Elucidation of the Two H3K36me3 Histone Methyltransferases Set2 and Ash1 in *Fusarium fujikuroi* Unravels Their Different Chromosomal Targets and a Major Impact of Ash1 on Genome Stability

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ABSTRACT In this work, we present a comprehensive analysis of the H3K36 histone methyltransferases Set2 and Ash1 in the filamentous ascomycete *Fusarium fujikuroi*. In *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, one single methyltransferase, Set2, confers all H3K36 methylation, while there are two members of the Set2 family in filamentous fungi, and even more H3K36 methyltransferases in higher eukaryotes. Whereas the yeast Set2 homolog has been analyzed in fungi previously, the second member of the Set2 family, designated Ash1, has not been described for any filamentous fungus. Western blot and ChIP-Seq analyses confirmed that *F. fujikuroi* Set2 and Ash1 are H3K36-specific histone methyltransferases that deposit H3K36me3 at specific loci: Set2 is most likely responsible for H3K36 methylation of euchromatic regions of the genome, while Ash1 methylates H3K36 at the subtelomeric regions (facultative heterochromatin) of all chromosomes, including the accessory chromosome XII. Our data indicate that H3K36me3 cannot be considered a hallmark of euchromatin in *F. fujikuroi*, and likely also other filamentous fungi, making them different to what is known about nuclear characteristics in yeast and higher eukaryotes. We suggest that the H3K36 methylation mark exerts specific functions when deposited at euchromatic or subtelomeric regions by Set2 or Ash1, respectively. We found an enhanced level of H3K27me3, an increased instability of subtelomeric regions and losses of the accessory chromosome XII over time in Δ ash1 mutants, indicating an involvement of Ash1 in DNA repair processes. Further phenotypic analyses revealed a role of H3K36 methylation in vegetative growth, sporulation, secondary metabolite biosynthesis, and virulence in *F. fujikuroi*.

KEYWORDS *Fusarium fujikuroi*; histone methyltransferase; H3K36me3; genome stability; secondary metabolism

THE phytopathogenic ascomycete *Fusarium fujikuroi* is the founding member of the *Fusarium* (*Gibberella*) *fujikuroi* species complex (Nirenberg and O'Donnell 1998; Leslie and

Summerell 2006), and the causative agent of the *bakanae* (“foolish seedling”) disease of rice plants (Sun and Snyder 1981). Disease symptoms are induced due to the secretion by *F. fujikuroi* of gibberellic acids (GAs)—a group of highly bioactive and growth-promoting plant hormones. Infection of the rice roots results in the chlorotic hyper-elongation of rice internodes, and, finally, plant death (Bömke and Tudzynski 2009; Wiemann *et al.* 2013). Besides GAs, *F. fujikuroi* also produces a spectrum of other secondary metabolites (SMs), which are, by definition, not required for the general growth

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of the fungus, but are likely of benefit to the pathogen under mainly unknown conditions (Fox and Howlett 2008). The biosynthesis and regulation of some of them, *e.g.*, of the two red pigments bikaverin (BIK) and fusarubins (FSR), as well as of the mycotoxins fusarins (FUS) and fusaric acid (FSA), have been well studied. On a molecular level, BIK and FSR are polyketide synthase (PKS)-derived products, FUS is condensed by a PKS-nonribosomal peptide synthetase (NRPS) hybrid enzyme, while FSA biosynthesis requires two separate key enzymes, a PKS and an NRPS (Wiemann *et al.* 2009; Studt *et al.* 2012, 2016b; Niehaus *et al.* 2013, 2014).

While BIK, FSR, and FSA gene clusters encode pathway-specific transcription factors (TFs) (Wiemann *et al.* 2009; Studt *et al.* 2012, 2016b), GA and FUS clusters do not (Tudzynski and Hölter 1998; Niehaus *et al.* 2013). In this regard, we are especially interested in global regulators and epigenetic regulation mechanisms that affect SM biosynthesis. Furthermore, a large number of putative SM gene clusters is not expressed under standard laboratory conditions in *F. fujikuroi* (and other fungi) (Wiemann *et al.* 2013), so that especially the perturbation of chromatin-mediated regulation represents a powerful tool for the upregulation of a greater set of genes.

The genome-wide and local regulation of gene expression through the covalent, yet reversible, post-translational modification of histone (H) proteins is well established in the literature, *e.g.*, through the acetylation, methylation, and phosphorylation of conserved lysine (K), arginine, serine, and/or threonine residues (Brosch *et al.* 2008). The methylation of H3K9 and H3K27 is generally associated with gene silencing, and these marks are mainly found in stretches of constitutive and facultative heterochromatin, respectively (Rando and Chang 2009; Wiles and Selker 2017). In contrast, the methylation of H3K4 and H3K36 is generally described to be hallmarks of euchromatic regions with actively transcribed genes (Rando and Chang 2009; Wagner and Carpenter 2012).

In *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, Set2 is the only histone methyltransferase dedicated to the mono-, di- and trimethylation (me1, me2, me3) of H3K36 (Strahl *et al.* 2002), while there are eight H3K36-specific methyltransferases homologous to *S. cerevisiae* Set2 in humans (Wagner and Carpenter 2012). Additionally, a Set2 homolog has been confirmed as H3K36-specific methyltransferase in the filamentous ascomycetous fungi *Neurospora crassa* and *Fusarium verticillioides* (Adhvaryu *et al.* 2005; Gu *et al.* 2017). Set2 is characterized by its catalytic Su(var)3-9, Enhancer-of-zeste, Trithorax (SET) domain, which is essential for methyltransferase activity (Strahl *et al.* 2002). This is true for other SET domain-containing methyltransferases that have also been studied in filamentous fungi, *i.e.*, Set1 (H3K4), Dim5/ClrD (H3K9) and Kmt6 (H3K27) (Tamaru and Selker 2001; Reyes-Dominguez *et al.* 2010; Connolly *et al.* 2013; Liu *et al.* 2015; Studt *et al.* 2016a).

S. cerevisiae Set2 has been shown to directly interact with the hyper-phosphorylated form of RNA polymerase II, depositing its H3K36me3 within gene bodies of actively transcribed genes during elongation (Krogan *et al.* 2003; Kizer *et al.* 2005), a mechanism which is conserved also in humans

(Li *et al.* 2005; Sun *et al.* 2005). Furthermore, the trimethylation of H3K36 by *S. cerevisiae* Set2 within the body of a gene results in histone deacetylation via recruitment of the reduced potassium dependency 3 small (Rpd3S) complex, and, subsequently, in the prevention of aberrant transcriptional initiation within coding sequences (Carrozza *et al.* 2005; Keogh *et al.* 2005). In higher eukaryotes, mainly studied in *Drosophila melanogaster* and mammalian cells, this mark has been implicated in a number of vital cellular processes, such as alternative splicing, DNA replication and repair, as well as the transfer of gene expression memory on to progeny, qualifying H3K36 methylation as a true epigenetic mark. Therefore, it is not surprising that the perturbation of this mark is associated with a range of human diseases, including cancer (Wagner and Carpenter 2012; Venkatesh and Workman 2013).

As a counterpart, H3K36-specific demethylases, *e.g.*, the *S. cerevisiae* Jumonji C (JmjC) domain-containing demethylases Jdh1 and Rph1, have been reported to remove H3K36me2/me1 and H3K36me3/me2 marks, respectively (Tsukada *et al.* 2006; Kim and Buratowski 2007; Klose *et al.* 2007). In mammalian systems, in addition to H3K36 methylation, the JHDM3/JMJD2 family of histone demethylases also counteracts H3K9 (Klose *et al.* 2006). Interestingly, this trait is conserved for yeast Rph1, which belongs to this protein family, although the H3K9me3 mark itself is not present in *S. cerevisiae* (Klose *et al.* 2007). The *Aspergillus nidulans* Rph1 homolog, designated lysine demethylase A (KdmA), has been confirmed to be an H3K36me3 demethylase (Gacek-Matthews *et al.* 2015).

In this work, we present the identification of two H3K36-specific methyltransferases in *F. fujikuroi*, Set2 and Ash1, which deposit H3K36me3 at specific loci, at euchromatic and subtelomeric regions, respectively. Therefore, we suggest that H3K36me3 cannot be considered a hallmark of actively transcribed euchromatin in *F. fujikuroi*, and the same probably applies to other filamentous fungi. Chromatin immunoprecipitation with subsequent sequencing (ChIP-Seq) revealed that Ash1 deposits H3K36me3 at subtelomeres and at the accessory chromosome XII. We demonstrate that Ash1 contributes to chromosome stability, indicating a role of Ash1 in the repair of DNA double-strand breaks. Furthermore, a detailed phenotypic analysis of $\Delta set2$ and $\Delta ash1$ mutants revealed an effect of both methyltransferases on SM biosynthesis and pathogenicity. As a counterpart to the H3K36 methyltransferases, the Rph1/KdmA homolog Kdm4 was identified and functionally characterized in *F. fujikuroi*.

Materials and Methods

Fungal strains, media, and growth conditions

F. fujikuroi IMI58289 (Commonwealth Mycological Institute, Kew, United Kingdom UK) (Wiemann *et al.* 2013) was used as parental wild-type (WT) strain for the generation of deletion, point-mutation, and overexpression mutants. Plate

assays were done in triplicate on solid V8 (30 mM CaCO₃, 20%, v/v, vegetable juice; Campbell Food, Puurs, Belgium), CM (Pontecorvo *et al.* 1953), and CD (Czapek Dox; Sigma-Aldrich, Steinheim, Germany) media, supplemented with 0–40 mM H₂O₂ if needed, and incubated for 7 days in darkness (28°), constant light (20°), or in the presence of a 12-hr light/12-hr dark cycle (LD; 18°). Production of conidia was assessed after growth on solid V8 medium for 14 days (LD; 18°). Prior to DNA isolation, the strains were grown on solid CM medium covered with a layer of cellophane for 3 days at 28° in the dark. Cultivation in liquid culture began with a preculture consisting of 100 ml Darken medium (Darken *et al.* 1959) in 300 ml-Erlenmeyer flasks, shaken for 3 days at 180 rpm and 28° in the dark. Then, 0.5% (v/v) of the preculture was transferred to the main culture, consisting of 100 ml ICI medium (Imperial Chemical Industries, London, UK) (Geissman *et al.* 1966) with 6 mM (N[−]) or 60 mM (N⁺) glutamine as sole nitrogen source. Cultivation continued for 3 or 7 days, for ChIP-Seq, microarray or SM analyses, respectively, under the conditions described above. For protoplast transformation of *F. fujikuroi*, 0.5% (v/v) of the preculture was transferred to 100 ml ICI medium, containing 10 g/liter fructose instead of glucose, and 0.5 g/liter (NH₄)₂SO₄ as nitrogen source, and grown for no longer than 16 hr.

Plasmid constructions

The cloning of deletion, point-mutation, complementation, and overexpression vectors was achieved through yeast recombinational cloning (Colot *et al.* 2006; Schumacher 2012). For the generation of gene deletion vectors, *ca.* 1 kb large upstream (5′) and downstream (3′) sequences of the genes of interest were amplified using primer pairs 5F/5R and 3F/3R, respectively (Supplemental Material, Table S1 in File S1). The resistance cassette *hphR* (hygromycin B phosphotransferase gene under the control of the *P_{trpC}* promoter from *A. nidulans*) was amplified with *hph_F/hph_R* (Table S1 in File S1) from the template pCSN44 (Staben *et al.* 1989), while *natR* (nourseothricin resistance gene including *A. nidulans P_{trpC}*) was amplified from the template pZPnat1 (AY631958; GenBank). The yeast strain *S. cerevisiae* FY834 (Winston *et al.* 1995) was transformed with the obtained fragments, as well as with the *EcoRI/XhoI* digested shuttle vector pRS426 (Christianson *et al.* 1992), yielding the deletion vectors pΔ*set2::hphR*, pΔ*ash1::hphR*, pΔ*ash1::natR*, pΔ*kdm4::hphR*.

For the generation of the pH3K36A point-mutation (Figure S1A in File S1) and pH3K36A^C complementation (Figure S1B in File S1) vectors, *H3* (FFUJ_09749), including its 5′ sequence, was amplified in two fragments to insert the point-mutation (H3_mut_1F/H3_mut_K36A_1R; H3_mut_K36A_2F/H3_mut_2R; Table S2 in File S1), or was amplified in one fragment (H3_mut_1F/H3_mut_2R; Table S2 in File S1), respectively. Furthermore, the *H3* 3′ sequence was amplified with H3_mut_3F/H3_mut_3R (Table S2 in File S1). The resistance cassettes *hphR* and *natR* were generated as described above for pH3K36A and pH3K36A^C, respectively. *S. cerevisiae*

FY834 was then transformed with the respective fragments, as well as with the *EcoRI/XhoI*-digested vector pRS426. Similarly, also pSET2^C (Figure S2A in File S1), pASH1^C, and pASH1^{H537K} (Figure S2B in File S1) were gained. Thus, the full-length *SET2* gene, including its 5′ sequence (set2_5F/set2_c_1R; set2_c_2F/set2_c_2R), the full-length *ASH1* gene, including its 5′ sequence (ash1_5F/ash1_c_1R; ash1_c_2F/ash1_c_2R), and the point-mutated version of *ASH1*, including its 5′ sequence (ash1_5F/ash1_5R; ash1_mut_1F/ash1_mut_1R; ash1_mut_2F/ash1_c_2R), were amplified with primers found in Table S2 in File S1. The 3′ sequences of *SET2* and *ASH1*, as well as *natR*, were gained as described above, and the respective fragments were cloned into *EcoRI/XhoI*-digested pRS426. For the constitutive overexpression of *KDM4* via the *A. nidulans P_{oliC}* promoter, the first 1.6 kb of *KDM4* were generated with OE_kdm4_F/OE_kdm4_R (Table S2 in File S1), and fused to the *NcoI/NotI*-restricted vector pNDH-OGG (Schumacher 2012), yielding pOE::KDM4 (Figure S3C in File S1). The correct assembly of all point-mutation, complementation, and overexpression vectors was verified by sequencing with primers listed in Table S2 in File S1.

Fungal transformations and analysis of transformants

The transformation of *F. fujikuroi* protoplasts was performed as previously described (Tudzynski *et al.* 1999). Deletion cassettes were amplified from the pΔ*set2::hphR*, pΔ*ash1::hphR*, pΔ*ash1::natR* or pΔ*kdm4::hphR* vectors with primers 5F/3R (Table S1 in File S1), and used for transformation. Furthermore, 10–40 μg of the *PvuII/XbaI*-digested pH3K36A (Figure S1A in File S1), the *PvuII/XbaI*-digested pH3K36A^C (Figure S1B in File S1), the *PvuII*-linearized pSET2^C (Figure S2A in File S1), the *ScaI*-digested pASH1^C or pASH1^{H537K} (Figure S2B in File S1), or the circular pOE::KDM4 (Figure S3C in File S1) vectors was applied. Gained transformants were selected using 100 μg/ml hygromycin B (Calbiochem, Darmstadt, Germany) or 100 μg/ml nourseothricin (Werner-Bioagents, Jena, Germany) resistance markers.

The homologous integration of resistance cassettes and the absence of WT genes were shown by Southern blot analysis and/or diagnostic polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Therefore, diagnostic PCRs for five independent deletion mutants of Δ*set2*, six deletion mutants of Δ*ash1*, six double deletion mutants of Δ*set2*/Δ*ash1* (*ASH1* deletion in Δ*set2* T2), as well as three deletion mutants of Δ*kdm4* are depicted in Figures S4A, S5A, and S6, A and B in File S1. Furthermore, the correct recombination of 5′ and 3′ flanks, and the absence of untransformed nuclei was verified for five independent *H3K36A* mutants (Figure S1C in File S1), one *H3K36A*^C mutant (Figure S1D in File S1), and two *SET2*^C mutants (Figure S2C in File S1), as well as three *ASH1*^C and three *ASH1*^{H537K} mutants (Figure S2D in File S1). The correct *in loco* integration of pOE::KDM4 in three independent OE::KDM4 mutants was shown when grown on CM with hygromycin B (Figure S3D in File S1). For the complemented transformants, it was confirmed that they were unable to grow on hygromycin B (deletion phenotype), but were only able to grow on

nourseothricin (complementation phenotype). Additionally, the presence of the point-mutation in *H3K36A* and *ASH1*^{H537K} mutants was verified by sequencing.

DNA analysis via Southern blot and PCR

Isolation of plasmid DNA from *S. cerevisiae* FY834 as well as *Escherichia coli* Top10F⁺ (Invitrogen, Darmstadt, Germany) was performed with the NucleoSpin Plasmid Kit (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany). Furthermore, the isolation of *F. fujikuroi* gDNA from lyophilized and ground mycelium was achieved following the protocol of Cenis (1992). Deletion mutants were analyzed for ectopically integrated deletion cassettes via Southern blot analysis (Southern 1975). For this purpose, gDNA of the mutants and the WT was digested with an appropriate restriction enzyme (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Schwerte, Germany), separated in a 1% (w/v) agarose gel, and then transferred to a nylon membrane (Nytran SPC; Whatman, Sanford, FL) via downward alkali blotting (Ausubel *et al.* 1987). Hybridization of membranes with ³²P-labeled probes, generated with the random oligomer-primer method (Sambrook *et al.* 1989), was performed using 3' flanks (Table S1 in File S1) as templates. Successful verification of five independent Δ set2 and six Δ ash1 mutants can be found in Figures S4, B and C and S5, B and C in File S1, respectively. For amplification by PCR, BioTherm DNA Polymerase (GeneCraft, Lüdinghausen, Germany), TaKaRa LA Taq DNA Polymerase (TaKaRa Bio, Saint-Germain-en-Laye, France) or Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (Finnzymes, Vantaa, Finland) were used. The stability of subtelomeric regions and the accessory chromosome XII was tested with primers listed in Table S3 in File S1.

Clamped homogeneous electric fields (CHEF) gel analysis

Protoplasts of the WT and Δ ash1 strains were generated as described elsewhere (Tudzynski *et al.* 1999). The protoplasts were resuspended in 1.2% (w/v) InCert agarose (Lonza Group AG, Basel, Switzerland), and run in a 1% (w/v) CHEF gel (Teunissen *et al.* 2002). *S. cerevisiae* and *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* chromosomes served as molecular size markers (Bio-Rad, Munich, Germany).

Expression analysis via quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR)

RNA from lyophilized and ground mycelium was extracted with the TRI Reagent (Sigma-Aldrich). For expression analysis by qRT-PCR, 1 μ g of DNase I-treated (Thermo Fisher Scientific) total RNA was transcribed into cDNA using oligo dT primers and SuperScript II Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen), and then iQ SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad) was applied for the reaction in a C1000 Touch Thermal Cycler with a CFX96 Real-Time System (Bio-Rad). Transcript levels of regulator genes (*SET2*, *ASH1*, *SET1*, and *KDM4*), SM genes (*FSR1*, *BIK1*, *FUS1*, and *CPS/KS*), and the constitutively expressed reference genes (*FFUJ_07710*, GDP mannose transporter gene; *FFUJ_05652*, related actin gene; and

FFUJ_08398, ubiquitin gene) were determined in duplicate or triplicate with primers listed in Table S4 in File S1. With an annealing temperature of 60°, primer efficiencies were 90–110%, and the results were calculated with the $\Delta\Delta$ Ct-method (Pfaffl 2001).

Expression analysis via microarray

The WT, Δ set2 T1, and Δ ash1 T2 were cultivated in ICI medium with 6 or 60 mM glutamine for 3 days in duplicate. Total RNA was isolated as described above. However, an additional clean-up step with the NucleoSpin RNA Clean-up Kit (Macherey-Nagel) was performed. The microarrays were designed by Agilent Technologies (Santa Clara, CA), and followed by hybridization performed at Arrows Biomedical (Münster, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol. For the heatmaps, the eight different profiles were extracted first, and were then clustered with Perseus 1.5.8.5 (Max Planck Institute of Biochemistry, Martinsried, Germany) (Tyanova *et al.* 2016) using the standard parameters. Genes upregulated in the mutants had a log₂-fold change of ≥ 2 (green), downregulated genes of ≤ -2 (red). The microarray data, additional information on the sample preparation and processing of data are available at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) under the accession number GSE90947.

Western blot analysis

Proteins used for Western blot analysis were extracted from lyophilized and ground mycelium as described elsewhere (Rösler *et al.* 2016). After protein quantification with Bradford Reagent (Sigma-Aldrich), 15 μ g (H3K36me3, H3 C-terminal) or 30 μ g (H3K36me2) of the protein extract was separated by sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis using a 15% running gel (Laemmli 1970). Proteins were transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane (Amersham Protran Premium 0.45 μ m NC; GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Little Chalfont, UK) by semidry electroblotting, then probing was performed with the following primary antibodies (Active Motif, La Hulpe, Belgium): anti-H3K36me2 (#39256; 1:5000), anti-H3K36me3 (#61101; 1:10,000) and anti-H3 C-terminal (#39163; 1:10,000). Donkey anti-rabbit IgG-HRP served as secondary antibody (sc-2317, 1:10,000; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Heidelberg, Germany). Chemoluminescence was detected using the NovexVR ECL Chemiluminescent Substrate Reagent Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The relative global amount of H3K36me3 in Western blots was determined with a photo editing software (Adobe Photoshop, San Jose, CA): the intensity of the WT band was set to 100%, and that of the background to 0%.

ChIP analysis

The WT and mutant strains were grown in ICI medium with 6 or 60 mM glutamine for 3 days prior to crosslinking with formaldehyde (1%, v/v, final concentration) for 15 min at 28° and 90 rpm, and subsequent quenching with glycine (125 mM final concentration) for 5 min at 37°. The

mycelium was harvested, shock-frozen with liquid nitrogen, and ground to a powder. Further sample preparation was performed essentially as described elsewhere (Heimel *et al.* 2010; Gacek-Matthews *et al.* 2015). For ChIP-Seq analysis, the cells were lysed using a cell mill (Retsch MM200, 25 Hz, 5 min; Retsch Technology, Haan, Germany), and the chromatin was sonicated using a S220 Focused-ultrasonicator (Covaris, Woburn, MA). Sonication was set to yield DNA fragments with an average size of 150–250 bp. For ChIP-qRT-PCR, the Bioruptor Plus (Diagenode, Seraing, Belgium) was applied for sonication. The ChIP analyses were done with the anti-H3K36me3 (#61101; Active Motif) and anti-H3K27me3 (#39155; Active Motif) antibodies, then Dynabeads Protein A (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was applied for precipitating the chromatin-antibody-conjugate. The WT and *Δash1* input samples (strains grown in 60 mM glutamine) were not treated with antibody. One sample each (without replicate) was sequenced with a Genome Sequencer Illumina HiSeq and analyzed bioinformatically at GATC Biotech (Konstanz, Germany). The WT input sample was sequenced at the Karlsruhe Institute of Technology (facility at the Institute of Toxicology and Genetics, Karlsruhe, Germany). For verifying the ChIP-Seq data, ChIP-qRT-PCR of GA, BIK, and ubiquitin genes was performed in quadruplicate, using primers that bind at the 3' gene ends (Table S4 in File S1). For H3K27me3, the use of primers binding at the 5' ends of these genes gave very similar results.

Furthermore, we retrieved mapped ChIP-Seq reads from GATC Biotech, and calculated normalized locus-specific chromatin state (NLCS) values using EpiChIP (Hebenstreit *et al.* 2011). For each predicted gene, we considered reads that were mapped on the sequence between 1 kb 5'-upstream of the start codon to the stop codon. Genes with a signal probability >0.95 were defined as significantly enriched for H3K36me3. We applied a quantile normalization on all NLCS values for being able to compare NLCS values between experimental conditions.

Chemical analysis of SM production

The WT, *Δset2*, *Δash1*, and *H3K36A* mutants were grown in ICI medium with 6 mM (BIK, GA₃) or 60 mM (FUS and FSA) glutamine, and the WT was grown in ICI with 6 mM NaNO₃ (for WT levels of FSR) for 7 days in triplicate. FSR was not produced by *Δset2* mutants under noninducing conditions (6 mM glutamine), while BIK produced under this condition by *Δset2* and WT was extracted from the mycelium (Janevska *et al.* 2016) and taken up in 20 μl dimethyl sulfoxide + 0.75 ml acetonitrile (20%, v/v). BIK and FSR produced by *Δash1* and *H3K36A* mutants (6 mM glutamine) were analyzed directly in comparison to the WT (6 mM glutamine, 6 mM NaNO₃). FUS and FSA were also measured directly without further processing; the supernatant was filter-sterilized using 0.45 μm membrane filters (BGB Analytik, Schloßböckelheim, Germany). GA₃ was extracted and concentrated from 20 ml supernatant with Sep-Pak C₁₈ cartridges (Waters, Eschborn, Germany), and subsequent elution with 2 ml acetonitrile (55%, v/v). Analysis via high

performance liquid chromatography coupled to diode array detection (HPLC-DAD) of BIK, FSR, FUS, and FSA was performed essentially as described by Studt *et al.* (2012), while HPLC-DAD analysis of GA₃ was carried out as described by Wiemann *et al.* (2012), both analyses on a VWR Hitachi Chromaster HPLC system (VWR International, Darmstadt, Germany) with a EZChrome Elite 3.3.2 SP2 software (Agilent Technologies). The production of all metabolites was related to the dry weight of the strains. For this purpose, the mycelium was harvested, freeze-dried, and weighed.

Rice pathogenicity assay

The infection of surface-sterilized seedlings of *Oryza sativa* spp. *japonica* cv. Nipponbare with mycelial plugs of WT, *Δset2* T1 and *Δash1* T2 was performed as described elsewhere (Janevska *et al.* 2017). The gDNA of four infected and lyophilized rice roots per sample was extracted using the NucleoSpin Plant II Kit (Macherey-Nagel) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The fungal gDNA was normalized against the plant gDNA, both quantified by qRT-PCR using the ΔCt method (Livak and Schmittgen 2001), as well as primer pairs BIK1_3'ChIP_F/BIK1_3'ChIP_R and ITS1P/ITS4 (Table S4 in File S1), respectively (Studt *et al.* 2017). The annealing temperatures were 62 and 55° for *BIK1* and *ITS*, respectively.

Data availability

Sequence data are available at GenBank and the relevant accession numbers can be found throughout the text, and in Tables S1–S4 in File S1. Microarray expression data are available at GEO with the accession number GSE90947.

Results

Identification of the *F. fujikuroi* H3K36 methyltransferases *Set2* and *Ash1*

A BLASTp search with the extracted SET domain (InterPro IPR001214) of *S. cerevisiae* S288C *Set2* (NCBI NP_012367) (Strahl *et al.* 2002) revealed two homologs in *F. fujikuroi* (Figure 1A). The amino acid sequence of the SET domain of *S. cerevisiae* *Set2* is 63 and 42% identical to the SET domains of FFUJ_08690 and FFUJ_05655, respectively. The visualization of the protein domains of these two putative histone methyltransferases showed that they share the typical SET domain organization of members of the H3K36-specific *Set2* family, namely a combination of SET, Associated with SET, and Post-SET domains (Figure 1, A and B) (Adhvaryu *et al.* 2005; Brosch *et al.* 2008). Furthermore, FFUJ_08690 was identified as the direct yeast *Set2* homolog due to the presence of additional conserved domains, i.e., the RNA polymerase II interaction domain (*Set2* Rbp1 interacting, SRI) and the WW/Rsp5/WWP domain with two conserved tryptophan residues, possibly involved in protein–protein interaction (Strahl *et al.* 2002; Kizer *et al.* 2005; Gao *et al.* 2006; Brosch *et al.* 2008). Therefore, FFUJ_08690 was designated as *F. fujikuroi* *Set2* (Figure 1A).

A BLASTp search with the second Set2 homolog FFUJ_05655 showed that it has high similarity to a second member of the Set2 family, the H3K36-specific methyltransferase Ash1 (*Drosophila* discs absent, small, or homeotic-1) identified in higher eukaryotes, including *D. melanogaster* (Tanaka *et al.* 2007). The SET domain of *D. melanogaster* Ash1 (AAB01100; GenBank) is 47 and 37% identical to the SET domains of FFUJ_05655 and *F. fujikuroi* Set2 (FFUJ_08690), respectively. Therefore, FFUJ_05655 was designated as *F. fujikuroi* Ash1 (Figure 1A). It is noteworthy that *F. fujikuroi* Ash1 is much shorter when compared to the *D. melanogaster* Ash1 homolog (786 vs. 2210 amino acids), which harbors additional domains, *i.e.*, a plant homeodomain (PHD)-type zinc finger (IPR001965) and a Bromo adjacent homology domain (IPR001025) (Tanaka *et al.* 2007). A bioinformatic analysis performed by Brosch *et al.* (2008) confirmed that filamentous fungi, such as *A. nidulans*, *N. crassa*, and *Ustilago maydis*, but not the fission yeast *S. pombe*, encode two homologs of the Set2 family. However, the Ash1 homolog has not been analyzed for filamentous fungi so far.

Single and double deletion mutants were successfully generated for *SET2* and *ASH1*. Furthermore, the target lysine residue of these putative H3K36 methyltransferases was exchanged for alanine, gaining *H3K36A* mutants, which can neither be methylated nor acetylated at this residue. First of all, the global H3K36 methylation level in these mutants was compared to that of the WT via Western blot analysis using the specific antibodies for H3K36me3 and H3K36me2. While the global H3K36me3 level was strongly reduced (17–28% left) in $\Delta set2$ transformants (T), it was only slightly affected (60–76% left) upon deletion of *ASH1* (Figure 1C). The global H3K36me2 level was marginally reduced in both deletion backgrounds, suggesting that Set2 and Ash1 almost equally contribute to global H3K36me2 levels (Figure 1C). The H3K36me3 signal was fully abolished in the $\Delta set2/\Delta ash1$ double deletion and the *H3K36A* mutants as expected (Figure 1, C and D). Judging from the obtained signal intensities, it can be assumed that the H3K36me3 mark is more abundant than the H3K36me2 mark in *F. fujikuroi* (Figure 1C). Similarly, a mass spectrometric analysis of histone proteins in *A. nidulans* showed that 28 and 64% of H3 proteins carried K36me2 and K36me3 modifications, respectively (Gacek-Matthews *et al.* 2015). H3K36 acetylation was hardly detected in the *F. fujikuroi* WT, as shown earlier (Rösler *et al.* 2016), and was therefore not analyzed in the mutants by Western blot analysis.

Summarizing, Set2 and Ash1 are the only H3K36-specific methyltransferases in *F. fujikuroi*, and Set2 contributes with a considerably higher extent to the global H3K36me3 level compared to Ash1.

Deletion of *SET2* and *ASH1* strongly affects vegetative growth and conidiation

Next, we analyzed the impact of *SET2* and *ASH1* single and double deletions as well as *H3K36A* mutation on the vegetative growth of *F. fujikuroi*. A plate assay with complex

and minimal media showed a growth defect for all strains on all tested media, in which the $\Delta ash1$ mutants exhibited the most severe phenotype with the strongest reduction in colony diameter (Figure 2A). This was especially interesting, as the global level of H3K36me3 was only slightly reduced upon deletion of *ASH1* (Figure 1, C and D). Surprisingly, the growth defect of the double deletion and the *H3K36A* mutants was less severe compared to the $\Delta ash1$ single deletion mutant (Figure 2). *In loco* complementation of the mutants with the respective native genes restored normal vegetative growth (Figure S7, A, C, and D in File S1). Besides, both Ash1 and Set2 were shown to be required for conidiation, because formation of microconidia was almost fully abolished in all mutants (Figure S7E in File S1).

In order to elucidate whether the methyltransferase activity of Ash1 is required to fully complement the $\Delta ash1$ phenotype, we introduced a gene copy carrying a point mutation within the SET domain of Ash1 (H537K), gaining *ASH1*^{H537K} mutants, as described for the *Drosophila* *ASH1* gene (Tanaka *et al.* 2007). Complementation of $\Delta ash1$ with *ASH1*^{H537K} neither restored the H3K36 methylation defect (Figure S7B in File S1), nor the growth defect (Figure S7A in File S1). Therefore, the observed growth defect of $\Delta ash1$ is most likely due to the loss of function as methyltransferase.

In summary, all analyzed mutants showed more ($\Delta ash1$) or less ($\Delta set2$, $\Delta set2/\Delta ash1$, *H3K36A*) severe growth defects. Both Ash1 and Set2 are essential for conidia formation.

Ash1 deposits H3K36me3 at subtelomeric regions contributing to their stability

In order to gain deeper insight into the distribution of H3K36me3 in *F. fujikuroi*, and to further analyze the role of Ash1 in its deposition, we performed ChIP-Seq using an H3K36me3 antibody. We cultivated the WT and one of the $\Delta ash1$ mutants (T2) in the presence of limiting (6 mM, N[−]) and saturating (60 mM, N⁺) amounts of glutamine—conditions that are important for the biosynthesis of different SMs. As a control, the WT and $\Delta ash1$ input samples, which had not been treated with antibody, were sequenced and therefore represent a whole-genome sequencing of these strains. The ChIP-Seq experiment revealed that H3K36me3 is covering entire chromosomes in *F. fujikuroi*, shown for chromosomes I, X, and XII (Figure 3), and chromosomes II, V, and XI (Figure S8 in File S1).

Comparing the distribution of H3K36me3 marks along the chromosomes between the WT and the $\Delta ash1$ mutant showed a significant reduction of this mark at subtelomeric regions in the mutant. In addition, sequencing of the $\Delta ash1$ input sample revealed the absence of two subtelomeric regions of chromosomes I and X in this mutant (Figure 3, A and B), suggesting that H3K36me3 deposited by Ash1 directly or indirectly influences chromosome stability. PCR analysis of five additional $\Delta ash1$ transformants showed that a loss of the outermost gene (*FFUJ_11196*) close to the telomere of chromosome X occurred in five out of six independent primary transformants, while a larger region of *ca.* 430 kb up to

Figure 1 *F. fujikuroi* Set2 and Ash1 are H3K36-specific histone methyltransferases. (A) Schematic representation of the domain structure of *S. cerevisiae* and *F. fujikuroi* Set2 and *F. fujikuroi* Ash1. (B) Domain description including the respective InterPro accession numbers. (C and D) Western blot analysis using the H3K36me3, H3K36me2, and H3 antibodies. The WT and indicated strains were grown for 3 days in liquid culture (60 mM glutamine) prior to protein extraction; 15 µg of the protein extract was loaded on to the gel for H3K36me3 and H3 antibodies, while 30 µg was loaded for H3K36me2. The relative global amount of H3K36me3 was determined using a photo editing software, and the intensity of the WT band was set to 100%.

PKS14 (FFUJ_11034) was missing in three out of six transformants (Figure 3B). The smallest chromosome, the accessory chromosome XII, was shown to be strongly depleted in H3K36me3 in Δ ash1 T2, which seems to influence its stability. This was underlined by the complete loss of chromosome XII in Δ ash1 T30, which was shown by PCR using primers for genes close to the telomeres (FFUJ_14091; FFUJ_14261) and close to the centromere (FFUJ_14235; FFUJ_14241) of chromosome XII (Figure 3C). Detailed sequence analysis of the ChIP-Seq data of the Δ ash1 input sample revealed the presence of novel telomeric repeats at the breakage points of chromosomes I and X: five conserved repeats of “TAGGGT” were identified, but the novel telomeres are likely to extend beyond that region (Figure 3, A and B).

Intrigued by these findings, we performed an experimental evolution approach by directly observing the process of gene losses at work. We analyzed the presence of subtelomeric

genes of all 12 chromosomes after 20 generations, with 3 days of growth per generation, i.e., after 60 days of growth on solid complex medium. Further losses were observed for one, or several, of the six independent Δ ash1 mutants on chromosomes V, VI, VIII, and IX. Furthermore, the accessory chromosome XII was now missing in three out of six mutants (Figure S9A in File S1). Only small phenotypic differences concerning the vegetative growth of the strains were observed after the 20 passages (Figure S9E in File S1). In contrast, no losses of subtelomeric genes were found for five independent Δ set2 mutants (Figure S9B in File S1) and six independent Δ set2/ Δ ash1 double mutants (Figure S9D in File S1). Chromosome XII was missing only in one out of five independent *H3K36A* mutants (Figure S9C in File S1), suggesting that the observed genomic instability is characteristic only for *ASH1* single mutants. In order to further elucidate *Δash1* chromosome structure, pulse field gel electrophoresis

Figure 2 Influence of *SET2* and *ASH1* deletion on vegetative growth. (A) The WT, as well as two independent mutants of $\Delta set2$, $\Delta ash1$, and $H3K36A$ were grown on complex (V8 and CM) and minimal (CD) media for 7 days in the dark in triplicate. (B) The WT, $\Delta set2$ T2, $\Delta ash1$ T2, $H3K36A$ T8, and three independent $\Delta set2/\Delta ash1$ double mutants were grown under above described conditions.

combined with CHEF was performed for three initial, and six evolved, strains of $\Delta ash1$ in comparison to the WT. No major differences were found for the nine strains, excluding gross chromosomal rearrangements (Figure S10 in File S1). However, the CHEF gel verified the loss of the smallest chromosome XII in some of the strains, and the loss of the outer part of chromosome X (432 kb in the sequenced strain $\Delta ash1$ T2) resulting in a shift of its size (Figure S10 in File S1).

Taken together, single deletion of *ASH1*, but not of *SET2* or the respective double deletion, resulted in losses of subtelomeric regions, and/or loss of the dispensable chromosome XII. The ongoing losses of subtelomeric regions after 20 passages of $\Delta ash1$ mutant strains to fresh medium suggest that *Ash1* contributes to genomic stability.

Transcriptome analysis of *SET2* and *ASH1* deletion mutants

In yeast, it has been shown that *Set2* interacts with the elongating form of RNA polymerase II, thereby affecting gene expression (Krogan *et al.* 2003). To investigate how *H3K36* methylation by *Set2* and *Ash1* affects mRNA transcription in *F. fujikuroi*, we performed a genome-wide microarray expression analysis, cultivating the WT, $\Delta set2$ T1 and $\Delta ash1$ T2 mutants in the presence of 6 and 60 mM glutamine. Based on the selection criteria of a fourfold change in expression ($\log_2$ -fold change ≥ 2 or ≤ -2) at the 95% confidence interval (False Discovery Rate < 0.05), 4087 of the 14,816

annotated genes (27.6%) were affected in a *Set2*- and/or *Ash1*-dependent manner in at least one condition; 3134 and 2170 genes were affected under nitrogen-limitation and nitrogen-surplus conditions, respectively (Figure 4), so that an overlap of 964 genes were regulated under both conditions. A larger number of genes was shown to be regulated (directly or indirectly) by *Set2* and *Ash1* in a similar manner. For example, in the presence of 6 mM glutamine, 550 and 374 genes were up- and downregulated in both $\Delta set2$ and $\Delta ash1$, respectively, while only 28 genes were regulated by *Set2* and *Ash1* in an antagonistic manner (Figure 4A).

Interestingly, a great number of genes encoding putative TFs and histone-modifying enzymes were identified as direct or indirect target of *Set2* and *Ash1*: 281 TF- and 34 histone modifier-encoding genes were fourfold up- or downregulated in at least one strain under at least one condition (Figure S11A in File S1). Furthermore, *SET2* and *ASH1* were found to be downregulated in both $\Delta ash1$ and $\Delta set2$, respectively (Figure S11, B and C in File S1), indicating a negative feedback on the transcription of *SET2* when *ASH1* is missing, and vice versa. Furthermore, the putative *H3K4* methyltransferase gene *SET1/FFUJ_02475* (Liu *et al.* 2015) was downregulated in $\Delta ash1$ (Figure S11, B and C in File S1), indicating a cross-talk between histone modifiers on a transcriptional level. Additionally, these data suggest that many of the observed phenotypic effects of *SET2* and *ASH1* deletion may be indirect

Figure 3 H3K36me3 distribution on chromosomes I, X, and XII. The WT and $\Delta ash1$ T2 were grown for 3 days in liquid culture in the presence of limiting (6 mM, N-) and saturating (60 mM, N+) amounts of glutamine prior to ChIP-Seq analysis using the H3K36me3 antibody. The WT and $\Delta ash1$ input samples were not treated with antibody before sequencing. Shown are (A) chromosome I, (B) chromosome X, and (C) chromosome XII, as well as the respective SM key genes located on these chromosomes. For the PCR analysis of subtelomere/chromosome stability, six independent $\Delta ash1$ mutants were analyzed using gene-specific primers. When several PCRs for the same chromosome arm are shown, “Tel” indicates the use of primers for the outermost gene close to the telomere, while “Cen” indicates the use of primers for the innermost gene close to the centromere. WT DNA and H₂O were used as positive and negative controls, respectively. For each chromosome, control PCRs are shown.

indeed, i.e., they might be mediated by unknown downstream targets of Set2 and Ash1.

To evaluate whether the deposition of H3K36me3 correlates with active transcription in *F. fujikuroi*, we calculated the degree of chromatin modification per gene in terms of normalized locus-specific chromatin state (NLCS) values (Hebenstreit *et al.* 2011). After that, we correlated the fold changes in NLCS values to gene expression fold changes between $\Delta ash1$ and WT in the presence of 6 and 60 mM glutamine. For both comparisons, we could not determine a significant correlation between H3K36me3 modification and gene expression (Pearson = -0.0228 for 6 mM glutamine; Pearson = -0.0065 for 60 mM glutamine) (Figure S12 in File S1). We also compared the distribution of gene expression of genes with a significant chromatin modification signal

(signal probability >95%) to genes without significant signal. For 6 and 60 mM glutamine, no significant difference between the two distributions could be determined (Figure S13 in File S1).

Taken together, both histone methyltransferases directly or indirectly influence the expression of 4087 out of the 14,816 annotated genes in *F. fujikuroi*, including a large set of TF- and histone modifier-encoding genes. However, the H3K36 methylation pattern does not correlate with transcriptional activity.

Deregulation of secondary metabolism upon deletion of SET2 and ASH1

Among the genes affected by single deletion of *SET2* and/or *ASH1* were several known and yet uncharacterized putative SM key genes (Figure S14, A and B in File S1). As already

Figure 4 Microarray expression analysis of differentially regulated genes in $\Delta set2$ T1 and $\Delta ash1$ T2. The WT and the two deletion mutants were grown in liquid culture in the presence of limiting (6 mM, N-) and saturating (60 mM, N+) amounts of glutamine (Gln) for 3 days prior to RNA extraction. Data are mean values ($n = 2$). Differential regulation is shown for (A) 6 mM Gln and (B) 60 mM Gln. Genes upregulated in the deletion mutants compared to the WT are green ($\log_2$ -fold change ≥ 2), downregulated genes are red ($\log_2$ -fold change ≤ -2), and not differentially expressed genes are black (between -2 and 2). The eight profiles were extracted first, and then the genes were clustered for each profile.

reflected in the overall transcriptome (Figure 4), most of the SM key genes were up- or downregulated in both $\Delta set2$ and $\Delta ash1$, and therefore were regulated (directly or indirectly) in a similar manner by the two methyltransferases (Figure S14A in File S1). Among the cryptic SM key genes without an assigned product, *PKS-NRPS9* (*FFUJ_14695*) and *NRPS4* (*FFUJ_08113*) were shown to be upregulated in both $\Delta set2$ and $\Delta ash1$ (Figure S14A in File S1).

To further evaluate the impact on secondary metabolism, $\Delta set2$, $\Delta ash1$, and *H3K36A* mutants were grown in comparison to the WT under SM-inducing conditions, and the SM levels were determined via HPLC-DAD. First of all, the biosynthesis of the two red pigments BIK and FSR was analyzed. While BIK production was unaffected upon deletion of *SET2*, it was downregulated in $\Delta ash1$ and *H3K36A* mutants under its favorable culture condition (6 mM glutamine, acidic pH)

(Wiemann *et al.* 2009). At the same time, FSR production was deregulated in $\Delta ash1$ and *H3K36A*, accumulating under nonfavorable acidic conditions (Figure 5A). In the WT, FSR gene expression and product formation are induced in the presence of limiting amounts of nitrate (6 mM NaNO_3), conferring an alkaline ambient pH (Studt *et al.* 2012).

Concerning the biosynthesis of the mycotoxins FUS and FSA, their production was upregulated two- to fivefold in all mutants under their favorable culture condition, 60 mM glutamine (Niehaus *et al.* 2013, 2014) (Figure 5B). The production of the bioactive phytohormone GA_3 was shown to be downregulated in all mutants: GA_3 production was not detected in $\Delta ash1$ mutants, and GA_3 levels were down to ca. 5% in $\Delta set2$ in comparison to the WT (Figure 5C). SM production levels correlated well with the microarray expression analysis of SM genes for $\Delta set2$ and $\Delta ash1$ (Figure S14, A and B in File S1).

Figure 5 Secondary metabolite biosynthesis is deregulated in $\Delta set2$, $\Delta ash1$, and $H3K36A$ mutants. The WT and two independent mutants of $\Delta set2$, $\Delta ash1$, and $H3K36A$ were grown in liquid culture for 7 days and analyzed via HPLC-DAD. The production was related to the dry weight of the strains and the production level of the WT was set to 100%. Data are mean values $\pm$ SD ($n = 3$). For statistical analysis, the mutants were compared with the WT using the student's t -test: * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$. (A) The strains were grown in the presence of 6 mM glutamine, the producing condition for BIK. The production of FSR in the mutants was related to the WT production under FSR-inducing conditions (6 mM $NaNO_3$). (B) The strains were grown in the presence of 60 mM glutamine, the producing condition for FUS, and FSA. (C) The strains were grown in the presence of 6 mM glutamine, the producing condition for gibberellic acid GA_3 . n.d., not detected.

Next, H3K36me3 levels were analyzed for the WT and the $\Delta set2$, $\Delta ash1$, and $H3K36A$ mutants at the GA and BIK gene clusters (subtelomeric regions) and at the euchromatic ubiquitin gene for direct comparison by ChIP with subsequent qRT-PCR. Furthermore, a possible cross-talk to the heterochromatic mark H3K27me3 was evaluated, which has been described for human cells (Yuan *et al.* 2011). The analysis verified the ChIP-Seq data and showed that H3K36me3 at the GA cluster is deposited by Ash1, while H3K36me3 at the BIK cluster is Set2-derived (Figure 6, A and B and Figure 7A). Intriguingly, an increase in the heterochromatic mark H3K27me3 was observed for both the GA and BIK cluster in the $\Delta ash1$, but not in the $\Delta set2$ or $H3K36A$ mutants (Figure 7B). In fact, GA and BIK clusters can be found at subtelomeric regions of facultative heterochromatin at chromosome V (*DTC1*, *PKS4*; Figure S8B in File S1)—regions that are generally targeted by Ash1, as described above. In contrast, H3K27me3 was not increased at the euchromatic ubiquitin gene in $\Delta ash1$, which lies in a region that is H3K36-methylated by Set2 (Figure 6C and Figure 7).

No correlation between the deposition of these two methylation marks (ChIP-qRT-PCR) and GA or BIK product formation (HPLC-DAD) was found: all mutants showed a reduced GA production, but only $\Delta ash1$ and $H3K36A$ had lower levels of H3K36me3, while $\Delta ash1$ additionally accumulated increased levels of H3K27me3 at GA cluster genes (Figure 5C and Figure 7). Moreover, both $\Delta ash1$ and $H3K36A$ showed a reduced BIK production, but $H3K36A$ had lower levels of H3K36me3, whereas $\Delta ash1$ had higher levels of H3K27me3 at BIK cluster genes (Figure 5A and Figure 7).

Furthermore, little correlation between the deposition of H3K36me3 (ChIP-Seq) and the transcription of GA and BIK cluster genes (microarray) was observed for the WT and $\Delta ash1$: in the WT, the mark was found under both limiting and saturating amounts of glutamine, while GA and BIK genes were expressed only under nitrogen limitation (Figure 6, A and B). Moreover, in $\Delta ash1$, an upregulation of BIK genes was detected under nonfavorable high nitrogen conditions, possibly correlating with enhanced levels of H3K36me3 (Figure 6B). However, this did not result in an efficient production of the red pigment under nonfavorable conditions, judging from HPLC-DAD analyses and the pigmentation of the flasks (Figure S15, A and B in File S1).

In summary, a large impact on secondary metabolism was detected upon deletion of *SET2* and *ASH1*, although the effects are likely to be indirect, and not mediated via H3K36me3 or H3K27me3 levels at the gene clusters (tested for GA and BIK). Only in $\Delta ash1$, but not in $\Delta set2$ or $H3K36A$ mutants, elevated levels of H3K27me3 were detected at subtelomeric regions.

Deletion of *SET2* and *ASH1* results in an attenuated pathogenicity on rice

F. fujikuroi causes *bakanae* disease of rice due to its ability to produce GAs, a family of plant hormones. As $\Delta ash1$ and $\Delta set2$ mutants showed a fully or almost fully abolished production

of GA₃, respectively (Figure 5C), we performed a pathogenicity assay on rice. Healthy rice seedlings were infected with mycelium of the WT, $\Delta set2$ T1 and $\Delta ash1$ T2. Infection with the deletion mutants did not result in the chlorotic, thin, curled, and hyper-elongated internodes of rice, while infection with the WT showed this characteristic *bakanae* symptom (Figure 8A). Nevertheless, rice plants infected with $\Delta ash1$, and especially $\Delta set2$, differed from the noninfected plants (H₂O negative control) by their extended internodes (Figure 8A). These data suggest that minimal amounts of GA are produced *in planta* by $\Delta ash1$, in contrast to *in vitro* conditions (Figure 5C). The quantification of the fungal DNA within infected rice roots by qRT-PCR revealed that $\Delta set2$, and, especially, $\Delta ash1$ mutants were not as efficient in colonizing the rice roots as the WT (Figure 8B).

***F. fujikuroi* Kdm4 is an H3K36-specific demethylase**

To analyze the putative antagonist for H3K36me3 deposited by *F. fujikuroi* Set2 and Ash1, we performed a BLASTp search to identify the *F. fujikuroi* homolog of the JmjC demethylase KdmA that has been described for *A. nidulans* FGSC A4 (Gacek-Matthews *et al.* 2015). The overall amino acid identity between *A. nidulans* KdmA (AN1060) and FFUJ_01769—the only identified homolog—is 47% with a query cover of 63%. However, the homology of the extracted JmjC catalytic domains (IPR003347) is much higher, having an amino acid identity of 79%. Furthermore, *A. nidulans* KdmA and *F. fujikuroi* FFUJ_01769 show a conserved domain structure, both additionally harboring JmjN (IPR003349) and PHD-type zinc finger (IPR001965) domains (Gacek-Matthews *et al.* 2015). Therefore, FFUJ_01769 was designated as *F. fujikuroi* Kdm4 according to the general nomenclature (Allis *et al.* 2007).

Single deletion mutants of *KDM4* were generated and analyzed for their vegetative growth, conidiation, and SM production in comparison to the WT. A plate assay with complex and minimal media showed a WT-like growth for independent $\Delta kdm4$ mutants (Figure S16A in File S1). The plate assay was repeated under increasing light conditions and in the presence of 0–40 mM H₂O₂ to induce oxidative stress. However, no phenotypic difference was observed compared to the WT also under these stress conditions (Figure S16B in File S1). Furthermore, SM production of BIK, FUS, FSA, and GA₃ was unaffected upon deletion of $\Delta kdm4$ (Figure S17B in File S1). Only a slight effect on sporulation was observed, with $\Delta kdm4$ mutants consistently producing three- to four-times more conidia than the WT in independent experiments (Figure S17A in File S1). Indeed, there was no upregulation of the global H3K36me3 level upon deletion of *KDM4* within the detection limits of the performed Western blot analysis (Figure S17C in File S1), which likely explains the mild phenotype observed.

In contrast, constitutive overexpression of *KDM4* via the strong *PoliC* promoter from *A. nidulans* exhibited the most severe phenotype, as several rounds of purification via protoplast generation and selection on the resistance marker

Figure 6 Comparison between H3K36me3 levels and absolute expression at the GA and BIK clusters, as well as at the *UBI* reference gene. The WT and Δ ash1 T2 were grown for 3 days in liquid culture in the presence of limiting (6 mM, N-) and saturating (60 mM, N+) amounts of Gln prior to ChIP-Seq analysis using the H3K36me3 antibody. The WT and Δ ash1 input samples were not treated with antibody before sequencing. Shown are the (A) GA cluster, (B) BIK cluster and (C) *UBI* as well as adjacent regions. Absolute expression profiles are taken from the microarray analysis, and the data are mean values ($n = 2$).

hygromycin B were insufficient to gain stable overexpression strains. OE::*KDM4* mutants showed a severe growth defect on complex medium in the presence of hygromycin B; however, this phenotype was completely lost when grown in its absence (Figure S3A in File S1). Real-time expression analysis revealed that *KDM4* was not overexpressed when the strains were grown in the absence of hygromycin B (Figure S3B in File S1), and PCR analysis verified that the construct was lost in the absence of the resistance marker (Figure S3, C and D in File S1). A Western blot analysis with two independent OE::*KDM4* transformants grown in the presence of hygromycin B showed a decreased level of global H3K36me3 (Figure S3E in File S1), providing evidence that Kdm4 represents the H3K36-specific demethylase also in *F. fujikuroi*. Unfortunately, due to the instability of the overexpression construct, further phenotypic analyses with OE::*KDM4* mutants were not feasible. Taken together, *F. fujikuroi* Kdm4 is the H3K36me3-specific antagonist to Set2 and Ash1.

Discussion

Set2 and Ash1 are two H3K36-specific histone methyltransferases

In this work, we describe the characterization of two H3K36-specific histone methyltransferases in *F. fujikuroi*, designated Set2 and Ash1. Judging from the Western blot and ChIP-Seq analyses, Set2 represents the major H3K36 methyltransferase, depositing the majority of H3K36me3, whereas Ash1 contributes to the global H3K36me3 level to a lesser extent. Both Set2 and Ash1 contribute to the global H3K36me2 level; however, this mark is less abundant in *F. fujikuroi*, a feature which has also been shown for *A. nidulans* (Gacek-Matthews *et al.* 2015). The double deletion of *SET2* and *ASH1* resulted in total loss of H3K36me3, demonstrating that no additional H3K36 methyltransferase is present in *F. fujikuroi*.

While there is only one H3K36-specific methyltransferase in budding and fission yeasts, there are two members of the Set2-family in filamentous fungi (Brosch *et al.* 2008).

Figure 7 H3K36me3 and H3K27me3 levels at the GA and BIK clusters, as well as at the *UBI* reference gene. (A) The WT, $\Delta set2$ T1, $\Delta ash1$ T2, and H3K36A T8 were grown for 3 days in liquid culture prior to ChIP-qRT-PCR using the H3K36me3 antibody. (B) The WT and indicated strains were grown for 3 days in liquid culture prior to ChIP-qRT-PCR using the H3K27me3 antibody. The WT grown in the presence of 60 mM Gln was arbitrarily set to 1, and the data are mean values $\pm$ SD ($n = 4$). For statistical analysis, $\Delta set2$ and $\Delta ash1$ were compared to the H3K36A mutant using the student's *t*-test: ** $P < 0.01$. Primers binding at the 3' gene ends were applied. For H3K27me3, the use of primers binding at the 5' ends of these genes gave very similar results.

However, only the Set2 homolog has been studied so far: in *N. crassa* and *F. verticillioides*. While there was residual H3K36me3 methylation upon deletion of *F. verticillioides* SET2 (Gu *et al.* 2017), *N. crassa* Set2 seems to account for all of the detected H3K36me2/me3 methylation (Adhvaryu *et al.* 2005). In the latter case, the Ash1-mediated H3K36 methylation in the *N. crassa* SET2 deletion background may not have been detected due to the limitations of the performed Western blot analysis (Adhvaryu *et al.* 2005). Interestingly, the *F. fujikuroi* $\Delta set2/\Delta ash1$ double deletion and the H3K36A mutants were viable despite the complete loss of all detectable H3K36me2/me3, whereas a comparable H3 mutation of lysine to leucine (H3K36L) in *N. crassa* was not (Adhvaryu *et al.* 2005).

Although Set2 and Ash1 were shown to be specific H3K36 methyltransferases, it cannot be excluded that they have further targets and can also methylate nonhistone proteins, as shown for the human H3K36 methyltransferase NSD1 (Lu *et al.* 2010).

Set2 and Ash1 deposit H3K36me3 at specific loci which is ubiquitous in *F. fujikuroi*

The ChIP-Seq analysis revealed that every single *F. fujikuroi* chromosome harbors the H3K36me3 mark and that it is

enriched in nearly every single gene. Very similar results were obtained for *A. nidulans* and *F. graminearum* via mass spectrometry and ChIP-Seq analyses, respectively (Connolly *et al.* 2013; Gacek-Matthews *et al.* 2015).

The ChIP-Seq analysis of the *F. fujikuroi* $\Delta ash1$ mutant strongly indicates that Set2 and Ash1 each deposit their H3K36me3 at very specific loci. The Ash1-mediated H3K36 methylation (lost in $\Delta ash1$) was mainly found in subtelomeric regions of facultative heterochromatin, while the remaining Set2-mediated H3K36 methylation was present within euchromatic regions. Comparing our ChIP-Seq data with those of H3K4me2 (and ChIP-qRT-PCR of H3K4me3), H3K9me3, and H3K27me3, which were generated for *F. fujikuroi* under comparable culture conditions (Wiemann *et al.* 2013; Studt *et al.* 2016a, 2017), we can draw the following conclusions: (1) very little H3K9me3 methylation is present, and can be mainly found at centromeric regions, making up the constitutive heterochromatin of *F. fujikuroi* centromeres (Wiemann *et al.* 2013). Therefore, this silencing mark rarely overlaps with any other of the analyzed histone marks. (2) Within euchromatic regions, an enrichment of the activating

Figure 8 Pathogenicity on rice of $\Delta set2$ and $\Delta ash1$ deletion mutants. (A) Germinated rice seedlings were infected with 100 ppm gibberellic acid GA₃ (positive control), H₂O (negative control), the WT, as well as $\Delta set2$ T1 and $\Delta ash1$ T2 deletion mutants for 7 days. Data are mean values $\pm$ SD ($n = 3$). For statistical analysis, the mutants were compared with the WT using the student's t -test: ** $P < 0.01$. (B) Four infected rice roots per sample were combined and freeze-dried prior to gDNA extraction. Quantification was performed with real-time PCR and the ΔC_t method. The ratio of fungal/plant gDNA of the WT-infected roots was set to 100%, and the data are mean values ($n = 2$).

marks H3K4me2/me3 was identified, and these regions exactly overlap with H3K36me3 deposited by Set2 (Wiemann *et al.* 2013; Studt *et al.* 2017). In *S. cerevisiae*, all euchromatic genes carried H3K4me2, while H3K4me3 was a sign of actively

or recently performed gene expression (Santos-Rosa *et al.* 2002; Ng *et al.* 2003). (3) Within subtelomeric regions of facultative heterochromatin, an enrichment of the silencing mark H3K27me3 was found (Studt *et al.* 2016a), which rarely overlaps with H3K4me2/me3, but exactly overlaps with H3K36me3 deposited by Ash1 (Figure 9).

Thus, Set2-mediated H3K36me3 coexists with H3K4me2/me3, and Ash1-mediated H3K36me3 coexists with H3K27me3 (Figure 9). In contrast, H3K4me2/me3 and H3K27me3 rarely overlap. The same is true for *F. graminearum*, where only 627 genes (of all annotated 13,354 genes) were considered as bivalent regions carrying both H3K4 and H3K27 methylation marks (Connolly *et al.* 2013). Therefore, H3K4me2/me3 and H3K27me3 characterize stretches of euchromatin and facultative heterochromatin, respectively, while H3K36me3 is virtually ubiquitous. Comparing the ChIP-Seq and expression data, no significant correlation between H3K36me3 and active transcription was found in *F. fujikuroi* (this work) and *F. graminearum* (Connolly *et al.* 2013).

This interesting result stands in marked contrast to the bulk of published data for budding and fission yeasts and higher eukaryotes, e.g., *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Xu *et al.* 2008), *D. melanogaster* (Bell *et al.* 2007; Wang *et al.* 2013), chicken (Bannister *et al.* 2005), and human cells (Miao and Natarajan 2005; Vakoc *et al.* 2006; Barski *et al.* 2007; Yuan *et al.* 2011; Schwämmle *et al.* 2014). In these organisms, it has been established that both H3K4 and H3K36 methylation marks are specific and characteristic hallmarks of actively transcribed euchromatin, whereas H3K9 and H3K27 methylation characterizes silenced stretches of heterochromatin (Rando and Chang 2009).

Therefore, the amount and location of H3K36 methylation seems to be different in *F. fujikuroi*, and likely also in other filamentous fungi, and we suggest that H3K36me3 deposited by Set2 and Ash1 exerts specific and distinct functions as described below.

Set2 likely interacts with RNA polymerase II, while Ash1 may be involved in the repair of double-strand breaks

One well-established function for Set2 homologs, including the ones characterized in *S. cerevisiae* and humans, is the interaction with the elongating form of RNA polymerase II via its SRI domain (Krogan *et al.* 2003; Kizer *et al.* 2005; Li *et al.* 2005; Sun *et al.* 2005). This is likely to be true also for *F. fujikuroi* Set2, as it contains the conserved SRI domain (Figure 1A and Figure 9), while *F. fujikuroi* Ash1 does not. Furthermore, the H3K36me3 pattern deposited by *F. fujikuroi* Set2 within euchromatic regions shows characteristic peaks toward the 3' end of each gene, but not in intergenic regions, as depicted for the ubiquitin-encoding reference gene (Figure 6C). This accumulation of H3K36me3 within gene bodies of actively transcribed genes is characteristic for Set2-mediated deposition via interaction with RNA polymerase II (Krogan *et al.* 2003; Pokholok *et al.* 2005; Vakoc *et al.* 2006).

Figure 9 Distinct roles of H3K36me3 deposited by Set2 and Ash1 in *F. fujikuroi*. Set2 deposited H3K36me3 overlaps with euchromatic H3K4me2/me3, and is most likely involved in transcriptional elongation via the putative interaction of Set2 with RNA polymerase (Pol) II. In contrast, Ash1 deposited H3K36me3 overlaps with H3K27me3 of facultative heterochromatin. Our data suggest that it exerts a role in the repair of DNA double-strand breaks, likely counteracting H3K27 methylation. H3K9me3 most likely makes up the constitutive heterochromatin of *F. fujikuroi* centromeres.

In contrast, H3K36me3 derived from Ash1 at subtelomeric regions shows no outstanding peak toward the 3' ends of genes, but is more diffused and often also found in intergenic regions, as highlighted for the GA gene cluster (Figure 6A). Consistently, a characteristic phenotype for $\Delta ash1$ mutants has been identified, namely the progressive loss of subtelomeric regions, and of the whole accessory chromosome XII depleted in Ash1-mediated H3K36me3. The chromosome instability was already shown for primary transformants of $\Delta ash1$, and additional losses of subtelomeric regions were observed after several passages of growth on solid medium. Our data are consistent with observations made for higher organisms: H3K36 methylation is involved in DNA repair and the maintenance of genomic stability, including mismatch repair as well as the repair of double-strand breaks in the mammalian system (Duns *et al.* 2010; Fnu *et al.* 2011; Li *et al.* 2013; Pfister *et al.* 2014). We suggest that H3K36me3 formation by *F. fujikuroi* Ash1 may be involved in similar DNA repair processes (Figure 9). In this regard, the complete loss of the accessory chromosome XII may be attributed to the fact that it is very small, and nearly completely heterochromatic (Wiemann *et al.* 2013; Studt *et al.* 2016a), and, therefore, nearly completely targeted by Ash1.

Similar losses as in $\Delta ash1$ mutants were not characteristic for H3K36A mutants (only chromosome XII was missing in one out of five K3K36A mutants), or $\Delta set2/\Delta ash1$ double mutants, which were both completely depleted in H3K36me3. Only for $\Delta ash1$, but no other strain, an increased level of H3K27me3 at subtelomeric regions was detected—a cross-talk which seems to require the presence of Set2-mediated, euchromatic H3K36me3. In human cells, Ash1-mediated H3K36 methylation has been shown to counteract H3K27 methylation. The reason for this interference is that H3K36 methylation directly inhibits the H3K27-methylating Polycomb repressive complex 2 *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Yuan *et al.* 2011). It is tempting to hypothesize that something similar might be true for *F. fujikuroi* Ash1. In this case, Ash1 might be involved in keeping the H3K27me3 level as low as

possible. In general, regions enriched for H3K27me3, such as subtelomeric regions or accessory chromosomes, are regions of great diversity, recombination, and rearrangements, frequently accumulating single nucleotide polymorphisms (Connolly *et al.* 2013; Schotanus *et al.* 2015). One can speculate that H3K36me3 at these regions might be required to counteract these processes.

Intriguingly, the analysis of the ChIP-Seq data of $\Delta ash1$ T2 indicated how the broken chromosomes can be “healed,” as new telomeric repeats were identified at the breakage points of chromosomes I and X, most likely *de novo* synthesized by a telomerase (Lundblad 2001). An additional way to heal a broken chromosome would be through break-induced replication, in which the broken chromosome invades an intact chromosome via a region of low homology, so that it receives the duplicated chromosome end including a telomere (Lundblad 2001). No duplicated regions were identified in the $\Delta ash1$ T2 ChIP-Seq data, and no dramatic changes of chromosome sizes have been observed, so that this pathway can be excluded.

Deletion of SET2 and ASH1 affects growth, conidiation, and SM production

Phenotypic analyses of $\Delta set2$ and $\Delta ash1$ mutants showed a significantly impaired growth on solid medium, as well as an inability to produce conidia. Deletion of *N. crassa* SET2 also resulted in slow growth and poor conidiation (Adhvaryu *et al.* 2005). Accordingly, *F. fujikuroi* $\Delta kdm4$ exhibited an enhanced conidia production in comparison to the WT, probably due to an enhanced level of H3K36me3 at specific loci, although there was no increase in the global methylation level. Therefore, it is tempting to hypothesize that the decrease of H3K36me3 in $\Delta set2$ and $\Delta ash1$ mutants exerts a direct or indirect effect on conidiation-related genes.

Intriguingly, $\Delta set2$ and $\Delta ash1$ mutants showed a similar phenotype with regard to their SM profiles: both mutants produced more FUS and FSA, but less GAs compared to the WT. The SM gene clusters are mainly located in regions of facultative heterochromatin, which seems to be primarily

associated with Ash1-deposited H3K36me3. As shown above, Set2 and Ash1 mainly perform their methylation at distinct parts of the chromosomes. Therefore, it is difficult to understand why both deletion mutants show such a similar phenotype concerning their SM biosynthesis. In this work, no correlation between the deposition of H3K36me3 or H3K27me3 (via ChIP-qRT-PCR) and the production of GA and BIK (via HPLC-DAD) in $\Delta set2$, $\Delta ash1$, and $H3K36A$ mutants could be detected. Therefore, many of the effects are likely to be secondary, due to the large number of direct or indirect downstream TFs and histone modifiers that were identified in the microarray expression analysis.

In addition, both mutants showed a significantly impaired virulence on rice, most likely as a result of their downregulated GA biosynthesis. However, a residual GA production can be assumed for $\Delta ash1$ *in planta*, because this mutant was still able to penetrate the rice roots and induce an elongation of the rice internodes, though without inducing the typical yellowish and pale green leaves (Wiemann *et al.* 2013). Therefore, yet unknown *in planta* signals allow GA production in rice, in contrast to the *in vitro* conditions. Similar results were shown for the regulatory mutant $\Delta sge1$, encoding a major regulator of secondary metabolism in *F. fujikuroi* (Michielse *et al.* 2015).

Kdm4 antagonizes H3K36me3 and possibly H3K9me3

Besides the two H3K36 methyltransferases, we analyzed their counterpart, the *F. fujikuroi* JmjC demethylase Kdm4. The constitutive overexpression of *KDM4* showed the most severe phenotype, because no stable overexpression strains could be gained. Keeping in mind that the $\Delta set2/\Delta ash1$ and $H3K36A$ mutants were viable, despite the complete lack of all H3K36 methylation, the severe phenotype of the OE::*KDM4* mutants can be explained only by an additional role of Kdm4 in the regulation of gene expression, possibly through the interaction with other regulators. Alternatively, this phenotype could be caused by the demethylation of H3K9me3 by Kdm4, as H3K9 demethylation has been shown to be conserved for the human and yeast enzymes (Klose *et al.* 2006, 2007). So far, no viable deletion mutants for *F. fujikuroi* *DIM5* (H3K9 methyltransferase) and *HP1* (H3K9me3 reading) (Tamaru and Selker 2001; Reyes-Dominguez *et al.* 2010) could be generated, suggesting that the depletion of this mark may result in a lethal phenotype in this fungus (L. Studt, S. M. Rösler, and B. Tudzynski, unpublished results). However, it remains to be elucidated whether *A. nidulans* KdmA (Gacek-Matthews *et al.* 2015) and *F. fujikuroi* Kdm4 also antagonize H3K9me3.

In summary, we established distinct and specific roles for the two H3K36 methyltransferases Set2 and Ash1 in *F. fujikuroi*—enzymes that deposit H3K36me3 within euchromatic and subtelomeric regions, respectively. Ash1 was characterized for the first time in a filamentous fungus, and was shown to antagonize the heterochromatic mark H3K27me3 at subtelomeric regions. Ash1 is involved in the maintenance of genome stability, likely through direct or indirect recruitment

of the DNA repair machinery. ChIP-Seq analysis of other filamentous fungi will show whether the ubiquitous presence of the H3K36 methylation mark along chromosomes is generally conserved in the fungal kingdom. Furthermore, we demonstrated that deletion of both methyltransferase genes, *SET2* and *ASH1*, has an impact on vital cellular processes, as well as on fungal SM biosynthesis.

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