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Dissertation

THE TITLE IS WASDA

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ABSTRACT

Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetur adipiscing elit. Ut purus elit, vestibulum ut, placerat ac, adipiscing vitae, felis. Curabitur dictum gravida mauris. Nam arcu libero, nonummy eget, consectetur id, vulputate a, magna. Donec vehicula augue eu neque. Pellentesque habitant morbi tristique senectus et netus et malesuada fames ac turpis egestas. Mauris ut leo. Cras viverra metus rhoncus sem. Nulla et lectus vestibulum urna fringilla ultrices. Phasellus eu tellus sit amet tortor gravida placerat. Integer sapien est, iaculis in, pretium quis, viverra ac, nunc. Praesent eget sem vel leo ultrices bibendum. Aenean faucibus. Morbi dolor nulla, malesuada eu, pulvinar at, mollis ac, nulla. Curabitur auctor semper nulla. Donec varius orci eget risus. Duis nibh mi, congue eu, accumsan eleifend, sagittis quis, diam. Duis eget orci sit amet orci dignissim rutrum.

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Introduction

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Chapter 1

Genomics of transcription elongation factor Spt6

1.1 Collaborators

Steve Doris optimized TSS-seq and ChIP-nexus protocols
generated TSS-seq and ChIP-nexus libraries

Olga Viktorovskaya generated MNase-seq libraries

Magdalena Murawska generated NET-seq libraries

Dan Spatt wetlab experiments for publication

1.2 Introduction to Spt6 and intragenic transcription

The work described in this chapter relates to understanding how a eukaryotic cell specifies which sites in its genome are permitted to become sites of transcription initiation. To get a rough idea of the specificity of transcription initiation, it is useful to start with a simple back-of-the-envelope calculation of the proportion of the human genome at which transcription initiation occurs. The human genome is approximately three billion base pairs in length, and each base pair can potentially be transcribed from each of its two strands. Each gene in the genome can have multiple transcription start sites (TSSs), which I assume to be five in number for the average gene. At last count, the human genome contains about twenty thousand protein-coding genes. To

be conservative in our estimate with regards to specificity, we assume that all twenty thousand genes are expressed, which leads to the following proportion:

$$\frac{(2 \times 10^5 \text{ genes}) \left(5 \frac{\text{TSS}}{\text{gene}}\right)}{(3 \times 10^9 \text{ base pairs}) \left(2 \frac{\text{TSS}}{\text{base pair}}\right)}.$$

However, this expression underestimates the extent of transcription initiation by only considering protein-coding genes, neglecting the many classes of noncoding genes present in the genome. If we assume that there are five noncoding genes for each coding gene, the updated expression,

$$\frac{(1.2 \times 10^6 \text{ genes}) \left(5 \frac{\text{TSS}}{\text{gene}}\right)}{(3 \times 10^9 \text{ base pairs}) \left(2 \frac{\text{TSS}}{\text{base pair}}\right)} = 0.001,$$

says that when presented with a thousand positions to choose from, RNA polymerase chooses just one to start transcribing from!

Where transcription initiates is determined in large part by DNA sequence: the presence of certain sequence motifs increases the probability that RNA polymerase binds to DNA along with numerous co-factors required for initiation. However, DNA sequence alone does not entirely account for the specificity of transcription initiation. Genetic studies in yeast first showed that some transcription *elongation* factors, including histone chaperones and histone modification enzymes, play a role in restricting where transcription is allowed to initiate (Cheung et al., 2008, Hennig and Fischer, 2013, Kaplan et al., 2003). In this project, we study the role of a particular transcription elongation factor called **Spt6** in this process. Many years of research on Spt6 is summarised as follows (Doris et al., 2018):

- Spt6 interacts directly with:

- RNA polymerase II (RNAPII) (Close et al., 2011, Diebold et al., 2010b, Liu et al., 2011, Sdano et al., 2017, Sun et al., 2010, Yoh et al., 2007)
- histones (Bortvin and Winston, 1996, McCullough et al., 2015)
- the essential factor Spn1 (IWS1) (Diebold et al., 2010a, Li et al., 2018, McDonald et al., 2010)
- Spt6 is believed to function primarily as an elongation factor based on:
 - association with elongating RNAPII (Andrulis et al., 2000, Ivanovska et al., 2011, Kaplan et al., 2000, Mayer et al., 2010)
 - ability to enhance elongation in vitro (Endoh et al., 2004) and in vivo (Ardehali et al., 2009)
- Spt6 has been shown to regulate initiation in some cases (Adkins and Tyler, 2006, Ivanovska et al., 2011)
- Spt6 regulates:
 - chromatin structure (Bortvin and Winston, 1996, DeGennaro et al., 2013, Ivanovska et al., 2011, Jeronimo et al., 2015, Kaplan et al., 2003, Perales et al., 2013, van Bakel et al., 2013)
 - histone modifications, including:
 - * H3K36 methylation (Carrozza et al., 2005, Chu et al., 2006, Yoh et al., 2008, Youdell et al., 2008)
 - * in some organisms, H3K4 and H3K27 methylation (Begum et al., 2012, Chen et al., 2012, DeGennaro et al., 2013, Wang et al., 2017, 2013)
- Spt6 is likely a histone chaperone required to reassemble nucleosomes in the wake of transcription (Duina, 2011).

Previous studies in the yeasts *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* have examined the requirement for Spt6 in normal transcription (Cheung et al., 2008, DeGennaro et al., 2013, Kaplan et al., 2003, Pathak et al., 2018, Uwimana et al., 2017, van Bakel et al.,

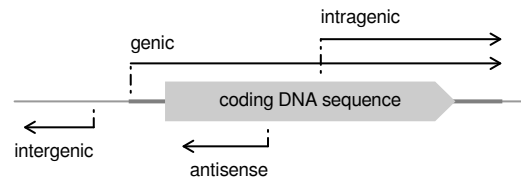


Figure 1.1: Diagram of transcript orientation with respect to coding DNA sequences, for the categories of transcripts referred to in this document.

2013). Many of these studies make use of the same temperature-sensitive *S. cerevisiae* *spt6-1004* mutant used in this project, ***spt6-1004***, in which Spt6 protein is depleted at the non-permissive temperature of 37°C (Kaplan et al., 2003). The most notable phenotype of the *spt6-1004* mutant is the expression of **intragenic transcripts**, transcripts which appear to start within protein-coding genes, both in the same orientation and in the antisense orientation relative to the coding gene (Figure 1.1) (Cheung et al., 2008, DeGennaro et al., 2013, Kaplan et al., 2003, Uwimana et al., 2017).

Previous genome-wide measurements of transcript levels in *spt6-1004* relied on tiled microarrays (Cheung et al., 2008) and RNA sequencing (Uwimana et al., 2017). These methods assay steady-state RNA levels, making them unable to determine whether the intragenic transcripts observed

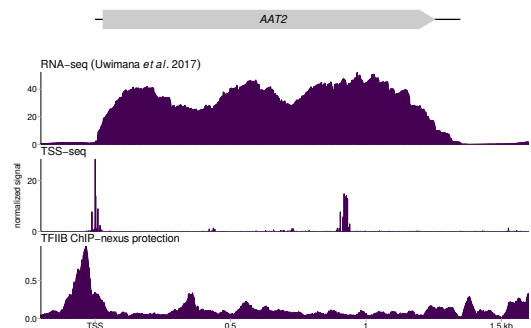


Figure 1.2: asdfkiskldif

in *spt6-1004* result from: A) new intragenic transcription initiation in the mutant, B) reduced decay of intragenic transcripts which are rapidly turned over in wild-type, or C) processing of full-length protein-coding RNAs. Additionally, these methods are suboptimal for identifying where intragenic transcription occurs, since the signal for

an intragenic transcript in the same orientation as the gene it overlaps is convoluted with the signal from the full-length ‘genic’ transcript (Figure ??) (Cheung et al., 2008, Lickwar et al., 2009).

To overcome these issues, one of my collaborators applied two assays to study transcription in *spt6-1004*: transcription start-site sequencing (**TSS-seq**), and **ChIP-nexus of TFIIB**, a component of the RNA polymerase II pre-initiation complex (PIC). The TSS-seq technique sequences the 5′ end of capped and polyadenylated RNAs (Arribere and Gilbert, 2013, Malabat et al., 2015), allowing separation of intragenic from genic RNA signals and identification of intragenic transcript starts with single-nucleotide resolution. The ChIP-nexus technique used is a high-resolution chromatin immunoprecipitation technique in which the ChIPed DNA is exonuclease digested up to the bases crosslinked with the factor of interest before sequencing (He et al., 2015). When applied to the PIC component TFIIB, ChIP-nexus provides a way to determine whether intragenic transcripts result from new intragenic transcription initiation.

1.3 pipeline development for TSS-seq and ChIP-nexus

In order to use TSS-seq and ChIP-nexus to answer questions about Spt6 and intragenic transcription, I developed analysis pipelines for TSS-seq and ChIP-nexus data. The pipelines are written using the Python-based Snakemake workflow specification language (Köster and Rahmann, 2012), and perform steps including read cleaning (Martin, 2011), various quality controls (Andrews, 2012), read alignment (Kim et al., 2013, Langmead and Salzberg, 2012), data normalization, coverage track generation (Quinlan and Hall, 2010), peak calling (Zhang et al., 2008), differential expression/binding analyses (Love et al., 2014), data visualization with clustering, motif enrichment analyses (Bailey et al., 2015), and gene ontology analyses (Young et al.,

2010). The Snakemake framework allows these data analyses to be reproducible and scalable from workstations up to computing clusters. Updated versions of these pipelines with more details on their capabilities are available at github.com/winston-lab. In the following subsections I will describe the thought behind only a few of the more novel pipeline steps before moving on to results relating to Spt6 and intragenic transcription.

1.3.1 TSS-seq peak calling

TSS-seq data from a single region of transcription initiation tends to occur as a cluster of signal distributed over a range of positions, rather than a single nucleotide (Figure ??) (Arribere and Gilbert, 2013, Malabat et al., 2015). It is reasonable to consider such a cluster of TSS-seq signal as a single entity, because the signals within the cluster are usually highly correlated to one another across different conditions. Therefore, to identify TSSs from TSS-seq data and quantify them for downstream analyses such as differential expression, it is necessary to annotate these groups of signal by using the data to perform peak-calling.

In its current state, the TSS-seq pipeline calls peaks using 1-D [watershed segmentation](#), followed by filtering for reproducibility by the Irreproducible Discovery Rate (IDR) method (Li et al., 2011). First, a smoothed version of the TSS-seq coverage is generated for each sample using a discretized Gaussian kernel. Next, an initial set of peaks is generated by: 1) assigning all nonzero signal in the original, unsmoothed coverage to the nearest local maximum of the smoothed coverage in the direction of positive derivative, and 2) taking the minimum and maximum genomic coordinates of the original coverage assigned to each local maximum as the peak boundaries. The peaks are then trimmed to the smallest genomic window that includes 95% of the orig-

inal coverage, and the probability of the peak being generated by noise is estimated by a Poisson model where λ , the expected coverage, is the maximum of the expected coverage over the chromosome and the expected coverage in a window upstream of the peak (as for the ChIP-seq peak caller MACS2 (Zhang et al., 2008)). The influence of local read density on λ is intended to reduce false positive peaks within gene bodies, especially for highly expressed genes: Since there are more fragments of RNA present for highly expressed genes, more fragments within the gene body will make it into the final library, even if they are not true 5' ends. To generate the final set of peaks, the peaks are ranked by significance under the Poisson model, and filtered by IDR. In brief, IDR attempts to separate true peaks from experimental noise based on the intuition that, when peaks in each replicate are independently ranked by a metric such as significance, true peaks will have more similar ranks between replicates than peaks representing noise (Li et al., 2011).

The IDR algorithm currently only works for two replicates. Future improvements could include expanding the IDR implementation to handle more replicates and improve the accuracy of peak calling with more data.

1.3.2 ChIP-nexus peak calling

A number of tools have been created specifically for peak-calling using data from high-resolution ChIP techniques such as ChIP-nexus and ChIP-exo (Hansen et al., 2016, Wang et al., 2014). When applied to our TFIIB ChIP-nexus data, these tools tended to split what appeared to be a single TFIIB binding event into multiple peaks. This may be because TFIIB has been observed to crosslink to DNA at multiple points (Figure ??) (Rhee and Pugh, 2012), which suggests that while these tools may work well for factors that bind symmetrically with a single crosslinking point on either side,

there is still room for improvement when it comes to factors with more complex binding patterns. For the purposes of this project, the standard ChIP-seq peak caller MACS2 was used (Zhang et al., 2008).

ChIP-seq peaks lack strand information, as DNA binding factors usually do not bind DNA in a strand-specific manner. Because of this, we could not separate intragenic TFIIIB peaks into peaks associated with sense or antisense transcription. The distinctive shape of the aggregate TFIIIB ChIP-nexus signal (Figure ??) suggests that information about the strand of transcription may be present in the ChIP-nexus binding profile. Future work could include learning the direction of transcription from labeled ChIP-nexus training data.

1.4 TSS-seq and TFIIIB ChIP-nexus results from *spt6-1004*

To assay transcription start sites and transcription initiation in *spt6-1004*, one of my collaborators performed TSS-seq and ChIP-nexus of TFIIIB. In wild-type cells, TSS-seq and TFIIIB ChIP-nexus signal has the expected distribution over the genome, with most TSS-seq signal at annotated genic TSSs and most TFIIIB signal just upstream (Figures ??, ??). In *spt6-1004*, the signal for both assays infiltrates gene bodies, consistent with a role for intragenic initiation in the intragenic transcription phenotype. Notably, sense strand TSS-seq signal in *spt6-1004* tends to occur towards the 3' end of genes, while antisense strand TSS-seq signal tends to occur towards the 5' ends of genes.


The TSS-seq data were quantified by peak calling and differential expression analysis, and classified into genomic categories based on their position relative to coding genes (Figure ??). The results from this analysis support the pattern observed in the heatmap visualization (Figure ??), with most genic TSSs downregulated and

almost 8000 TSSs upregulated intragenic or antisense to genes. The overall effect of this on expression levels is to equalize expression levels between the different classes of transcripts (Figure ??).

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Chapter 2

Genomics of transcription elongation factor Spt5

2.1 Collaborators

Ameet Shetty generated TSS-seq, MNase-seq, NET-seq, RNA-seq, and ChIP-seq libraries

2.2 Bibliography

Chapter 3

Searching for stress-responsive intragenic transcription

3.1 Collaborators

Steve Doris generated TSS-seq and ChIP-nexus libraries

Dan Spatt polyribosome fractionation

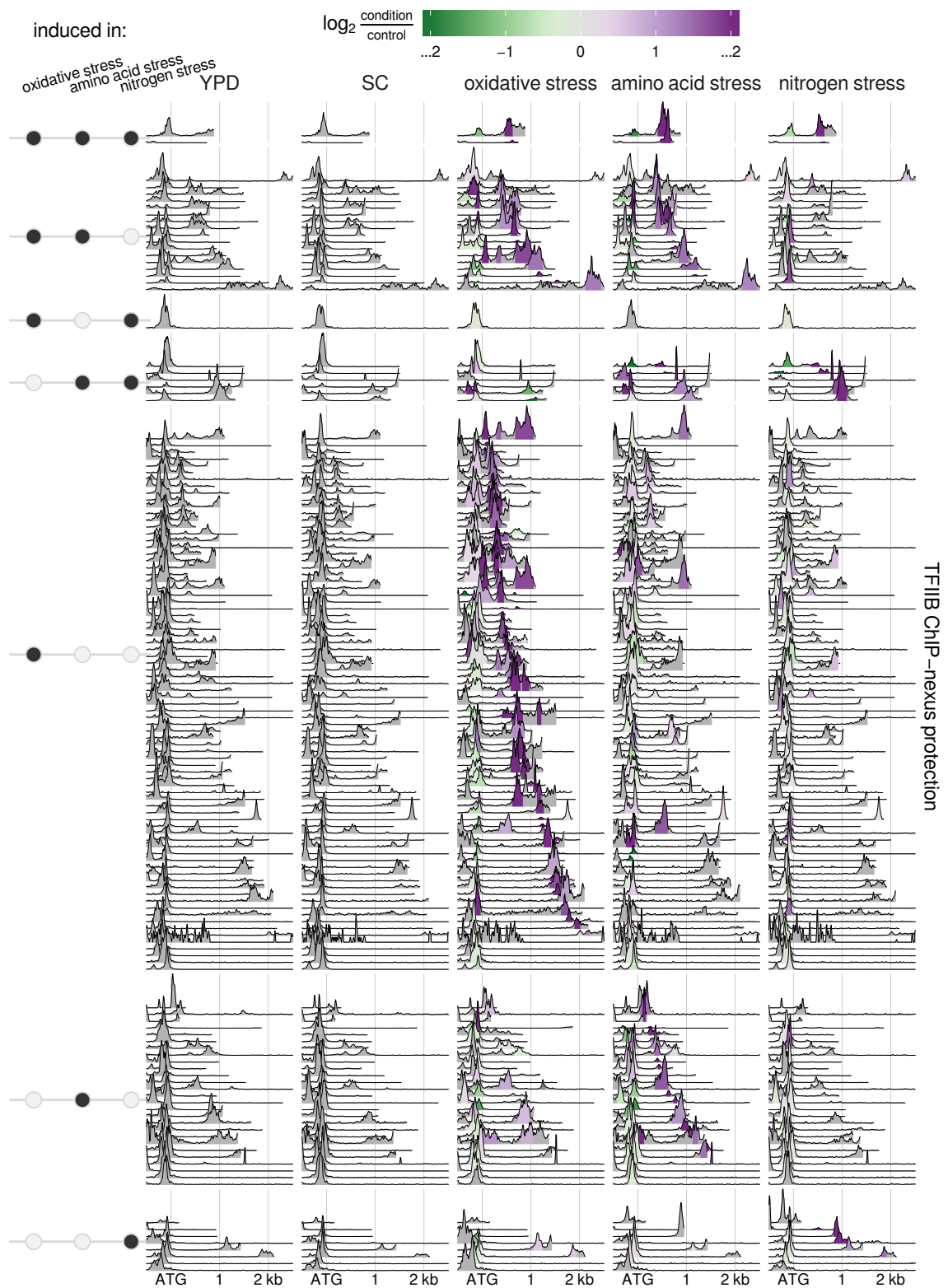


Figure 3.1: Wasldfkjlk asldkfj.

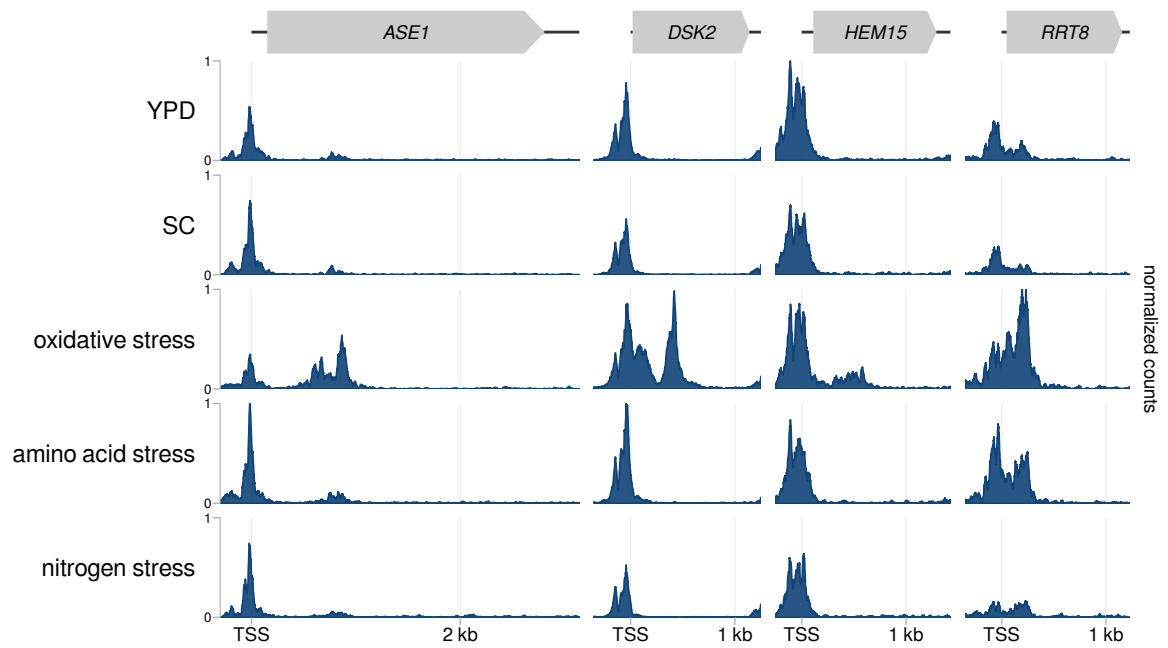


Figure 3.2: Caption asdfkj asldkfjlkj.

3.2 Bibliography

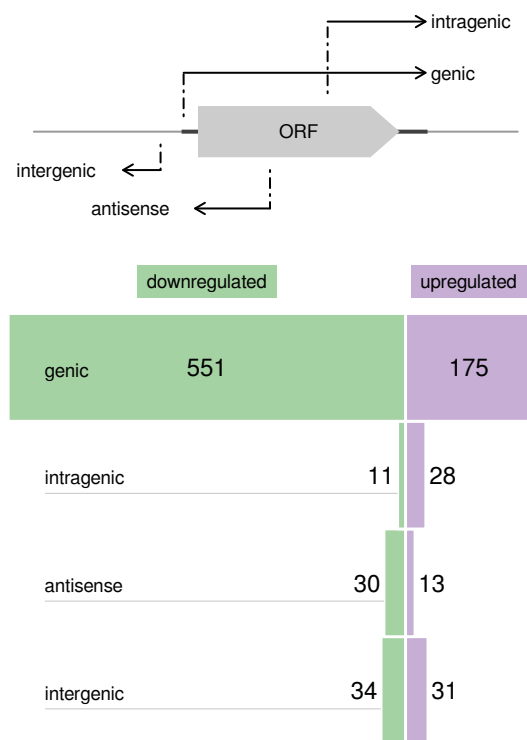


Figure 3.3: Caption dsafklj asldkfjlkj.

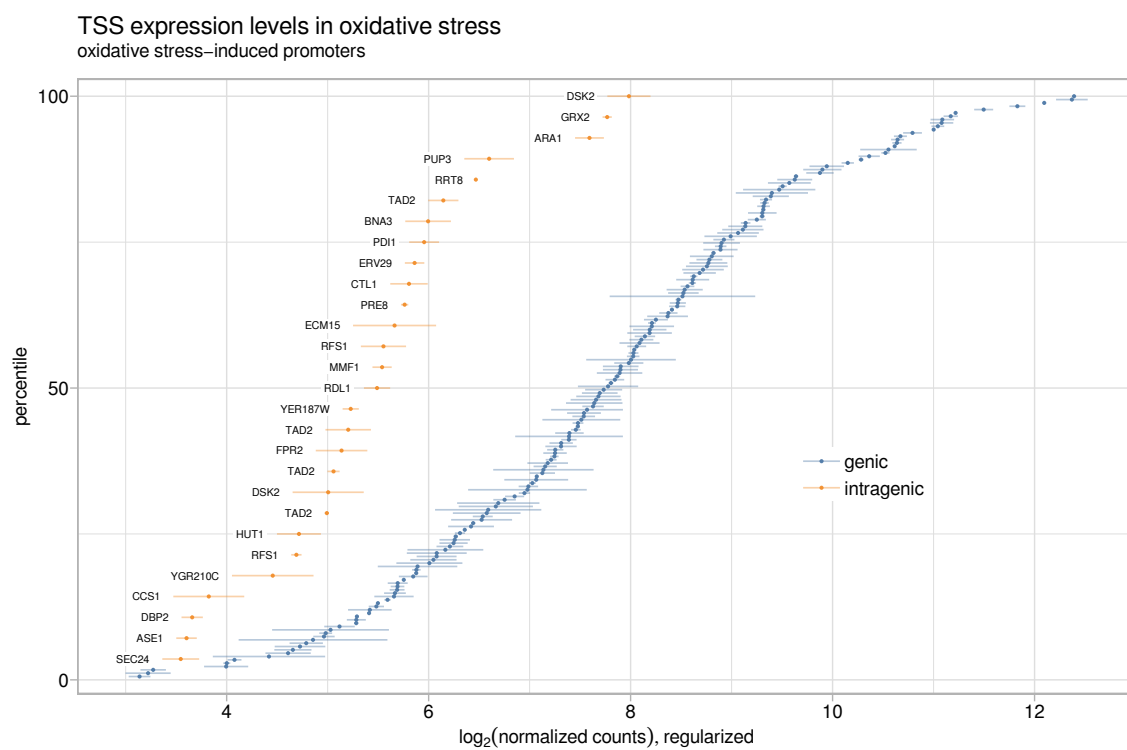


Figure 3.4: Caption dsafklj zzzz.

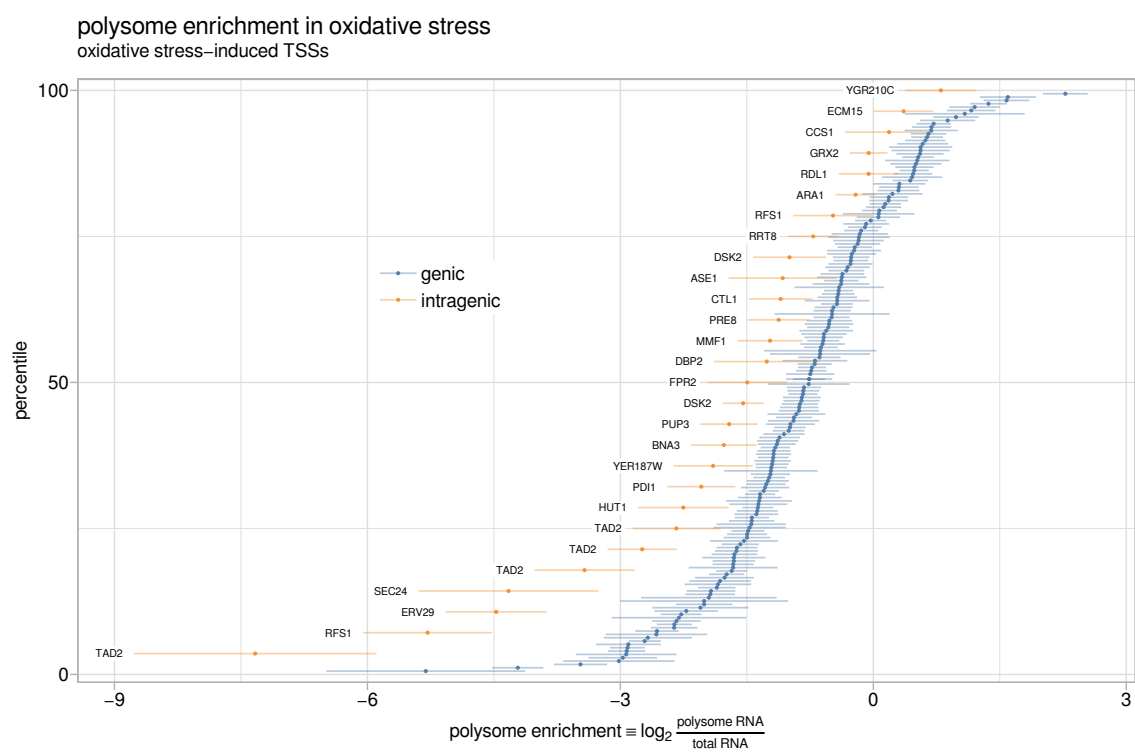


Figure 3.5: Caption wsdasdr zzzz.

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Vita

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