Series

A cross-eyed geneticist's view IV. Neurospora genes and inversions collude to cheat Mendel

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1. Introduction to Spore killer elements

The cell killing gene, rfk-1 (required for killing-1) was found in Neurospora, skulking in the wings, sidled up against the right border of the Spore killer-2 (Sk-2) element on chromosome 3R. Close by, but across the border, where chromosomes 3R of the Sk-2 and $Sk^{S}(Sk^{S} = sensitive to Spore killing)$ strains resume being collinear, lay the gene ncu06238. When Spore *killer* strains are crossed with the wild type (WT = Sk^{S}), four of the eight ascospores that form per ascus are killed and four survive. The survivors contain the Spore killer chromosome, and presumably the dead contain Sk^{S} . In the $Sk-2 \times Sk^{S}$ cross, the *rfk-1* gene, borne on the *Sk-2* chromosome, does not have homologous sequences on the Sk^{S} chromosome to pair with in meiosis. Nevertheless, its proximity to the 'paired' ncu06238 alleles enables it to escape silencing by the RNAi-based MSUD (meiotic silencing by unpaired DNA) genome defense process. MSUD silences any gene not properly paired with its homologue during meiosis (Hammond 2017). When the rfk-1-ncu06238 distance was increased by inserting a 1.4 kbp transgene (:: hph) immediately left of ncu06238, the killer gene became exposed to MSUD, and was rendered incapable of ascospore killing in the Sk-2:: $hph \times Sk^{S}$ cross. On the contrary, if the transgenic sequence is made homozygous, as in the $Sk-2::hph \times Sk^S::hph$ cross, the *rfk-1* gene's proximity to paired sequences was restored, and it again could kill. Killing was also seen in the Sk-2::hph x Sk^S Sad-2 cross, in which the semi-dominant Sad-2 mutation suppresses MSUD. The apparently long-lived Rfk-1 protein kills cells, unless its accomplice, the Rsk^{Sk-2} protein, encoded by the rsk^{Sk-2} allele (resistant to Spore killer – Sk-2) also is present. The rsk^{Sk-2} allele is located near the left flank of the Sk-2 element on the chromosome's left arm, playing the 'good cop' to rfk-1's 'bad cop'. However don't be fooled by the more than 2.3 Mb separating rsk^{Sk-2} from rfk-1; they are genetically hand-inglove, linked tightly by a 'dense set of inversions' (Svedberg *et al.* 2018), and inseparable by crossing over. The *rsk* allele on the Sk^S chromosome 3 does not protect against Rfk-1-induced killing; and is just another bystander like all other genes on this chromosome. *Spore killers* were discovered 40 years ago by Turner and Perkins (1979). More recently, the teams of Tom Hammond (Illinois State University), Patrick Shiu (University of Missouri) and Hanna Johannesson (Uppsala University) came together to solve this classical whodunit and uncovered the collusion between rfk-1, rsk^{Sk-2} and the inversions to subvert Mendel's Law of Segregation (Hammond *et al.* 2012; Harvey *et al.* 2014; Svedberg *et al.* 2018; Rhoades *et al.* 2019). This article summarizes their landmark achievement.

2. Copping the 'good' cop, Rsk^{Sk-2}

Hammond *et al.* (2012) did well to pay heed to the hint hidden like a Treasure Hunt clue in the 'Materials and Methods' and table 1 footnotes of Turner and Perkins (1979). In one place it said, 'FGSC 2222 is an $Sk-2^R Sk-3^S N.$ crassa strain collected in Louisiana' and in the other, 'the $Sk-2^R$ allele (...) was found in a wild-collected *N. crassa* strain from Louisiana (FGSC 2222)'. Turner and Perkins (1979) and Campbell and Turner (1987) showed that the Louisiana (LA) strain did not have the killer haplotype, and that its $Sk-2^R$ allele, namely, rsk^{LA} could be mapped conventionally. Hammond *et al.* (2012) used the Neurospora gene knock-out library for fine-scale mapping. The mapping revealed that rsk^{LA} was the gene ncu09151^{LA}. Replacement of the standard Oak Ridge strain's *ncu09151^{OR}*

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allele by $ncu09151^{LA}$ conferred Sk-2-resistance to the OR chromosome 3. On the other hand, deletion of the ncu09151^{LA} allele from the LA strain resulted in ascus abortion in the LA $ncu09151^{\Delta LA} \times Sk-2$ cross. The deletion caused unpairing and MSUD silencing of the $ncu09151^{Sk-2}$ allele, and the absence of Rsk^{Sk-2} protein and presence of Rfk-1 killer protein during early ascus development resulted in ascus abortion. In contrast. the Rsk^{Sk-2} protein is present throughout early ascus development in the $Sk-2 \times Sk^{S}$ cross, and by neutralizing Rfk-1 it allows ascospores to develop. Following ascospore delimitation, Rsk^{Sk-2} protects only Sk-2 as cospores, presumably because it is spore-autonomous, whereas the long half-life or non-spore-autonomous expression of Rfk-1 prevents Sk^{S} ascospores from maturing. The results suggested that $ncu09151^{Sk-2}$ is the rsk^{Sk-2} gene that enables Sk-2 to avoid being killed by its own killer, and that MSUD places constraints on its location within the Sk-2 element. In other words, MSUD forces rsk^{Sk-2} to be a 'good cop' and to march in step with $ncu09151^{SkS}$. Replacement of $ncu09151^{OR}$ in OR by $ncu09151^{Sk-2}$ or $ncu09151^{Sk-3}$ prevented killing, respectively, in crosses with Sk-2 or Sk-3 strains, showing that the rsk allele determines whether a strain is resistant to Sk-2 or Sk-3 or sensitive to killing. Neither Rsk, nor its paralogous protein encoded by the nearby ncu09148 gene, were essential for ascospore development.

3. ... and the killer, Rfk-1

Ascus abortion in the Sk-2 $rsk^{\Delta} \times Sk^{S}$ cross provided a strategy to select for *rfk-1* mutants. *Sk-2* rsk^{Δ} conidia (asexual spores that also function as the male gamete) were mutagenized by UV-irradiation and used to fertilize a WT (Sk^{S}) mating partner. If any fertilizing conidia were mutated in rfk-1, ascus abortion would be abolished, and viable ascospores would be produced. Of 53 progeny examined, six turned out to be *rfk-1* mutants, and the *Sk-2* rsk^{Δ} *rfk-* $1 \times WT$ crosses did not show ascus abortion (Harvey *et al.* 2014). The remaining 47 were the rare ($\sim 0.1\%$) escapes from Rfk-1-induced killing in the Sk-2 $rsk^{\Delta} \times Sk^{S}$ cross (which goes to show that chance favors the intrepid). The escapes had the parental Sk-2 rsk^{Δ} genotype and produced empty asci in crosses with WT. Next, cross-over Sk-2 rfk-1 progeny from an Sk-2 rsk^{Δ} rfk-1 × Sk-2 sad-2^{Δ} cross were mated with seven different Sk-2 leu-1 hph strains, bearing different hph-based insertions, including within the Sk-2 element, and thus represented seven different three-point mapping crosses (i.e., $Sk-2 \ rfk-1 \times Sk-2 \ leu-1 \ hph$). These crosses, unlike Sk-2 rfk-1 \times leu-1 hph, are homozygous for the Sk-2 inversions and hence can produce cross-over progeny. Mapping the cross-overs on an Sk-2 genome assembly enabled the localization of rfk-1 to a 45 kb interval that spanned the Sk-2 right border (Harvey et al. 2014). Following this, different sub-intervals were replaced by an hph selectable marker, and the resulting deletion strains were crossed with Sk^{S} . Ascospore killing was eliminated when sequences were deleted from between the pseudogene ncu07838* (located left of the *Sk-2* right border) and the ncu06238 gene (located just right of the *Sk-2* right border), indicating that the intergenic region contained *rfk-1* (Rhoades *et al.* 2019). Finally, transformation experiments showed that a 1481 bp segment from within this region could confer the defining property of *rfk-1*^{*Sk-2*}, namely, the production of empty asci in MSUD-deficient heterozygous crosses lacking the *rsk*^{*Sk-2}</sup> allele. This property was not shared by the corresponding segment from the <i>rfk-1* mutants.</sup>

Additional experiments confirmed that the rfk-1 gene does not overlap with ncu06238; is transcribed in $Sk-2 \times Sk^S$ and $Sk-2 \times Sk-2$; contains four exons and three introns; is subject to sexual-stage-specific A-to-I mRNA editing that eliminates a stop codon upstream of the second intron; the edited mRNA encodes a 130 amino acid residue protein; and that rfk-1apparently evolved from a partial duplication of the gene ncu07086.

4. New questions

We still do not know how the Rfk-1 protein kills asci and ascospores, or how the Rsk^{Sk-2} protein prevents it from doing so. The toxin-antitoxin model is a good bet, in which Rfk-1 is the killer toxin, and Rsk^{Sk-2} is the antitoxin that neutralizes it. However, the rsk allele in several wild strains resistant to Sk-3 but not Sk-2 was more similar to those in Sk-2-resistant strains, and no polymorphisms unique for each resistance phenotype were found (Svedberg et al. 2018). This suggests that the specificity of rsk-based resistance to each Spore killer is also influenced by other genes. Svedberg et al. (2018) generated near-complete genome assemblies of the non-recombining Sk-2 and Sk-3 regions using PacBio long-read sequencing and found both contain a dense set of recombination-suppressing inversions in largely the same chromosomal region. However, all the inversions were unique and non-overlapping and apparently had ancient or separate origins. The ancestral gene order was not retained in any region and the inversions were interspersed with gene-poor and degenerate-transposable-element-rich regions. It was possible that the recombination block initially might not have been due to any inversions, that is, it was non-structural, of the kind seen in the *N. tetrasperma* mating type chromosomes, and that the inversions only subsequently evolved.

Another conundrum was that the *Sk-3* genome did not contain any *rfk-1*-like sequence, suggesting that different genes are responsible for killing in *Sk-3* and *Sk-2*. Of course, one can now pull-down the Rsk^{Sk-2} and Rfk-1 protein complexes and identify their interacting partners, and also determine their spatial and temporal occurrence.

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