene stage but also leads to premature expression of RS-enriched genes (Fig. S6).

Surprisingly, global downregulation of X-linked genes was observed for Zfy2 KO SC1 and SC2, as well as for Zfy1 KO SC1, SC2, and RS (Fig. 2D). When considering the percentage of sex-linked genes downregulated, no noticeable trend was observed in Zfy2 KO germ cells (Fig. S4B). However, for Zfy1 KO, several sex-linked genes approaching significant downregulation (FC > 1.5, p < 0.05) were observed in SC1 and SC2 (respectively, 88 DEG for SC1 and

66 for SC2) (Fig. S4C). We measured expression for eight of these genes (*Slc16a2*, *Ids*, *Nhs*, *Hdac6*, *Acsl4*, *Tspyl2*, *Tsr2*, and *Diaph2*) in whole testes from all genotypes, and did not observe any significant changes in expression except for slight downregulation of *Diaph2* in *Zfy2* KO testis (Fig. S7). The downregulation of *Zfy1* KO sex-linked genes may reflect more subtle transcriptional changes specific to germ cells.

Together, these data show that loss of *Zfy* results in deregulation of sex-linked genes in meiotic and postmeiotic cells.

Loss of *Zfy2* and both *Zfy1* and *Zfy2* leads to upregulation of chromatin-related pathways in round spermatids

To identify biological functions of genes that are deregulated in *Zfy* KO mice, we performed pathway enrichment analysis (PEA) and gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA). PEA identifies which pathways are enriched among DEGs but also considers non-regulated genes to account for bias [24]. GSEA provides complementary results as it finds overrepresented gene sets by considering all genes in relation to their expression level [25]. Additionally, gene ontology (GO) analysis was also performed to identify overexpression GO terms. A complete summary of all data is shown in Tables S2–S8.

During spermiogenesis, as round spermatids transform into sperm, a major chromatin reorganization takes place which results in the replacement of most histones by protamines and in the extreme compaction of the sperm genome [26]. Here, using both PEA, GO analysis, and GSEA, we observed upregulation of DNA packaging/chromatin pathways in round spermatids from Zfy KO males. PEA and GO analysis revealed that chromatin-remodeling and nucleosome processes were enriched in upregulated Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO RS DEGs (FC > 1.5, FDR < 0.05) (Fig. 3A-C and Tables S2 and S3). PEA using ClusterProfiler showed that "histone binding" ranked among the three upregulated molecular functions for both Zfy DKO (Fig. 3A) and Zfy2 KO (Fig. 3B) RS, and gene network plot analysis revealed that histone binding pathways were clustered closely with modification and methylationdependent protein binding pathways (Fig. 3C). GSEA found that two out of four significantly upregulated pathways in Zfy DKO RS were related to chromatin structure: GOMF-STRUCTURAL-CONSTI-TUENT-OF-CHROMATIN and GOCC-NUCLEOSOME (Fig. 3D, E, Table S4). Only two upregulated pathways that were not related to DNA-packaging were identified for Zfy2 KO RS (GOMF-TRACE-AMINE-RECEPTOR-ACTIVITY and GOMF-TYPE I- INTERFERON-RECEPTOR-BINDING; Table S4). Upregulation of individual genes from chromatin-related pathways was also detected with RT-qPCR in purified round spermatids from Zfy DKO males (Fig. S5B).

We next performed motif enrichment analysis (MEA) to find potential co-regulators via the identification of binding motifs enriched in the sequence of each DEG group [27]. For each identified motif we attempted to produce a viable model of ZFY binding to the motif sequence in presence of a zinc cofactor using Alphafold3 modeling [28]. MEA detected two significantly enriched motifs for upregulated Zfy DKO DEGs, with the human genes HOXC12 and HMBOX1 predicted to be the top transcription factor matches for each motif (Fig. S8A). The mouse ortholog of HMBOX1, Hmbox1, is expressed at low levels in round spermatids (Fig. S8B) although its function in male germ cell DNA packaging is unknown. The mouse ortholog of *HOXC12* is not expressed in the male germline (Fig. S8B). However, another gene from the HOXC cluster, Hoxc9, is expressed strongly in round spermatids and was also identified as a potential match for this motif (Fig. S9A, B). With this motif, we were able to produce a stronger in-silico modeling for ZFY1 and ZFY2 binding to this motif in the presence of a zinc co-factor than for the other motifs (Fig. S9C, D). This modeling was shown to have a higher degree of confidence than a previously identified motif for human ZFX [2] (Fig. S9E) and was used to visualize ZFY interaction with the motif DNA helix (Fig. S9F).

Six motifs were significantly enriched in *Zfy2* KO upregulated DEGs (Fig. S8C), five of which have gene candidates with mouse orthologs expressed in round spermatid: *Zfp105*, *Zfp809*, *Tead2*, *Sox17*, and *Elf1* (Fig. S8D). For *Zfy1* KO RS, PEA did not identify any enriched pathway. GO analysis identified pathways related to DNA replication and DNA binding, but none directly related to chromatin reorganization, as significantly upregulated (File S1). GSEA did not find upregulated gene sets in *Zfy1* KO RS, and MEA did not identify any significantly enriched motifs among downregulated *Zfy1* KO RS DEGs.

These findings suggest that loss of both *Zfy1* and *Zfy2*, and potentially loss of *Zfy2* alone, causes changes in expression of genes that could be involved in regulation of chromatin reorganization during spermatogenesis.

Loss of Zfy2 or of both Zfy1 and Zfy2 leads to defects in postmeiotic chromatin remodeling and abnormal chromatin packaging in epididymal sperm

During spermiogenesis, spermatid chromatin undergoes specific reorganization and compaction as most histones are removed and replaced with protamines. Spermatozoa are expected to have compact, protamine-bound chromatin. Because our data indicated alterations in expression of genes involved in chromatin

reorganization resulting from Zfy loss, we tested chromatin compaction in cauda epididymal sperm from Zfy1 KO, Zfy2 KO, and Zfy DKO males, and compared to sperm from wild-type XY controls. Two assays were employed, chromomycin-A3 (CMA3) staining and aniline blue staining. CMA3 is a fluorochrome that binds to the minor groove in DNA. Sperm heads that stain positive for CMA3 have protamine deficiencies and improperly condensed chromatin [29, 30]. Zfy DKO and Zfy2 KO males produced higher number of CMA3 positive sperm than controls (Fig. 3F, G). Aniline blue stains the positive lysine residue on histones; positive aniline staining on sperm suggests histone retention and inefficient histone-to protamine transition [31, 32]. More than one-third of sperm from Zfv DKO spermatozoa stained positive for aniline blue (Fig. 3H, I). Zfy2 KO males had more aniline blue positive sperm when compared to Zfy1 KO but not when compared to XY (Fig. 3I). Sperm from Zfy1 KO males did not differ from XY in either test (Fig. 3F-I).

Sperm chromatin is bound by protamines (PRMs) and presence of histones is limited. The ratio between PRM1 and PRM2 is constant in mature sperm [33, 34] and its alterations are known to be associated with sperm defects and infertility (reviewed in [35, 36]). We examined protamine content in sperm from Zfy DKO males and controls. Concomitant to the striking accumulation of pre-PRM2 bands exclusively present in Zfy DKO males (Fig. 4Ai-ii, Fig. S10), PRM1/PRM2 ratio was altered in Zfy DKO showing a decrease of PRM2 relative to PRM1 (Fig. 4Aiii, P < 0.01). Zfy1 KO showed a significant but not very strong decrease of PRM1/PRM2 ratio (P < 0.05) when compared to XY while Zfy2 KO showed a decrease that did not reach significance (P = 0.08). The median PRM1/PRM2 was lower in Zfy2 KO than Zfy1 KO, which would indicate stronger chromatin defects. The lack of significance is likely due to the variability between three Zfy2 KO samples.

Histone variants and transition proteins (TNPs) are transiently expressed in spermatids and are essential for correct reorganization and compaction of sperm genome with protamines. Histone H4 becomes highly acetylated (AcH4) in spermatids and this hyperacetylation is a crucial step that precedes and facilitates replacement of histones with histone variants, transition proteins and protamines (reviewed in [37]). Alterations in expression of genes involved in chromatin reorganization resulting from *Zfy* loss suggested that post-meiotic chromatin remodeling process is altered in *Zfy* KO males. By immunofluorescence on testicular sections, we observed that both AcH4 and TNPs signals were weaker and patchy in *Zfy* DKO testes compared to the specific and dynamic pattern observed in XY testes (Fig. 4B, C).

Together, the data support that sperm from *Zfy* DKO and *Zfy2* KO have poorly packaged chromatin likely resulting from impairments in histone-to-protamine exchange during spermiogenesis.

Loss of Zfy leads to downregulation of spermatogenesisrelated pathways in male germ cells

As round spermatids differentiate into mature spermatozoa, they undergo a series of morphological changes during which organelles are remodeled, and sperm head/tail development commences. Previously, we have shown that Zfy genes are required for normal spermiogenesis progression [13, 15]. Surprisingly, reproduction pathways were not among the most strongly deregulated pathways in Zfy KO RS (Table S4). To determine if ZFY regulates spermiogenesis via subtle transcriptional changes, we reduced the fold change threshold and performed PEA using all significantly deregulated genes regardless of expression value. These analyses revealed that processes related to sperm motility, flagellum assembly, cilium organization, manchette, and axoneme assembly were enriched in downregulated Zfy DKO RS DEGs (Fig. 5A-D; Table S5 and S6). Bar plot analysis confirmed significant enrichment of spermiogenesis and motility related pathways (Fig. 5A). Phylogenetic analysis of enriched pathways showed that

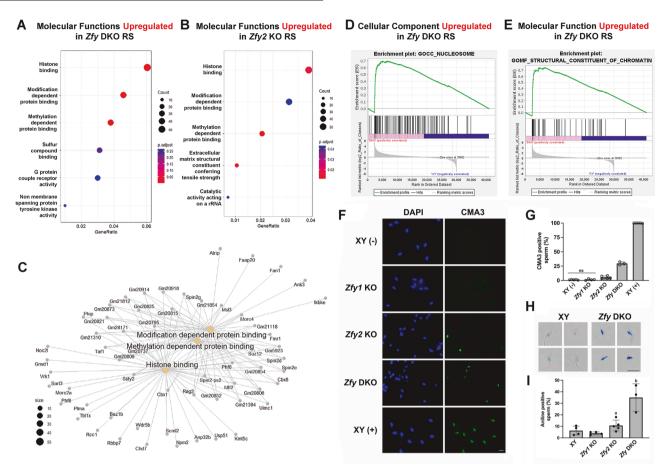


Fig. 3 Chromatin-related pathways are upregulated in *Zfy* KO round spermatids with consequences for sperm chromatin packaging. Dot plots for **A** *Zfy* DKO and **B** *Zfy2* KO showing upregulated Molecular Functions in RS DEGs (FC > 1.5, FDR < 0.05). The EnrichR function in ClusterProfiler was used to detect enriched pathways for *Zfy* KO DEGs. **C** CNET plot generated from ClusterProfiler, showing the gene composition of each Molecular Function pathway upregulated in *Zfy* DKO RS. **D**, **E** Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) results showing significant enrichment (FDR < 0.05) of DNA-packaging gene sets in *Zfy* DKO RS. For each pathway, enrichment plots depict graphical view of the enrichment score of each gene. **F-I** Chromatin deficiencies in *Zfy* KO sperm. **F** Exemplary images of CMA3 stained sperm from *Zfy1* KO, *Zfy2* KO and *Zfy* DKO males. XY (-) are sperm from wild-type males (negative control) and XY (+) are sperm from wild-type males treated with 2 mM DTT and 0.5% Triton to destabilize sperm chromatin (positive control). Scale, 10 µm. **G** Percentage of CMA3 positive sperm for each genotype. Data are shown as average ±SDev, with replicate data as empty circles, and with n = 5 for XY(+), XY(-) and *Zfy2* KO, n = 4 for *Zfy1* KO, and n = 3 for *Zfy* DKO. For each male 200 sperm were analyzed and scored as either positive or negative. Statistical analysis (*t*-test performed on angles): each group different from each other except XY(-) and *Zfy1* KO. H: Exemplary images of wild-type (XY) and *Zfy* DKO sperm heads stained with aniline blue. Scale, 10 µm. **I** Percentage of aniline positive sperm for each genotype. Data are shown as average ±SDev, with replicate data as filled circles, and with n = 5 for *Zfy2* KO, n = 4 for XY and *Zfy1* KO, and n = 3 for *Zfy* DKO males. For each male 200 sperm were analyzed and scored as either positive (dark blue) or negative (light blue or clear). Statistical analysis (*t*-test performed on angles): ^a different than *Zfy1* KO; ^b different than all other.

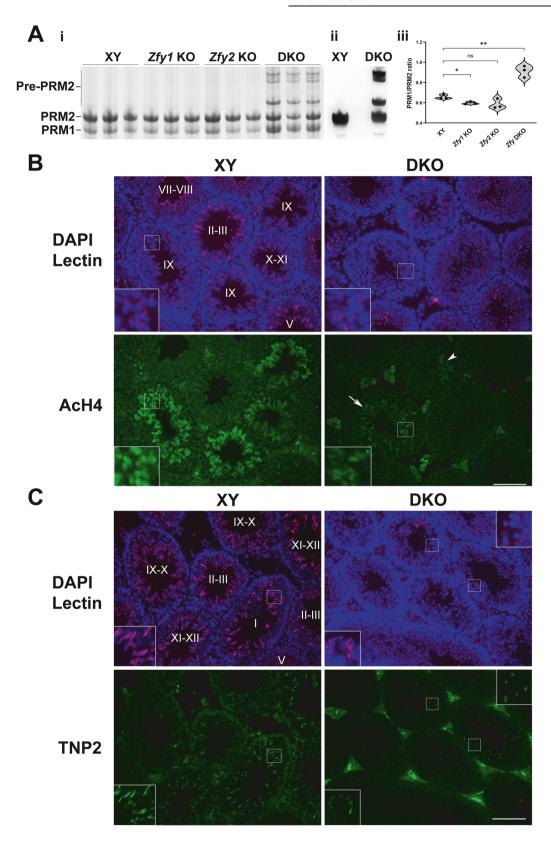
the "assembly" pathways (sperm flagellum, axoneme, and motile cilium) were clustered separately from the "motility" pathways (sperm, cilium movement, microtubule based, flagellum-dependent) (Fig. 5B). However, analysis with enrichment map and gene concept networks confirmed that these spermiogenesis pathways are still interrelated and share many common genes (Fig. 5C, D). Downregulation of sperm motility pathways was not observed when performing GSEA (Table S2). Upregulation of individual genes from spermatogenesis-related pathways was also detected with RT-qPCR in purified round spermatids from *Zfy* DKO males (Fig. S5C).

To identify potential ZFY co-regulators, we used MEA to detect enriched motifs among Zfy DKO RS downregulated DEGs. We found three significantly enriched motifs, with Meis1 (Mus Musculus), POU3F4 (Homo Sapiens) and ZNF35 (Homo Sapiens) identified as the top transcription factor candidates for these three motifs (Fig. S8E). Like Zfy2, both ZNF35 gene and its mouse ortholog, Zfp105, are expressed in round spermatids (Fig. S8E). Meis1 is only expressed at low levels in the male germline, and

Pou3f4 is not expressed significantly in the male germline (Fig. S8F).

For Zfy2 KO RS, GO analysis found downregulated pathways that were related to general cellular function and not spermatogenesis (Table S7), and GSEA identified only one downregulated gene set (GOMF-PHEROMONE-ACTIVITY, Table S4). MEA found five motifs significantly enriched in Zfy2 KO downregulated DEGs, and identified Hnf4a (Mus Musculus), Prdm15 (Mus Musculus), PAX5 (Homo Sapiens), Zbtb14 (Mus Musculus), and ETS (Homo Sapiens) as the top transcription factor candidates for these motifs (Fig. S8G). Neither Hnf4a nor Zbtb14 are expressed significantly in RS (Fig. S8H). Prdm15, as well as Pax5 and Ets1 (mouse homologs for PAX5 and ETS, respectively) are expressed only at low levels in RS and do not have annotated functions in spermatogenesis (Fig. S8H).

For Zfy1 KO RS, PEA did not identify any downregulated pathways, and GO analysis revealed that only non-reproduction pathways were downregulated (File S1). GSEA found just four downregulated gene sets: GOBP-RESPONSE-TO-PHENYL-ALANINE,



GOMF-TRIPLET-CODON-AMINO-ACID-ADAPTOR-ACTIVITY, GOMF-PHEROMONE-ACTIVITY, and GOMF-PORE-FORMING-ACTIVITY (Table S4). MEA failed to identify any significant among down-regulated *Zfy1* KO DEGs.

Collectively, these data suggest that loss of both Zfy homologs results in downregulation of spermiogenesis-related pathways in round spermatids but losing a single Zfy gene does not produce this effect.

Fig. 4 Zfy loss leads to defects of post-meiotic chromatin remodeling. A Protamine content in sperm from Zfy KO males. i Coomassie blue-stained acid urea polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (AU-PAGE) of cauda epididymal sperm basic nuclear protein extracts from XY, Zfy1 KO, Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO (DKO) males (n = 3 per genotype). PRM1, protamine 1; PRM2, protamine 2, pre-PRM2, precursor forms of PRM2. ii Acidic Western blot using anti-PRM2 antibody confirming identity of PRM2 and pre-PRM2. iii Quantification of PRM1/PRM2 ratio related to (A). PRM1/PRM2 ratios are expressed in arbitrary units. Statistical analysis (unpaired t-test): *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01. B, C Immunofluorescence detection of proteins involved in chromatin remodeling in testis sections from wild-type (XY) and Zfy DKO (DKO) males. Hoechst (blue) was used to stain nuclei and Lectin (red) was used to stain acrosome. In DKO, spermatogenesis is severely disturbed, and tubules could not be staged. Only few elongated spermatids could be seen, and these were morphologically abnormal. Punctuated and dispersed lectin pattern indicated disturbances of acrosome development. Insets, 3x magnification. Scale, $100 \mu m$. B Immunofluorescence detection of acetylated histone AcH4 (green). In XY, acH4 first appeared and was strongly expressed in the elongating spermatids St19 (stage IX), expression weakened in elongating spermatids St10-11 and was not seen in more advanced spermatids St12-16. In DKO, AcH4 expression was weaker (arrow, inset) and patchy (arrowhead). C Immunofluorescence detection of TNP2 (green). In XY, TNP2 expression was first seen in elongating spermatids St11-12 (stage XI-XII), appeared the strongest in St13 (stage I), decreased in St14 (stage II-III), and was no longer seen in St15. TNP2 was not seen in round spermatids (St1-8, stages I to VIII) and early elongating spermatids (St9-10; stage IX-X). In DKO TNP2 expression was observed in elongated spermatids but seemed weaker than in XY (XY vs. DKO, bottom insets). Strong green signal was

Sperm from Zfy DKO males are poorly motile and sperm from Zfy2 KO males display poor in vitro fertilization potential

The deregulation of spermiogenesis pathways was only observed with Zfy DKO RS. This matches with our prior report showing that Zfy DKO males are completely infertile and have severe spermatogenesis defects [14]. Although we did not observe deregulation of spermatogenesis pathways with single Zfy KO mice, prior phenotype characterization showed that Zfy1 KO males were fertile, while loss of Zfy2 led to some fertility impairment evidenced as decreased litter size, decreased testis size and increased incidence of morphologically abnormal sperm [14]. Since our first characterization of Zfy KO mice [14] Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO males were backcrossed to C57BL/6 genetic background and we therefore revisited the spermiogenic phenotype for all Zfy KO models. Both Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO males had decreased testis size, decreased sperm number, and sloughed round cells in cauda epididymides, with Zfy2 KO phenotype less severe than that of Zfy DKO (Fig. 5E). Sperm from Zfy DKO males had drastically low total sperm motility (Fig. 5E, F). Moreover, quantification of specific motility types revealed that all sperm from Zfy DKO males displayed non-progressive motility while most sperm from wildtype XY males moved progressively (Fig. 5G, Movies M1 and M2). Finally, when assessing sperm function, we observed a severe impairment in sperm ability to fertilize oocyte in vitro for Zfy2 KO males, and not for Zfy1 KO males (Fig. 5H); Zfy DKO males were not tested as their sperm have been shown before to be unable to fertilize oocytes in vitro on their own [14].

The new Zfy DKO phenotypic data are in par with the in-silico findings showing deregulation of spermatogenesis specific genes and pathways with this genotype. This is not true for Zfy2 KO, for which subfertility and some spermiogenesis defects are not linked to spermatogenesis-related DEGs and pathways. Nevertheless, the data confirm and extend previous conclusion that loss of Zfy2 and Zfy DKO affects fertility and prompts future investigations aiming to link identified DEGs with this phenotype.

Loss of Zfy leads to upregulation of apoptotic genes in SC1 and SC2 cells and increased germ cell apoptosis

In contrast to RS, many enriched pathways and gene sets identified in SC1 and SC2 were related to general cellular function and not reproduction-specific pathways (Tables S4, 5; File S1). GSEA found only a handful of enriched gene sets in *Zfy1* KO SC1 and SC2 (Table S4). To conduct a more comprehensive investigation of deregulated pathways in *Zfy* KO germ cells, we performed GSEA using all databases (mouse hallmark database, mh.all). During meiosis, *Zfy* have been shown before to regulate apoptotic checkpoints which eliminate chromosomally aberrant spermatocytes [9, 10]. Enrichment of genes related to apoptosis (HALLMARK-APOPTOSIS) was observed with *Zfy1* KO, *Zfy2* KO, and *Zfy* DKO SC1 and SC2 (Table S8). GSEA enrichment plots (Fig. 6A) demonstrated that a

disproportionate number of genes related to apoptosis were upregulated in *Zfy* KO SC1 and SC2. Several pathways implicated in modulating apoptosis were also enriched in *Zfy* KO spermatocytes: HALLMARK-P53-PATHWAY, HALLMARK-TGF-BETA-SIGNALING, and HALLMARK-KRAS-SIGNALING-UP (Table S8). Upregulation of individual genes from apoptosis-related pathways was also detected with RT-qPCR in purified primary and secondary spermatocytes from *Zfy* DKO males (Fig. S5D). The most strongly upregulated gene was an apoptosis regulator gene *Bcl2l*; immunofluorescence analysis of testis sections demonstrated that BCL2L protein level was higher in testes from *Zfy* DKO as compared to XY (Fig. S11).

Because Zfy regulates apoptotic checkpoints, and because upregulation of apoptosis-related genes was observed in Zfy KO spermatocytes, we performed terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase dUTP nick end labeling (TUNEL) staining to test for DNA damage and apoptosis in testis sections. Zfy DKO males had significantly more apoptotic germ cells in seminiferous tubules than XY controls (Fig. 6B). The results of TUNEL assay were quantified to assess the frequency of seminiferous tubules containing apoptotic cells and the frequency of apoptotic cells per tubule. Only few apoptotic cells could be found in some of the tubules from XY males and their staining intensity was low. Zfy1 KO males resembled XY. Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO males had more than 60% and 90% of seminiferous tubules containing apoptotic germ cells: leptotene and zygotene spermatocytes and meiosis I and II cells, based on their locations in the seminiferous epithelium and tubule stage. These two genotypes also had more apoptotic cells per tubule, and staining intensity was stronger (Fig. 6C, D).

Together, the data show that loss of *Zfy* leads to testicular germ cell death and confirm critical role of *Zfy* in regulation of apoptosis during spermatogenesis.

Loss of Zfy deregulates the splicing of hundreds of genes

Alternative splicing has been shown to be particularly dynamic during spermatogenesis [38]. Making use of our large RNA-seq datasets, we investigated this process in Zfy KO models. Using a dedicated splicing-detection tool rMATS (with a differential percent spliced-in >10%), we found several thousand of alternative splicing events concerning at least 2700 genes in all Zfv KO models, whatever the cell stage (Fig. S12A). Interestingly, Zfy1 itself was found differentially spliced in Zfy2 KO RS versus XY RS. Specifically, Zfy1 exon 4 was found more retained, while a small region in the 5' UTR (corresponding to exon 2b) was found more frequently skipped in Zfy2 KO RS (Fig. S12B, C). In parallel, we used a more stringent approach, which consists of integrating rMATS output with that of a different splicing-detection tool Whippet (with a differential percent spliced-in >10%). This analysis showed several hundreds of genes with at least one alternative splicing event that were deregulated in Zfy KO SC1, SC2 and RS

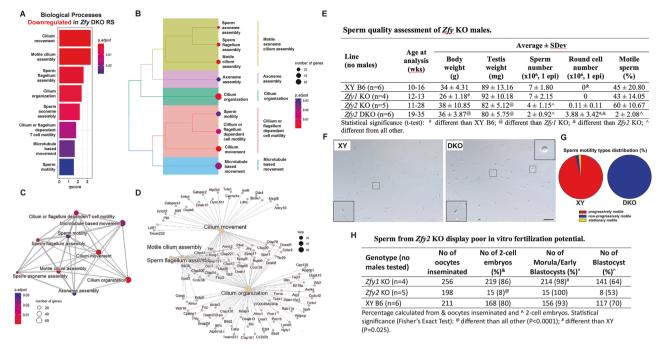


Fig. 5 Spermatogenesis-related pathways are downregulated in round spermatids from Zfy KO with consequences for sperm quality and function in vitro. A–D The EnrichR function in ClusterProfiler was used to detect enriched biological processes for DEGs (fold change > 1, FDR < 0.05) downregulated in Zfy DKO RS. A Bar graph showing all significantly downregulated biological processes in Zfy DKO RS. p adjust = adjusted p value. B Tree plot showing the phylogenetic relationship between downregulated biological processes. C Enrichment map of downregulated biological processes. D Gene-concept network showing the gene composition and overlap of the top four downregulated biological processes. E–H Sperm quality and function. E Sperm quality assessment for wild-type control (XY), Zfy1 KO, Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO males. F Exemplary phase contrast image of live sperm from XY control and Zfy DKO male. XY sample shows morphologically normal sperm (inset) that appear with high density while Zfy DKO sample shows few severely abnormal sperm (bottom inset) and many round cells (top inset). Insets, x3 magnification. Scale, 50 µm. G Sperm motility type distribution. Progressively motile sperm move fast following a linear trajectory; non-progressively motile sperm change location but move slowly, often in circles and do not progress far in distance; stationary motile sperm do not change location but display tail beating or twitching head movement. The data are average of 3 XY and 3 Zfy DKO males tested. H The results of in vitro fertilization performed with XY, Zfy1 KO and Zfy2 KO sperm. IVF data with Zfy DKO was reported before; no fertilization was observed under any conditions tested [14].

compared to XY samples (Fig. 7A–C). For both analyses, most events were alternatively spliced exons, which were upregulated in *Zfy* KO versus XY, while alternatively retained introns represented between 10 to 30% of events (Fig. 7A and Fig. S12A). When we compared the differentially spliced genes with DEGs, very few were in common (Fig. 7B and Fig S12D), however, similar pathways were found enriched as shown with GO analyses (Fig. S13) indicating that splicing deregulation could also contribute to *Zfy* KO phenotypes. Deregulation of individual genes that were detected as deregulated using RNA-seq and that were also among genes detected as differentially spliced was confirmed with qPCR in purified round spermatids from *Zfy* DKO males (Fig. S5E). The actual splicing event of an exemplary gene from this group was confirmed with the same method (Fig. 7D).

ZFY regulates apoptosis genes in human cell culture but does not specifically target sex-linked genes

After completing the bioinformatics analysis exploring the indirect regulatory targets of endogenous *Zfy* using the *Zfy* KO models, we next performed transient overexpression assays with *ZFY* constructs and human embryonic kidney (HEK293) cells. As spermatocytes and spermatids do not proliferate in culture, and do not readily take up and express transfected constructs, the experiments with HEK293 cells allowed us to identify the direct regulatory targets of *ZFY*. Additionally, they allowed us to see if the *ZFY* mechanisms of regulation were specific to the murine male germline or if these functions were conserved across different cell types and species. Our goal was also to look at the immediate/early consequences of *ZFY* activity in vitro, expanding over the analyses of functional consequences of *Zfy* loss

in vivo, in the testis. Transient overexpression assays are typically used to explore the direct, as opposed to indirect regulatory targets of transcription factors. We prepared N-terminally tagged constructs expressing full-length human ZFY in a pCDNA3.1 backbone, under the control of the CMV promoter, and transfected these into HEK293 cells. Equivalent results were obtained with both N-terminal HA tag and N-terminal GFP tags: for brevity we focus on the latter here. For this comparison, overexpression of free EGFP from pEGFP-N1 was used as a control for the effects of the transfection process (Fig.8A, B). Forty-eight hours post-transfection, a pairwise comparison of DEGs between pCDNA3.1/ZFY-GFP and pEGFP-N1 showed that 10.22% of all genes were significantly up-regulated by at least two-fold by ZFY overexpression, and 3.97% of all genes were significantly down-regulated by at least two-fold. The preponderance of overexpressed genes agrees with a net activatory role for ZFY, either mediated through direct promoter activity or some broader effect on opening of chromatin.

HEK293 is a female cell line (i.e., ZFY null) and thus the comparison of transfected to non-transfected cells is most closely analogous to the DKO mouse data, in which there was a striking upregulation of sex-linked genes in both SC1 and RS cells. This was not observed in the HEK293 data set. While the magnitude of change for the most highly regulated genes did differ between autosomes and X chromosome, this applied to both up- and downregulation, with autosomal up-regulated genes in general showing slightly higher fold changes (Fig. 8C, D). To search for commonalities between the data sets, after matching orthologous genes, we intersected the DEG lists for each mouse germ cell type with the HEK293 cell data, searching for genes that were concordantly regulated. Those that were upregulated in the transfection

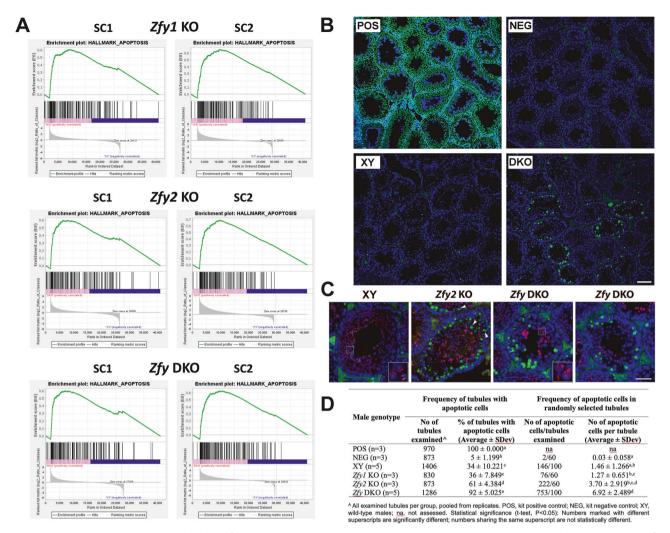


Fig. 6 Apoptosis gene sets are enriched in Zfy KO spermatocytes. A Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) results showing significant enrichment (FDR < 0.05%) of the hallmark apoptosis gene set in Zfy KO SC1 and SC2 cells. For each pathway, enrichment plots depict graphical view of the enrichment score of each gene. B-D TUNEL staining of Zfy KO males testis cross sections. Testis sections from Zfy1 KO, Zfy2 KO, Zfy DKO (DKO) and wild-type male serving as genotype control (XY) were examined for presence of apoptosis. Two 'assay controls' were included: sections from XY treated with DNA-se serving as a positive control (POS) and sections from XY stained in the absence of TdT enzyme serving as a negative control (NEG). B Exemplary images showing frequency of apoptotic cells in DKO and XY, with POS and NEG serving as assay controls. Cell nuclei are stained with DAPI (blue) and apoptotic cells stain green. Scale, 100 µm. C Exemplary higher magnification images of selected tubules from XY, Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO males. Cell nuclei are stained with DAPI (blue), acrosomes are stained with lectin (red), and apoptotic cells stain green. Lectin staining enables observations of the acrosome development. As acrosome develops, it is first seen as a round acrosomal vesicle (visible as a lectin-stained single large dot), then flattens and spreads over the round spermatid surface (seen as variable size semi-circle, see XY, inset) and then elongates along the dorsal side of elongating spermatid nucleus (see XY, inset). In DKO males, lectin staining pattern is abnormal, with many small, punctuated dots, indicative of the problems with acrosome development. A combined DAPI and lectin staining helps defining the stages of spermatogenesis and identification of germ cells in each tubule. Insets, 3x magnification. Scale, 50 µm. D Quantitative analysis of TUNEL assay data. To assess the frequency of tubules with apoptotic cells, all tubules in a single testis cross-section per male were examined. The average number of tubules per cross-section was 283 ± 35 , range 229-334. To assess the frequency of apoptotic cells within tubules, 20 tubules were randomly selected and apoptotic cells within counted.

experiment and downregulated in the knockout testes were termed Consistently Activated Genes (CAGs) and those with the opposite pattern were termed Consistently Repressed Genes (CRGs) (Fig. 8E). There was very high agreement between germ cell subtypes, so for downstream pathway analysis using Reactome, we focused on genes showing concordant regulation between transfected HEK293 cells and DKO round spermatids (larger font in Fig. 8E). CAGs (n=126) were significantly enriched for a set of pathways involved in cell-cell signaling, including IZUMO4 with a role in sperm-egg binding, and various other genes annotated as synaptic proteins. CRGs (n=62) showed significant enrichment for genes involved in the G1/S transition, DNA damage response and/or replicative stress (File S2).

DISCUSSION

In the present article, we investigated the molecular consequences of Zfy loss in male germ cells by performing large-scale comparative transcriptomic analyses. We found that loss of both Zfy1 and Zfy2, or loss of Zfy2 alone, significantly alters the male germ cell transcriptome, whereas loss of Zfy1 leads to only minor transcriptional changes. The strongest expression changes were observed in round spermatids, although de-regulated pathways were also identified in spermatocytes. In vitro analysis of cells expressing human ZFY confirmed that regulation of pathways related to apoptosis and cell cycle is conserved across species and cell types, whereas the regulation of sex-linked genes and spermiogenesis is confined to the male germline. Together, our

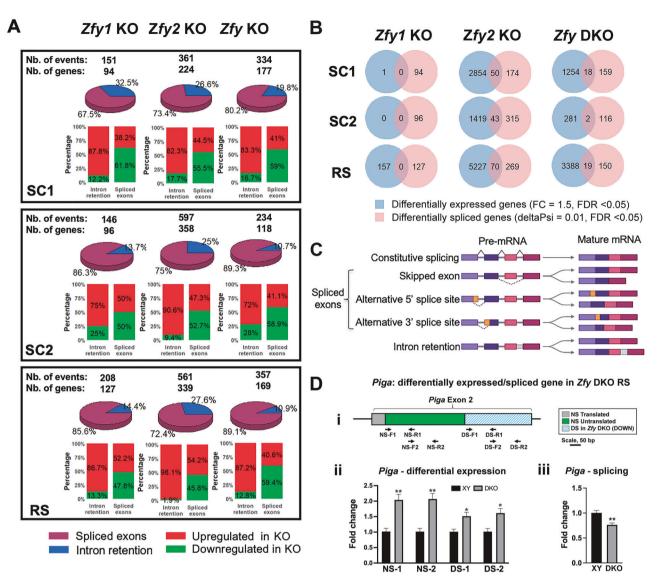


Fig. 7 Zfy loss deregulates the splicing of hundreds of transcripts. Comparisons are shown for Zfy1 KO, Zfy2 KO, and Zfy DKO against XY, across three germ cell types: primary spermatocytes (SC1), secondary spermatocytes (SC2), and round spermatids (RS). A Pie chart and bar graph representing the distribution of differential splicing events, with a threshold of deltaPSI = 10% and FDR < 0.05, identified by overlapping results from both rMATS and Whippet approaches. B Venn diagrams illustrating the overlap between differentially expressed genes (DEGs, with FC = 1.5, FDR < 0.05) and splicing-regulated genes (deltaPSI = 0.01, FDR < 0.05). C Types of splicing events. D Validation of splicing. i diagram of PCR strategy to detect differential splicing of Piga in round spermatid (RS) from Zfy DKO (DKO) males. Non-spliced (NS) coding regions are shown in green, NS non-coding regions in gray, and downregulated DS regions in crossed blue. Primer sequences are shown by arrows, with two primer pairs for the NS region and two primer pairs for the DS region. Each primer pair was used for quantitative RT-PCR, normalized to three reference genes (Ppia, Rsp18, and Rplp0). ii Results from qPCR for the four primer pairs shown in (i). The data are average ±SEM, with n = 4 males per genotype. A higher expression was seen with Zfy DKO RS (see Fig. S5E). However, the DS region showed lower levels than the NS region in DKO, suggesting that the alternatively spliced region is downregulated. iii The downregulation of the DS region was confirmed by dividing of the average of DS regions by the average of NS regions for each male. The data shown are averages ±SEM, with n = 4 males per genotype. Statistical significance (t-test): *t < 0.05; *t < 0.01.

data provide novel insights into how ZFY regulates various processes throughout meiosis and spermiogenesis.

Zfy loss alters pathways relating to DNA packaging and chromatin organization

We demonstrated that ZFY regulates genes that are critical for proper chromatin packaging in post-meiotic cells. PEA showed that genes encoding for histones were upregulated in round spermatids from *Zfy* DKO and *Zfy2* KO, and GSEA found that nucleosome and chromatin gene sets were up-regulated in these cells from *Zfy* DKO. The X-chromosome carries several genes

encoding H2A variants, such as H2AL and H2A.B, which are upregulated in in *Zfy* DKO RS. All are relevant candidates to explain the defects in chromatin packaging of *Zfy* DKO sperm. The autosome-encoded H2AL1 has previously been shown to be essential for histone to protamine transition [39] and loss of H2A.B variants has been reported to alter spermatid chromatin structure [40]. Genes encoding H2A canonical histones are also up- or down-regulated, such as *Hist1h2ai* and *Hist2h2be*.

The in-silico findings were confirmed by several approaches demonstrating that histone-to-protamine transition is abnormal in *Zfy* DKO and that *Zfy* DKO sperm have poorly packaged chromatin,

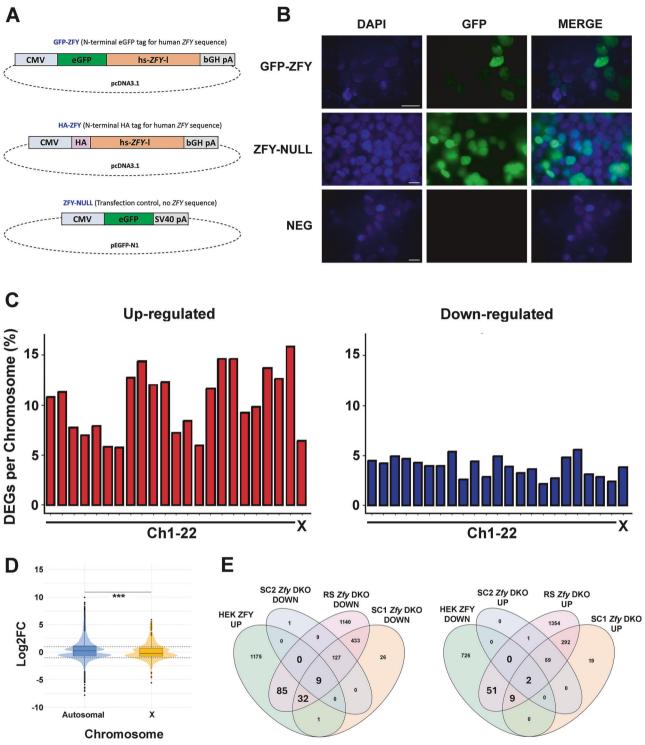


Fig. 8 Transcriptome analysis of ZFY-transgenic HEK cells. A Strategies for establishing ZFY transgenic HEK cell lines. The two ZFY expression constructs were cloned into the pcDNA3.1 sequence (Addgene Plasmid #129020) and contained the open reading frame for the long isoform of human ZFY (hs-ZFY-I) accompanied by an N-terminal eGFP sequence (GFP-ZFY) or an N-terminal HA tag (HA-ZFY). As a negative transfection control, a construct containing a GFP reporter and no ZFY sequence (ZFY-NULL) was used. CMV, human cytomegalovirus enhancer and promoter; bGH pA, bovine growth hormone polyadenylation signal; SV40 pA, simian virus 40 polyadenylation signal. **B** Reporter (eGFP) expression in HEK cells transfected with GFP-ZFY and ZFY-NULL expression constructs, with non-transfected HEK cells (NEG) shown as a reference. Scale, 15 µm. **C** Up-regulated (red) and down-regulated (blue) DEGs (FC > 1.5, FDR < 0.05) listed by chromosome for GFP-ZFY transfected HEK cells. Percentage of DEGs per total gene number on each chromosome (human autosomal chromosomes, Chr1-22, and sex chromosomes, X). **D** Boxplot distributions showing the mean Log₂ FC of autosomal genes compared to X genes. Statistical analysis was performed using the t-test with adjusted *P* value, *** = 0.001. **E** Venn diagrams showing the concordantly regulated genes in the different experimental systems. HEK ZFY HEK cells transfected with hs-ZFY-I, SC1 primary spermatocytes, SC2 secondary spermatocytes, RS round spermatids, DOWN downregulated, UP upregulated.

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incomplete protamination, and increased histones retention. Zfy2 KO appear to have a milder genotype, while Zfy1 KO did not differ from the XY. Thus, Zfy may act as a transcriptional regulator of gene sets related to postmeiotic chromatin remodeling and compaction. Y chromosome deficiencies are often linked with problems with postmeiotic chromatin remodeling. Deficiency or loss of genes from the long arm of mouse Y chromosome has been shown to result in poor sperm chromatin organization [41-43]. The deficiencies or absence of genes from the Y chromosome short arm, where Zfy genes are located, cause predominantly premeiotic or meiotic arrests [44, 45]. However, when postmeiotic cells are present and spermiogenesis takes place, the resulting elongated spermatids and sperm are invariably abnormal, often with poorly condensed chromatin [13]. Our prior transmission electron microscopy characterization of chromatin condensation in sperm from Zfy2 DKO males revealed its impairment [14]. Also, the transcriptome data acquired after knockout of the ZFX gene family in human cultured cells revealed upregulation of histone-related gene sets [2].

Zfy loss alters spermatogenesis pathways

We found that pathways related to sperm flagellum and axoneme assembly were downregulated in spermatids from Zfy DKO males. This downregulation was observed only with the PEA using DEGs with a fold change greater than 1, and not with a higher foldchanged threshold. Thus, Zfy may modulate these processes by inducing small changes in transcript expression. The deregulation of sperm tail formation pathways matches with very severe morphology defects of sperm from Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO [14] and motility defects of sperm from Zfy DKO reported here. Sperm motility defects were also observed with Zfy KO mice produced by two other investigative groups [46, 47]. Nakasuji et al. [46] reported abnormal sperm motility as well as defects of axoneme and outer dense fibers, two structural elements of the sperm tail, with Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO males while Subrini et al. [47] have shown, using a threshold-free GSEA, that motility pathways were downregulated in whole testis. Thus, results from three independently obtained Zfy DKO mouse lines point to changes in both phenotype and transcriptome related to spermatogenesis.

The expressional changes in pathways related to sperm flagellum and axoneme assembly were not observed in spermatids from *Zfy2* KO males, and sperm these males did not display motility defects. However, sperm from *Zfy2* KO males had limited-to-no ability to fertilize oocytes in vitro. We suspect that this deficiency is due to sperm defects affecting their ability to participate in one or more steps required for successful fertilization other than motility, for example capacitation, acrosome reaction, or zona pellucida binding and penetration. Future tests are required to test for these possibilities.

Using mutant mice with Y chromosome deficiencies and transgenic rescue approach we have shown before that the presence of *Zfy2* is critical for sperm formation. Mice lacking Y chromosome but transgenic for two other Y-derived genes, *Sry* driving sex determination and *Eif2s3y* initiating spermatogenesis, produced only round spermatids [45]. Addition of the *Zfy2* transgene allowed for spermatid elongation [13, 15] and ultimately production of sperm functional in intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI) [15]. The phenotype of *Zfy2* KO males [14] (and this study), and prior studies with mice with Y chromosome deletions [9, 11–13, 15] support that *Zfy2* is involved in regulation of spermiogenesis pathways. Greater sequencing depth may be required to detect the deregulation of spermatogenesis pathways in *Zfy2* KO round spermatids.

MEA suggests that ZFY has coregulators with known functions in spermatogenesis. ZFP105, a transcription factor candidate for enriched motifs identified in *Zfy2* KO and DKO RS, is suspected to have roles in spermatogenesis, with *Zfp105*-mutant mice exhibiting reduced fertility [48]. Like *Zfy2*, *Zfp105* is strongly expressed in round spermatid, making it an attractive candidate to co-regulate spermatogenesis with *Zfy*.

MEIS1, another transcription factor candidate for motifs enriched in *Zfy* DKO RS, has also been implicated in regulating spermatogenesis from somatic cells, as Sertoli-cell specific knock-down of *Meis1* leads to male infertility [49]. However, the function of MEIS1 in male germline is unconfirmed, and *Meis1* is only expressed at low levels in spermatocytes and spermatids. Conditional knock-out of *Sox17*, another transcription factor candidate for motifs enriched in *Zfy2* KO DEGs, results in irregular detachment of immature spermatids [50].

The three Zfy KO models vary in how the loss of Zfy affects their transcriptome

We observed very few transcriptional changes in germ cells form Zfv1 KO males as compared to germ cells from Zfv2 KO and Zfv DKO. This agrees with good fertility and normal spermatogenesis reported with Zfy1 KO males [14] and previous studies performed with mutants with Y chromosome deficiencies supporting indirectly that Zfy2 is a stronger player in spermatogenesis than Zfy1 [11–13]. Based on the phenotypic differences between Zfy2 KO and Zfy DKO males, with the latter being fully infertile with severe spermatogenesis defects and the former being less affected [14], we expected to find stronger transcriptome changes in germ cells from Zfy DKO males. Surprisingly, more DEGs were observed with Zfy2 KO, in all germ cell types, indicating that the loss of Zfy2 alone was clearly more detrimental to transcriptome than the loss of both Zfy1 and Zfy2. We currently favor the hypothesis that this unexpected outcome is due to Zfy2 loss influencing Zfy1. Loss of both Zfy1 and Zfy2 (in Zfy DKO) removes the regulatory function of both homologs. Loss of Zfy2 alone removes Zfy2 regulatory function, but also strongly affects Zfy1-dependent gene regulation, and the consequences of this latter effect are greater than the loss of Zfy1. Our findings stand in contrast to results from a recent transcriptome analysis of whole testis from Zfy KO mice showing that loss of both Zfy1 and Zfy2 have more severe effects than loss of Zfy2 alone [47]. The differences between us and this study could be explained when one considers that purified spermatocytes and spermatids, which we used, are more representative of the male germline than all testicular cells combined.

Our data suggest that Zfy function as a transcriptional regulator is more intricate than previously anticipated. In mice, there are two main Zfy transcript variants created by splicing: a long variant that predominates for Zfy2 and a short variant that predominates for Zfy1 [3]. Although both variants contain an intact zinc finger DNA-binding motif, in vitro testing has shown that only the long variant has an active transactivating domain; thus the short variant can bind but cannot transactivate [3]. Under physiological conditions, the active and inactive variants exist in equilibrium, presumably competing for binding to promoter regions of the regulated genes and interacting with different proteins. When the predominating active Zfy2 transcripts are eliminated, the inactive Zfy1 transcripts could cause a cascade of transcriptional deregulation, perhaps blocking other transcription factors from accessing DNA, ultimately resulting in more significant expressional changes than those observed with loss of both homologs. This hypothesis could be confirmed in future with assays measuring the genomic and protein binding patterns of ZFY in vivo.

Our data add another layer of complexity since we see that Zfy loss deregulates alternative splicing of at least several hundreds of genes. Only a few are in common with DEGs, yet pathway analyses indicate that they are involved in similar pathways (such as motile cilium and nucleosome/histone pathways) and could therefore contribute to the observed phenotypes. It is worth mentioning that the splicing of Zfy1 itself appears to be affected by Zfy2 loss, and to favor the long isoform to the detriment of the short Zfy1 transcript isoform, in round spermatids. This shift in Zfy1 isoforms could have more detrimental effects on the number of DEGs but overall compensate partially for Zfy2 (long isoform) loss. Other compensatory effects or at least "crosstalk" with genes

related to *Zfy* could also be at stake. We indeed found that the X-linked *Zfx* is downregulated in primary and secondary spermatocytes from *Zfy2* KO, while the autosome encoded *Zfp711* is significantly upregulated in round spermatids from *Zfy* DKO. To fully understand this phenomenon would require the production of multiple new mouse mutants and remains a challenge for future studies.

Zfy loss bears a strong effect on apoptosis-related pathways

The most significant transcriptional changes observed in Zfy KO spermatocytes included the upregulation of apoptosis gene sets. GSEA found that in addition to the apoptosis genes set, several other gene sets directly related to apoptosis were upregulated: P53, KRAS, and TGFβ signaling pathways. The P53 pathway becomes activated upon DNA damage and serves as a key regulator of DNA repair and programmed cell death [51]. Transforming growth factor β (TGF β) induces apoptosis via activation of the pro-apoptotic Bim protein [52] (reviewed [53]). The KRAS signaling pathway is also known to play an important role in programmed cell death [54]. Using TUNEL assay to measure apoptosis in testis sections from Zfy KO males we observed an increased presence of apoptotic spermatocytes in Zfy2 DKO, and to a lesser extend in Zfy2 KO, confirming that loss of both Zfy homologs or Zfy2 alone alters germ cell homeostasis. Thus, Zfy could control the checkpoints of meiotic apoptosis by directly or indirectly interacting with these pathways. This matches with previous data acquired with mutant mice and Zfy transgene rescue showing that Zfy are involved in control of spermatogenic quality functions during the pachytene stage of meiosis and during meiosis I by triggering the apoptotic elimination of spermatocytes [10, 11] and regulating meiotic sex chromosome inactivation (MSCI) [9] (reviewed in [1]).

Although only viable cells were included in sorted germ cell populations used for RNA isolation and sequencing, transcription of apoptosis related genes precedes any visible manifestation of apoptosis, and TUNEL assay data confirmed presence of high number of apoptotic spermatocytes in *Zfy* DKO and *Zfy2* KO testes. Thus, we cannot exclude that the observed upregulation of apoptosis genes linked to *Zfy* loss is a consequence of cell death rather than its cause. The data are clear in showing that *Zfy* loss alters apoptosis regulation, but the details of this regulation require further investigations.

Zfy loss leads to altered expression of sex chromosomesencoded genes

Prior transgene rescue studies have shown that *Zfy* is critical for initiation and regulation of MSCI [9, 10]. In the present study, we observed upregulation of sex-linked genes in spermatocytes and spermatids from *Zfy* DKO males. Our analyses with primary spermatocytes indicate both an incomplete MSCI and a premature expression of postmeiotic genes while, in round spermatids, point to a less efficient postmeiotic sex chromatin repression (PSCR).

Upregulation of Y chromosome-linked genes was also detected with *Zfy1* KO and *Zfy2* KO males but one must be cautious with the interpretation of this result due to the repetitive nature of the mouse Y chromosome long arm. Indeed, it carries >100 copies of the genes *Sly*, *Ssty1* and *Ssty2* [55] and they appear to be the main contributors of Y gene upregulation, at least in spermatocytes.

Surprisingly, X-linked genes were found downregulated in spermatocytes from *Zfy1* KO and *Zfy2* males. The reason for the X-linked downregulation in *Zfy1* and *Zfy2* KO spermatocytes is less clear. Given that *Zfy* has other regulatory functions during meiosis 1, including a recently discovered role in X-Y pairing [47], the transcriptional changes of sex-linked genes may not be due solely to *Zfy* function in MSCI, but rather be a result of deregulation of other pathways controlled by *Zfy*.

Global transcriptome regulation by ZFY is observed in vitro and is not restricted to mouse

Overall, the comparison of germ cell data to transfected cells is instructive in several areas. First, the specific sex chromosome deregulation in response to germline knockout was not observed in the somatic cell transfection experiment. We therefore conclude that ZFY is unlikely to directly target large numbers of sex chromosome genes, and that the germline changes are a downstream effects of broader chromatin changes, potentially related to different chromatin environment as a consequence of MSCI/PMSC in the Zfy DKO model, with more complex factors at play in the single knockout models. Second, while in the germline ZFY appears to regulate expression of many cell-specific genes associated with spermatid functions, we do not see widespread ectopic activation of these pathways in the transient transfection experiment. Third, regulation of DNA damage repair and cell cycle genes emerges as one common factor conserved across species and cell types. Finally, under transient transfection conditions we see predominantly gene up-regulation, as expected if ZFY is a transcriptional activator. The more balanced up/down-regulation seen in the knockout mouse models is likely to represent an equilibrium state encompassing both direct and indirect effects of ZFY.

CONCLUSIONS

Collectively, the emerging picture is that ZFY expression regulates a significant fraction of the total transcriptome, both in the knockout testes (i.e., chronic depletion model) and in HEK cell transfection (transient overexpression). This broad effect, coupled with the finding that chromatin pathways and cell cycle pathways are perturbed, argues that ZFY may exert its functions via a general modulation of chromatin regulation, rather than through direct action on a small number of direct targets. This is consistent with the very general binding motif (GGCCT) identified from previous in vitro and in silico work [2, 56] and the presence of ZFY broadly across CpG island promoters in prostate cells [2]. Given widespread interactions with broad classes of promoter, cell-type specific effects of ZFY are likely to be sculpted by interactions with other lineage-specific transcription factors. Generalized effects on chromatin regulation and DNA damage responses may explain the sex chromosome deregulation in germ cell types, given the known close connections between DNA damage response (DDR), MSCI and subsequent PMSC.

METHODS

Biological resources

The mice were used for breeding, as sperm and oocyte donors for assisted reproduction, as vasectomized males and surrogate/foster females for embryo transfer, and for male germ cell collections. Two wild-type strains, bred in-house, were used, CD-1 (originate from Charles River Laboratories Crl:CD-1(ICR); strain code: 022) and C57BL/6J (originate from Jackson Laboratory, strain code: 000664).

The mice were fed ad libitum with a standard diet and maintained in a temperature- and light-controlled room (22 °C, 14 h light/10 h dark), in accordance with the guidelines of the Laboratory Animal Services at the University of Hawaii and guidelines presented in National Research Council's "Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals" published by Institute for Laboratory Animal Research of the National Academy of Science, Bethesda, MD, 2011. The protocol for animal handling and treatment procedures was reviewed and approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee at the University of Hawaii (animal protocol number 06-010).

Zfy1 KO, Zfy2 KO and Zfy2 DKO males used in this study were produced by us before using CRISPR/Cas9 [14]. The Zfy1 and Zfy2 KO colonies were propagated by standard breeding, and the Zfy DKO mice were reproduced by intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI) or round spermatid injection (ROSI). All Zfy KO males used in this study were on C57BL/6 genetic background. Zfy1 KO were originally produced as pure C57BL/6 while Zfy2

KO and *Zfy2* DKO males were produced on mixed background and subsequently backcrossed to C57BL/6 for at least 10 generations using breeding and assisted reproduction, respectively.

Reagents

All chemicals were obtained from Sigma Chemical Co. (St Louis, MO, USA) unless otherwise stated.

In vitro fertilization

Oocyte collection. Female mice were induced to superovulate with the injection of 5 IU pregnant mares' serum gonadotrophin (eCG, ProSpec, East Brunswick, NJ, USA) and 5 IU human chorionic gonadotrophin (hCG, ProSpec, East Brunswick, NJ, USA) given 48 h apart. Oocyte collection and subsequent oocyte manipulation, including in vitro fertilization and microinjections, were done in HEPES-CZB [57], with subsequent culture in CZB medium [58] in an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ in air.

In vitro fertilization (IVF). IVF was done as described by us [59]. For IVF, the epididymal sperm were expressed from dissected cauda epididymides directly into a drop of HTF medium [60] (capacitation drop) and sperm concentration was quantified. Sperm were capacitated in HTF for 1.5 h at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% $\rm CO_2$. Then, a portion of capacitated sperm suspension was transferred to another drop of HTF medium (fertilization drop) to achieve a concentration of $\rm 5 \times 106/mL$. Oocytecumulus cell complexes were released to the fertilization drop and gametes were co-incubated for 4 h. After co-incubation, the oocytes were washed several times with HEPES-CZB, followed by at least one wash with CZB. Embryos were cultured in CZB until pronuclei stage followed by cryopreservation or allowed to develop further.

Germ cell isolation

Primary spermatocytes (SC1), secondary spermatocytes (SC2), and round spermatid (RS) cells were isolated from wild type (XY), Zfy1 KO, Zfy2 KO, and Zfy DKO mice via germ cell isolation and fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS). In each sorting experiment two testes were used. The testes were dissected, and tunica was removed. The seminiferous tubules were incubated in 167.5 U/mL collagenase IV (Worthington Biochemical, Lakewood, NJ, USA) for 10 min at 37 °C, washed twice with Krebbs Buffer, and then incubated in 0.25% Trypsin-EDTA with 20 μg/mL DNAse I for 25 min at 37 °C, with vigorous pipetting every five min to dissociate cells. The cells were then run through a 30 µm strainer, centrifuged for 6 min at $500 \times g$, and resuspended in 180 µL PBS-S (1% FBS, 10 mM HEPES, 1 mM pyruvate, and 1 mg/mL glucose in PBS). Spermatogonial stem cells (SSCs) were removed by addition of 20 µL CD90.2 MicroBeads (Miltenyi Biotec, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany), incubation on ice for 30 min, suspension in 3 mL PBS-S and separation through magnetic column.

Prior to FACS, the germ cells were resuspended in FACS buffer (1 mM EDTA, 25 mM HEPES, 1% FBS in PBS) at a concentration of 2 million cells per mL. This suspension was stained with $10\,\mu\text{M}$ Vybrant DyeCycle Violet Stain (ThermoFischer, Waltham, MA, USA) for 30 min at 37 °C. Cells were sorted with BD FACS Aria III (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) Each FACs sorting included a "test sort" performed on small number of mixed germ cells. The sorted fractions of roughly 5000 cells were checked for purity by morphological assessment. If purity in "test sort" was >90%, the remaining mixed germ cells were sorted under the same conditions. The purity was checked again and when >90% samples divided into fractions containing 200,000–300,000 cells. The cells were spun down for 5 min at $500 \times g$, snap frozen in LN₂, and stored at $-80\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ for RNA extraction. The three germ cell types in a single biological replicate were from a single male.

In the initial stages of the project, we verified the purity of fractions using immunostaining for H2AX (expressed only in SC1) and SYCP3 (expressed in SC1, and, to a lesser extent, SC2). Roughly 50,000 SC1, SC2, and RS cells were collected and surface spreads of spermatogenic cells were prepared as described earlier [11]. The following primary antibodies were used: anti-SYCP3 (1:250; Ab97672, Abcam), and anti-YH2AX (1:500; 9718, Cell Signaling). As secondary antibodies we used Goat anti-Mouse Alexa Fluor 594 (1:500; A21125, Invitrogen) and Goat anti-Rabbit Alexa Fluor 488 (1:500; A11008, Invitrogen). The cells were distinguished based on nuclear size, DAPI morphology, and the SYCP3 and YH2AX staining pattern. The average purity was ~95% for SC1, ~90% for SC2, and >99% for RS.

RNA sequencing

RNA was extracted from each SC1, SC2, and RS cell fraction using the RNeasy Micro Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). RNA quality assessment, library preparation, and total transcriptome RNA sequencing were performed at the University of Hawaii Cancer Center Genomics and Bioinformatics Shared Resource (UHCC GBSR). RNA integrity of all samples was assessed using Bioanalyzer (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA). The cDNA libraries were prepared using the NEBNext® UltraTM II Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA) before quality assessment with the Agilent Bioanalyzer. The Illumina NextSeq 2000 P3 flow cell (Illumina, San Diego, CA) was then used to perform paired-end sequencing of 150-bp reads (roughly 33 million reads for each sample).

Initially, a pilot experiment was performed with SC1 (n=3) and RS (n=3) isolated from XY and Zfy DKO males. Subsequently, an expanded experiment was done using all cell types (SC1, SC2, and RS, n=3 each) and all genotypes (XY, Zfy1 KO, Zfy2 KO, and Zfy DKO). The SC1 and RS data for XY and Zfy DKO acquired with pilot and expanded experiments were compared and found similar (Fig. S1) and therefore the analyses described below were performed on combined data.

RNA-seq data analysis was performed as previously described [61]. FASTQ files were trimmed and filtering using BBduk (v38.23) and were aligned with STAR (v2.7.2 d) on the mouse genome (GRCm38.p6). STAR and samtools package (v1.3.1) were used to estimate raw read counts. Differential expression analysis was performed using DEseq2 and edgeR R packages on expressed genes (CPM > 1 in minimum 2 samples). DEGs were considered significantly deregulated when they passed FDR < 0.05. We performed two separate functional analyses, one using DEGs with at least a 1.5-fold expression change, as used in a previous *ZFY* transcriptome analysis on human cultured cells [2] and a second using genes with at least a 1.0-fold expression change.

To calculate the number of DEGs per chromosome, the number of DEGs on each chromosome was divided by the total number of transcripts reported in the Mouse Genome Informatics database (https://www.informatics.jax.org). We excluded ribosomal RNA and microRNA genes from these calculations, as our sequencing method would not detect these types of RNA.

To identify enriched pathways we used four methods: gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA, [25, 62], PEA with the Enrichr function in ClusterProfiler [24, 63], functional analysis with the EnrichR online tool [64, 65], and MEA with the Hypergeometric Optimization of Motif EnRichment (HOMER) software [27]. GSEA considers all genes in relation to their expression level, ClusterProfiler uses DEGs with non-regulated genes to account for bias, and the EnrichR tools only consider DEGs to identify enriched pathways. We searched across three GO databases: Biological Processes, Cellular Components (CC), and Molecular Function (MF). We also considered the Hallmark (HM) database for conditions for which we did not identify significantly enriched pathways with all four methods. HOMER analysis identifies enriched motifs, identifying potential transcription factor candidates for each motif, and has a function to perform GO analysis.

Expression analyses

Real time qPCR on whole testis or purified germ cells was performed to confirm deregulation of genes. For validation we selected genes that were the most strongly deregulated in RNA-seq data and that were also the most highly expressed in cells of interest. RNA was extracted from testis or purified cells using the RNeasy Micro Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Reverse transcription of polyadenylated RNA was performed with Superscript Reverse Transcriptase IV, according to the manufacturer's guidelines (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). In analyses of purified cells, the cDNA, synthesized from 50 ng RNA, was diluted 2-8-fold depending on the ability to accurately detect target gene expression. All reactions were carried out in triplicate per assay and normalized three ubiquitously expressed genes (Ppia, Rsp18, and Rplp0). The Ct value for each individual sample was calculated by subtracting the Ct value of a tested gene from the geometric mean of the three loading controls. The Ct value was calculated by subtracting the Ct of each tested male from the average Ct of reference samples (XY males). The data were expressed as a fold value of expression level.

Stringent rules for data inclusion were applied. The gene was included in the analysis if: (1) the number of biological replicates was no less than 2 per genotype; (2) at least two technical replicates yielded data in any biological replicate; (3) at least 2 technical replicates were similar (a

dissimilar technical replicate data were excluded from the average); (4) no amplification was observed in blanks. Primer sequences are shown in Table S9.

Alternative splicing analysis

Splicing events were identified using rMATS [66] (version 4.12) and Whippet [67] (version 1.7), both with default parameters. For rMATS, RNA-Seq data were aligned to the reference genome using the STAR aligner and resulting BAM files were processed with default parameters to quantify differential splicing (DS) between wild-type and knockout conditions. In Whippet, raw fastq files were quantified individually, followed by DS analysis, also comparing wild types and knockouts with default settings. The Output files from both tools were processed using the Maser (version 1.20.0) and GeneStructureTools (version 1.23) R packages with parameters: minCounts = 5, deltaPSI = 0.001%, FDR = 0.05, and probability = 95. A splicing event was considered relevant if it was identified by both tools, with a minimum 1 bp overlap assessed using Bedtools [68] (version 2.30). Gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis was conducted on the genes with significant splicing changes (deltaPSI=10%, FDR < 0.05). GO terms were identified using the EnrichGO() function in the clusterProfiler R package (version 4.8.3), with default settings. Enriched terms with an FDR < 0.05 were considered significant.

To validate splicing events the same RT-qPCR strategy described earlier was used using round spermatids from XY and Zfy DKO males. One gene, Piga, was selected because it was (1) the most strongly differentially spliced, (2) expressed highly in round spermatids, and (3) contained spliced exon regions large enough to design multiple primer sequences (at least ~150 base pairs long). Primers were designed over the differentially spliced (DS) and non-spliced (NS) region of coding exons. Five and four primer pairs were designed for DS and NS region, respectively, their efficiency was tested, and three pairs per region with the highest efficiency (~95–105%) were used. The fold change in expression for Zfy DKO (in relation to XY) was calculated for the DS and NS regions of coding exons. The occurrence of splicing was calculated by dividing the average expression of DS regions by the average expression of NS regions for each sample.

Expression profiling in cultured cells

N-terminally tagged ZFY expression constructs were commercially synthesized by GenScript. The complete human open reading frame of ZFY was cloned into both a pcDNA3.1+N-eGFP and a pcDNA3.1+N-HA backbone using the Xhol/Xbal sites of the vector, placing the complete human ZFY gene in-frame with either a GFP- or HA-tag respectively as N-terminal fusions. The resulting constructs were transformed into NEB 5-alpha competent E. coli cells (NEB, #C2988J) and subsequently purified using a QlAprep Spin Miniprep Kit (Qiagen, Cat. No./ID: 27104).

To identify transcriptional responses to ZFY overexpression, human embryonic kidney HEK293 cells, a gift from Michelle Garrett (University of Kent) were cultured at 37 °C under humidified conditions, with 5% CO₂. Cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, Gibco, 11574486) supplemented with 10% Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS, Gibco, 11570516) and 1% L-Glutamine-Penicillin-Streptomycin (Sigma-Aldrich, G6784). Cells were seeded into six-well plates and transfected with the purified tagged ZFY expression constructs during log phase growth. pEGFP-N1, containing GFP alone, was used as a negative control transfection. Transfection was performed using Lipofectamine 3000 (ThermoFisher Scientific, #L3000001), adjusting the manufacturer's protocol for 2 µg of DNA per well in a 6-well dish. In test transfections, nuclear localization of the tagged constructs (and cytoplasmic localization of free EGFP from pEGFP-N1) was observed by fluorescence microscopy, and the integrity of the full-length tagged ZFY protein confirmed by Western blotting (data not shown). For the expression analysis, following a 48-h incubation period post-transfection, cells were harvested by trypsinization, and total RNA extracted using the Qiagen RNEasy mini kit (Qiagen, 74104).

Expression analysis was performed on triplicate biological replicate wells for each construct. Paired-end RNA sequencing of 150 bp reads was performed by Novogene, and the downstream bioinformatics analysis was performed in house [69]. Quality control of the raw sequencing reads was performed using FASTQC (v0.11.9) [70]. The FASTQ files were indexed and aligned to the reference human genome (release 105) using HISAT2 (v2.2.1) [71] and were subsequently sorted using Samtools (v1.14) [72]. Feature counts (v2.0.1) was used to count the fragments to generate a count matrix containing all the read data [73]. Differential expression analysis was performed on the count matrix in R studio (v3.2.2) using

DESeq2 (v1.34.0) [74]. DEGs were considered significant when they had a p.adj < 0.05 and a > 1.5-fold change.

For comparisons of DE genes in testis vs HEK293 cells, gene orthologues were identified using UniProt and the gene lists were then filtered to select for gene putatively concordantly regulated by ZFY in both experimental systems (i.e., genes that were upregulated in DKO testes and down-regulated in ZFY knock-in HEK cells, or vice versa). A pathway analysis using Reactome [75] was then carried out for these lists of concordantly regulated genes.

Chromatin staining

Chromomycin-A3 (CMA3) staining was performed on sperm isolated from XY, Zfy1 KO, Zfy2 KO, and Zfy DKO males as previously described [76]. Epididymal sperm were released into HEPES-CZB medium and washed once with PBS. For a positive control, XY spermatozoa were incubated on ice for 15 min in 5 mM DTT, 0.5% Triton-X-100 in PBS to destabilize the sperm chromatin. The XY negative control and all other genotypes were incubated only in PBS for 15 min on ice. The sperm suspension was then layered onto 1 M sucrose solution in 25 mM Tris-HCl (pH = 7.4), centrifuged at $3000 \times g$ for 10 min, incubated in 500 µL fixation solution (3:1 methanol:acetic acid) on ice for 5 min, and then spread on slides and air-dried for 20 min at 37 °C. Prior to CMA3 staining, the positive control samples were incubated in 2 M NaCl, 2 mM DTT in $\overline{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ for 15 min at room temperature before being washed with distilled water. Each slide was incubated in CMA3 staining solution (0.25 mg/mL CMA3 in 17.5 mM citric acid, 165 mM disodium hydrogen phosphate, pH = 7.0, supplemented with 10 mM MgCl₂ and 1% DMSO) for 30 min at room temperature. The slides were mounted with Vectashield Mounting Medium for Fluorescence with DAPI (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA, USA) and imaged at 1000× magnification using a fluorescence Olympus BX51 microscope (Tokyo, Japan) with appropriate filter (495-519 nM). Sperm heads were either scored as CMA3 positive (bright green staining) or CMA3 negative (dull green staining), with at least 200 sperm scored for each male. Epididymal sperm samples from Zfy DKO males contain testicular cells other than spermatozoa; these cells were not considered in counts.

Aniline blue staining was performed on sperm from all genotypes following an established technique [77]. Epididymal spermatozoa were released into HEPES-CZB medium, and the sperm suspension was spread on slides and air-dried for 20 min at 37 °C. Slides were then fixed in 3% glutaraldehyde in PBS for 30 min at room temperature, incubated in aniline blue staining solution (5% aniline blue in 4% acetic acid, pH = 3.5) for 5 min at room temperature, washed twice with distilled water, and air-dried for 20 min at 37 °C. The slides were mounted with Anti-Fluorescence Quenching Agent (Elabscience, Houston, TX, USA) and imaged at 1000× magnification using an Olympus BX51 microscope (Tokyo, Japan). Sperm heads were either scored as aniline positive (dark blue or purple staining) or aniline negative (light blue or clear staining), with at least 200 sperm scored for each male. Epididymal sperm samples from Zfy DKO males contain testicular cells other than spermatozoa, most of which stain positive for aniline blue; these cells were not considered in counts.

TUNEL staining

The TUNEL assay for apoptotic cell detection in testis sections was performed using the One-step TUNEL In Situ Apoptosis Kit (E-CK-A320, Elabscience, USA) according to the manufacture instructions, with small modification to add Lectin-PNA staining (L32459, Invitrogen, USA). Images were captured with DP80 digital camera (Olympus) with Olympus BX51 microscope and processed with CellSens Imaging software (Olympus). Zfy DKO males were compared to wild-type XY controls and two kit controls, positive and negative, were included. The positive control was testis section from wild-type male treated with DNA-se. The negative control was testis section from a wild-type male processed without TdT enzyme. To select randomly 20 tubules an iPad & apple pencil were used, and a pdf format of the compiled cell images was uploaded to the program Goodnotes. A circle was drawn within the cross-section without looking. and a tubule close to the circle periphery and positioned in the top left corner was selected as tubule 1. The remaining 19 tubules were selected by following the circular spiral motion clockwise, within the circle.

Nuclear protein extraction for protamine analyses

PRM1/PRM2 protamine ratios were determined following procedures of nuclear proteins extraction and analysis as previously described [78].

Briefly, mouse sperm pellets were resuspended in 0.5% Triton X-100, 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8), 2 mM MgCl₂. After centrifugation at $8900 \times g$ 5 min at 4°C, the sediment was resuspended in MilliQ H2O with 1 mM PMSF, centrifuging at the same conditions. Chromatin was denatured by resuspending pellets in 20 mM EDTA, 1 mM PMSF, 100 mM Tris-HCl pH8 and adding 1 volume of 575 mM DTT in 6 M GuHCl prior vortexing. After adding final 0.8% 4-vynilpyridine, the solution was incubated at 37 °C for 30 min protected from light to disrupt cysteine disulfide bonds, vortexing every 5 min. Chromatin was precipitated by adding 5 volumes of cold ethanol and incubating 1 h at $-20 \,^{\circ}\text{C}$, followed by centrifugation $12,900 \times g$ for 15 min at 4 °C. Basic nuclear proteins were extracted from DNA by incubating with 0.5 M HCl at 37 °C and recovered in the supernatant after centrifugation at $17,530 \times q$ for 10 min at 4 °C. Proteins were precipitated with 20% trichloroacetic acid (TCA) on ice. Protein extracts were washed twice with 1% β-mercaptoethanol in acetone and air-dried before being resuspended in 5.5 M urea, 20% β-mercaptoethanol, 5% acetic acid. For in-gel quantification, purified extracts corresponding to 250,000–700,000 spermatozoa were run by acetic acid urea polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (AU-PAGE). Gels were stained with SafeStain Simply-Blue™ (#LC6060, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and scanned using an iBright™ FL1500 Imaging System (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Band density corresponding to mouse PRM1 and PRM2 was quantified using the iBright Analysis Software 1.8.1 to calculate PRM1/PRM2 ratios. Statistical analyses (Student t-test) and plotting were made on GraphPad Prism 10.

Acidic western blot

For protamine Western Blot detection, we proceeded as previously described [61], with minor modifications. Antibodies are listed in Table S10. Sperm nuclear protein extracts corresponding to 2.1 million spermatozoa from one XY control and a pool of 3 *Zfy* DKO sperm samples were loaded into AU-PAGE and separated as detailed before. Proteins were transferred from the acid-urea gel towards the negative pole onto a 0.45-µm pore size nitrocellulose membrane (88018, ThermoFisher) for 5.5 h at 4 °C using an acidic transfer buffer consisting of 0.9 mM acetic acid. Membrane was blocked with 5% non-fat dry milk in PBST 0.1% for 1 h and incubated overnight at 4 °C with primary antibody against PRM2 (#MAb-Hup2B, Briar Patch Biosciences) diluted 1:1000 in blocking buffer. Secondary antibody (Goat anti-mouse HRP, #31430, ThermoFisher) incubation was performed for 2 h at room temperature. Visualization was performed with Super-Signal West Pico Plus® ECL (#34580, ThermoFisher) on the iBright™ FL1500 Imaging System.

Immunofluorescence

Immunofluorescence staining was performed on 5 µm thick sections of mice testes fixed in 4% buffered paraformaldehyde (PFA) and embedded in paraffin. Following deparaffinization and rehydration, and antigen retrieval, sections were permeabilized for 20 min in PBS containing 0.3% Triton X-100. To block endogenous peroxidase activity, tissue sections were incubated with 3% hydrogen peroxide solution for 20 min at room temperature. Blocking was then performed for 1 h at room temperature in Tris-buffered saline with 0.05% Tween-20 (TBST), supplemented with 0.1% Triton X-100, 2% horse serum, and 3% bovine serum albumin. Primary antibodies were diluted in blocking buffer and applied to the sections. Negative controls were prepared by omitting the primary antibody. Sections were incubated overnight at 4 °C. After incubation, sections were washed three times with TBST and fluorochrome-conjugated secondary antibodies, diluted in blocking buffer, were applied to the sections and incubated for 1 h at RT in a humidified chamber protected from light. Sections were then washed three times with TBST. Lectin PNA From Arachis hypogaea (peanut), Alexa Fluor[™] 594 Conjugate was used (1:500; Invitrogen, Cat# L32459) to label the acrosomal region and identify the stages of seminiferous tubules, as described in [79]. Nuclei were counterstained using Hoechst included in the mounting medium, which was freshly prepared by mixing PBS, glycerol, and nuclear stain, and protected from light. Stained slides were mounted and visualized after 15 min. using a fluorescence microscope (Olympus BX51) equipped with a digital camera. Antibodies are listed in Table S10.

Statistics. Statistical parameters including the statistical tests used, values of n, and statistical significance are reported in the figure legends. Results are expressed as average \pm standard error of the mean (SEM) or standard deviation (SDev). Differences were considered significant when the p value was <0.05 (*), <0.01 (***, <0.001 (****), or <0.0001 (****). If data were expressed as percentages, the percentages were transformed to angles for

statistical analyses. Basic computations were done using GraphPad Prism (Prism 10, version 10.4.2).

Data shown in Fig. 2D was analyzed using Wilcoxon test adjusted with Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) correction. Data shown in Figs. 2F, 3G, I, 4A, 5E, 6D, 7D, 8D, and S7 were analyzed by unpaired t-test. Data shown in Fig. 5H were analyzed by Fisher's Exact test. Data shown in Fig. S5 were analyzed with 2-way ANOVA and post-hoc Holm-Šidak and unpaired t-test. Data presented in Tables S2-3, S6-7 and Fig. S8 show the results of HOMER analysis. HOMER uses cumulative hypergeometric distribution to detect enriched motifs. This statistical approach calculates the probability of observing any given number of target sequences with the motifs, assuming no relationship between the target sequence and motif. Data presented in Fig. 3D, E, Fig. 6A, Tables S4 and S8 show the results of GSEA analysis. GSEA uses a weighted Kolmogorov-Smirnov (WKS) test to calculate an enrichment score. P-values are determined through permutation testing, generating a null distribution of ES values, and comparing the observed ES to this distribution. Data shown in Fig. 2A, B, E, S2, S4 and S8C were analyzed with DESeg2 and edgeR. DESeg2 and edgeR are R packages used for differential expression analysis using default parameters. The process involves modeling the raw read counts, estimating dispersions, and then performing statistical hypothesis testing. The statistical tests that were used are a modified likelihood-ratio test (LRT) against a fold change threshold (1.5) following by a BH correction. The data shown in Fig. 2D were analyzed with Wilcoxon test adjusted with Benjamin-Hochberg correction

The data shown in Fig. 3A–C, Fig. 5A–D, and Table S5 were obtained using the EnrichR function in ClusterProfiler, which uses a hypergeometric test with an adjusted *p* value to determine if a set of genes is enriched within a particular functional category. PCA representations were produced with FactomineR package. Data shown in Fig. S6 were analyzed using z-score ratio.

The data shown in Fig. 7A-C and S12 were produced using rMATS and Whippet. rMATS calculates Percent Spliced In (PSI) values for each splicing event and applies a LRT to assess the significance of DS between conditions. The null hypothesis (assuming no splicing difference between conditions) is compared against the alternative model (condition-specific splicing changes), with p values derived from the LRT. To account for multiple testing, p values are adjusted using the BH method, giving the False Discovery Rate (FDR). AS events with |deltaPSI| ≥ 0.1 and FDR < 0.05 were considered statistically significant. Whippet uses a Bayesian inference framework to estimate splicing efficiency. DS is assessed using posterior probabilities, where events with P(DS) > 0.95 (this can be modulated by the user and indicates a 95% probability of DS) and |deltaPSI| ≥ 0.1 were used for significant AS selection. Data shown in Fig. S13 were produced using EnrichGO() function, which uses Fisher's exact test to assess whether specific GO terms are significantly overrepresented in the gene set of interest compared to a background of all annotated genes. The resulting p values were adjusted for multiple testing using the BH method, with an adjusted p value (FDR) threshold of <0.05 considered statistically significant.

DATA AVAILABILITY

All data analyses for this study are included in this published article and its supplementary information files. Raw FASTQ files from the bulk transcriptome analysis are available at EBI array express repository (reference number: E-MTAB-14570) and GEO repository (accession number: GSE281037). The fully reproducible and documented analysis for RNA-Seq is available on github at https://github.com/ManonCoulee/ZFY_Holmlund_2024. The fully reproducible and documented pathway enrichment analysis for RNA-seq is available at https://github.com/Hayden-Holmlund/Holmlund-2024-ZFY-RNA-seq.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, HH, JC, and MAW; Formal Analysis, HH, MC, OUF, LL, JC, PJIE, and MAW; Investigation, HH, MC, YY, BY, MT, IRG, and ADLI; Writing-Original Draft, HH, and MAW; Writing—Review & Editing, JC, PJIE, and MAW; Visualization, HH, MC, OUF, PJIE, JC, and MAW; Supervision, JC, PJIE, and MAW; Project Administration, MAW; Funding Acquisition, HH, ADLI, JC, PJIE, and MAW.

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COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

ETHICS APPROVAL AND CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

All methods were performed in accordance with the relevant guidelines and regulations. There were no human subjects involved in this study. The vertebrate animals (mice) were used. The mice were maintained in accordance with the guidelines of the Laboratory Animal Services at the University of Hawaii and guidelines presented in National Research Council's (NCR) "Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals" published by Institute for Laboratory Animal Research (ILAR) of the National Academy of Science, Bethesda, MD, 2011. The protocol for animal handling and treatment procedures was reviewed and approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee at the University of Hawaii (animal protocol number 06-010).

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

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Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to Monika A. Ward.

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