Z-DNA is remodelled by ZBTB43 in prospermatogonia to safeguard the germline genome and epigenome

Yingying Meng, Guiiang Wang, Hongjuan He, Kin H. Lau, Allison Hurt, Brianna J. Bixler, Andrea Parham, Seung-Gi Jin, Xingzhi Xu, Karen M. Vasquez, Gerd P. Pfeifer and Piroska E. Szabó

Mutagenic purine–pyrimidine repeats can adopt the left-handed Z-DNA conformation. DNA breaks at potential Z-DNA sites can lead to somatic mutations in cancer or to germline mutations that are transmitted to the next generation. It is not known whether any mechanism exists in the germ line to control Z-DNA structure and DNA breaks at purine–pyrimidine repeats. Here we provide genetic, epigenomic and biochemical evidence for the existence of a biological process that erases Z-DNA specifically in germ cells of the mouse male foetus. We show that a previously uncharacterized zinc finger protein, ZBTB43, binds to and removes Z-DNA, preventing the formation of DNA double-strand breaks. By removing Z-DNA, ZBTB43 also promotes de novo DNA methylation at CG-containing purine–pyrimidine repeats in prospermatogonia. Therefore, the genomic and epigenomic integrity of the species is safeguarded by remodelling DNA structure in the mammalian germ line during a critical window of germline epigenome reprogramming.

Results

Regulation of Z-DNA levels in the germ line. To detect Z-DNA in prospermatogonia globally, we carried out immunostaining of mouse foetal testis samples using a monoclonal anti-Z-DNA antibody, Z22 (ref. 10). Z-DNA staining declines as a function of gestational age (Fig. 1a). This reduction was found in the PGC7-positive germ cells in the testicular cords at 15.5 days post coitum (dpc) but not in somatic cells of the testis (Fig. 1b,c). This finding reveals the existence of a process that reduces Z-DNA levels specifically in the germ cells at the time of major epigenome remodelling in foetal mouse germ cells11–14.

Zbtb43 RNA is highly expressed in prospermatogonia. To understand the epigenome remodelling processes that take place in foetal male germ cells (MGCs) at 15.5 dpc, we focused on genes encoding transcription factors and epigenome remodelers. According to our RNA-seq data in purified foetal germ cells15 (Extended Data Fig. 1a), the transcription of Zbtb43 was by far the highest among all Zbts in prospermatogonia at 15.5 dpc (Extended Data Fig. 1b). Zbtb43 transcript levels were at over 1,300 reads per 1 kb, per million reads (RPKM) in MGCs, but 10–20-fold lower in the female germ cells (FGC) and somatic cells of the foetal gonads. Zbtb43 was one of the most highly expressed genes in MGC, among important genes that carry out germ cell functions, such as Dppa3, Mae, Dnmt3, Pou5f1, Piwi1, Piwi4, Asz1 and Dazl (Extended Data Fig. 1c). Notably, in adult and foetal mouse organs the transcript level of Zbtb43 is below 6 RPKM, many orders of magnitude lower than in MGC (Extended Data Fig. 1d). These data suggested that the ZBTB43 protein may carry out an important role in prospermatogonia.

---

1Capital Normal University College of Life Science, Beijing, China. 2Department of Epigenetics, Van Andel Institute, Grand Rapids, MI, USA. 3Division of Pharmacology and Toxicology, College of Pharmacy, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, TX, USA. 4Bioinformatics and Biostatistics Core, Van Andel Institute, Grand Rapids, MI, USA. 5Van Andel Institute Graduate School, Grand Rapids, MI, USA. 6Guangdong Key Laboratory for Genome Stability & Disease Prevention and Carlson International Cancer Center, Marshall Laboratory of Biomedical Engineering, Shenzhen University School of Medicine, Shenzhen, China. 7Present address: School of Life Science and Technology, Harbin Institute of Technology, Harbin, China. 8These authors contributed equally: Guiiang Wang, Hongjuan He. E-mail: piroska.szabo@vai.org

NATURE CELL BIOLOGY | VOL 24 | JULY 2022 | 1141-1153 | www.nature.com/naturecellbiology
Fig. 1 | Natural removal of Z-DNA in germ cells of the mouse foetus. Immunohistochemistry images of testis samples are shown from male mouse foetuses. a, Z-DNA antibody staining (green) is diminishing in germ cells, as identified by PGC7 staining (red) at 13.5, 15.5 and 18.5 dpc. Scale bars, 5 µm. b, c, Loss of Z-DNA is specific to the germ cells in the foetal testis. Immunohistochemistry is shown for foetal testis sections at 13.5, 15.5 and 18.5 dpc timepoints, using Z-DNA antibody (green), germ cell marker (PGC7) and DAPI counterstain. Merged images are displayed on the right. Prospermagonia (b) exhibit loss of Z-DNA. Somatic cells (c) maintain Z-DNA. Scale bars, 1 µm. d, ZBTB43 protein is detected in germ cells inside the testicular cords of the wild-type but not in the Zbtb43−/− mutant testis at 15.5 dpc. Note the typical weak and diffuse DAPI staining of germ cell nuclei. The surrounding Sertoli cells, which exhibit stronger DAPI staining, are negative for ZBTB43 staining. Scale bars, 5 µm. e, Double staining of 15.5 dpc germ cells with ZBTB43 and germ cell marker OCT4 antibodies is shown in testis samples at 15.5 dpc. Scale bars, 2 µm. f, Double staining of testis samples using the ZBTB43 and germ cell marker DDX4 antibodies is shown at the foetal days as marked. Scale bars, 2 µm. The results shown represent three independent immunostaining experiments using four biologically independent testis samples per experiment (a–c), five independent experiments using three biologically independent testis samples per experiment (d), one immunostaining experiment using two biologically independent testis samples (e) and two independent immunostaining experiments using two biologically independent testis samples per experiment (f).
Temporally specific ZBTB43 expression in prospermatogonia. To visualize ZBTB43 protein localization in prospermatogonia, we carried out immunostaining of 15.5 dpc foetal testes with the anti-ZBTB43 antibody. We found specific staining of the MGC in the perinuclear and nuclear speckles. (Fig. 1d). In the testicular cords, ZBTB43 protein expression was specific to germ cells, identified by positive staining with anti-OCT4 (Fig. 1c) or anti-DDX4 antibodies (Fig. 1f). Whereas wild-type prospermatogonia exhibited strong ZBTB43 staining at 15.5 dpc, the ZBTB43 signal was absent in the germ cells of a Zbtb43−/− mutant foetus (Fig. 1d,e and Extended Data Fig. 2). To determine the timing of ZBTB43 expression, we stained testis sections with antibodies against ZBTB43 and the germ cell marker DDX4 at 13.5, 15.5 and 18.5 dpc. ZBTB43 expression was switched on in MGC between 13.5 and 15.5 dpc (Fig. 1f), coincident with Z-DNA elimination (Fig. 1a), which led us to explore whether these events were connected.

ZBTB43 binds PPRs. Owing to its ZFs and nuclear localization, we expected ZBTB43 to bind DNA. We cloned mouse Zbtb43 complementary DNA by RT–PCR, expressed the MBP-His-tagged ZBTB43 full-length protein (ZBTB43-FL) in Escherichia coli and purified it on Ni glutathione agarose beads (Fig. 2a). We also purified the glutathione S-transferase (GST)-tagged ZF domain (ZBTB43-ZF) and the maltose-binding protein (MBP)-tagged BTB domain (ZBTB43-BTB) (Fig. 2a). To identify potential binding sites of ZBTB43 in the mouse genome, we carried out in vitro affinity sequencing as detailed in Fig. 2b. We tested binding to fully unmethylated DNA isolated from Dnmt1/Dnmt3a/Dnmt3b triple-knockout (TKO) embryonic stem (ES) cells. We also tested binding to fully methylated DNA prepared with SssI bacterial CpG DNA methyltransferase. We expected that these DNA samples would allow detection of ZBTB43 binding sites and its preference for CpG methylation states in the binding sites. We prepared libraries and deep-sequenced the captured DNA. After aligning the reads to the mouse genome, we identified 14,694 ZBTB43 peaks in the TKO samples (Fig. 2c, Extended Data Fig. 3a and Supplementary Table 1) and 175,775 peaks in the SssI-methylated samples (Extended Data Fig. 3b and Supplementary Table 2). The TKO peaks represented a subset of the SssI peaks (Extended Data Fig. 3c) and the strongest SssI peaks matched with TKO peaks (Extended Data Fig. 3b), suggesting that ZBTB43 binds to unmethylated and methylated DNA, but with higher affinity to methylated DNA. ZBTB43 protein peaks occurred at PPRs such as (CA)5 (CACG)4 and (CG)4 sequences (Fig. 2d). These PPRs are predicted to adopt Z-DNA structures. We examined the ZBTB43 affinity read coverage at the predicted Z-DNA sites in the genome (Fig. 2e) and at in vivo-mapped (enriched) Z-DNA sites in activated B cells (Fig. 2e and Extended Data Fig. 3d–j). We found a strong match between ZBTB43 binding and predicted Z-DNA sites (Extended Data Figs. 3–5).

We confirmed the binding of ZBTB43 to selected affinity binding sequences using electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSA). The ZBTB43-FL protein or ZBTB43-ZF domain alone specifically shifted fluorescein amidite (FAM)-labelled double-stranded DNA probes (Supplementary Table 3) at the Rps6kl1 and Ago2 peaks and the consensus PPRs (CACG)6 and (CA)6 (Fig. 2g,h). The ZBTB43-BTB domain lacked specific DNA binding at the same sequences (Fig. 2h). These experiments collectively demonstrate that ZBTB43 via its ZF domain has affinity to PPRs.

The ZBTB43 binding sequence is mutagenic. Z-DNA-forming PPRs are known to be mutagenic and to cause genomic instability in cultured mammalian cells. Thus, we directly tested the mutagenicity of the ZBTB43 binding site, Rps6kl1-Z (Fig. 2f and Extended Data Fig. 4a), in bacterial and mammalian cell mutagenesis assays. We cloned the test sequences, a string of PPRs, (CA)6 (CACG), and its reverse complement (Fig. 3a) into a mutation-reporter shuttle vector in front of the LacZ gene, generating pUPZ2 and pUPZ1, respectively. We first established the background mutation frequency in NEB Stable and DH5α bacteria (Fig. 3b–d). Compared with the control plasmid, we detected an increased mutation frequency in NEB Stable bacteria using both reporter plasmids (Fig. 3b). The Z2 sequence had an unusually high background mutation frequency in DH5α (Fig. 3c). As seen by restriction digestion, the 910-bp-long fragment that carries the test DNA was present in each of six white DH5α colonies, suggesting that the background mutations were point mutations and small indels (Fig. 3d). Similarly, DNA sequencing detected small indels in the white NEB Stable colonies. pUPZ1 mutations in NEB Stable cells comprised the following: deleted TGGG (one clone), gained TGGG (one), deleted TGGG (one), deleted TGGG (one), deleted TGGG (four) and deleted CG (one). Background mutations of pUPZ2 in NEB Stable cells comprised the following: deleted (CA)6 (three), deleted CA (one), deleted CGCA (two), deleted CGCA (one), and deleted ACGC (one).

Mutation reporters were prepared in Stbl3 bacteria and transfected into mammalian COS-7 cells, recovered 48 h later, and digested with DpnI to eliminate the un-replicated plasmids that carry a bacterial methylation signature. Mutations generated in the mammalian cells were first screened in NEB Stable cells. Mutation frequencies with both the Z1 and Z2 inserts were elevated compared with the control B-DNA-containing reporter, pUCON (Fig. 3e). Restriction digestion of six white mutants from pUPZ1 and pUPZ2 screened in NEB Stable cells revealed large deletions, as indicated by the absence of the 910 bp band in all mutants (Fig. 3f). Many mutants also contained deletions in the top 1.9 kb band, adjacent to the insert, suggesting large deletions of over 1 kb. When mutants were screened in DH5α cells, they revealed deletions, re-arrangements and small indels (Fig. 3g), some of which probably originated in the bacteria. DNA sequencing of the reporter plasmids recovered...
in NEB Stable bacteria, however, confirmed that the mutations that occurred in COS-7 mammalian cells were large deletions (Fig. 3g). In summary, the mutation assays demonstrated that (1) both Z1 and Z2 directions of the prominent ZBTB43 binding peak are mutagenic in both bacterial and mammalian cells; (2) Z2 is extremely unstable in DH5α cells and is moderately mutagenic in NEB Stable cells; (3) Z1 and Z2 cause small indels in bacteria; and (4) both Z1 and Z2 are highly mutagenic and cause large deletions in mammalian cells. The results collectively support the idea that the PPR-rich binding sites of ZBTB43 are mutagenic and could pose risk to genome integrity in mammalian cells.

ZBTB43 binding sites can form Z-DNA structures in vitro. PPRs are known to easily adopt and stably maintain Z-DNA structures19. It is thought that the mutagenicity of PPRs is due to their capacity to form the Z-DNA structure, which is processed in a mutagenic fashion by DNA repair proteins6. To test whether ZBTB43 binding sequences could adopt a Z-DNA structure, we performed

---

**Figure Legends**

**a** ZBTB43 binding model with MBP, GST, and BTB domains.

**b** Schematic of the Z-DNA formation assay.

**c** Alignment of ZBTB43 binding sites with MBP and ZBTB43-FL.

**d** Z-DNA formation assay results.

**e** Predicted Z-DNA formation across different genomic regions.

**f** Transcript analysis showing Z-DNA formation.

**g** Competition experiments with ZBTB43 and competitor probes.

**h** Detailed analysis of competition experiments.
a gel-shift experiment in the presence of hexamine cobalt chloride, which is known to induce Z-DNA formation on appropriate sequences in vitro. After adding increasing concentrations of cobalt salt, the anti-Z-DNA antibody Z22 recognized increasing amounts of Z-DNA, seen as slower-migrating bands of both the consensus (CACG)₆ sequence probe and the Rps6kl1 probe, but not the mutant probe (Fig. 4a). We confirmed Z-DNA formation of the ZBTB43 recognition sequences using independent approaches, including circular dichroism (CD) spectroscopy, and two-dimensional (2D) gel electrophoresis. Figure 4b shows the shift in the absorption spectrum of the (CACG)₆ consensus sequence between the B-DNA form and the Z-DNA form after induction by CoCl₂. The 2D gel in Fig. 4c separates the topoisomers of a plasmid that contains the Rps6kl1 affinity peak sequence. These were generated by topoisomerase 1 (TOPO1) in the presence of increasing concentrations of the intercalator ethidium bromide. The arrow points to an irregularity, which indicates that the DNA was retarded in the first dimension owing to formation of Z-DNA.

**Fig. 3 | ZBTB43 binding sequences are mutagenic in mammalian cells.** a, ZBTB43 binding sequence at Rps6kl1, in forward and reverse orientation (Z1 and Z2), was inserted into the vector pUCON, and the resulting plasmids pUPZ1 and pUPZ2 were tested in LacZ mutation assays. b, Mutation frequencies in bacterial NEB Stable cells. Average values of three replicate samples are shown with standard deviation. Statistically significant differences (P < 0.05) resulting from n = 3 independent experiments are marked. These were obtained using two-tailed Student’s t-tests (unequal variance). c, The LacZ gene is frequently mutated at the Z-DNA insert, as depicted by an agarose plate with DH5α bacteria that contain the parent plasmid (blue colonies) or its mutants (white colonies). d, Restriction digestion is shown from randomly picked clones recovered from DH5α bacteria. DNA sequencing revealed small mutations that did not change the size of the 910-bp-long PPR-containing DNA fragment (blue arrow). Molecular size marker is shown in the left lane. Wild-type plasmid (WT) is depicted in the right lane. e, Mutation frequencies in mammalian COS-7 cells. Average values of three replicate samples are shown with standard deviation. Statistically significant differences (P < 0.05) resulting from n = 3 independent experiments are marked. These were obtained using two-tailed Student’s t-tests (unequal variance). f, Restriction digestion is shown from randomly picked biologically independent clones recovered from DH5α bacteria. The loss of the 910-bp-long PPR-containing fragment (blue arrow) reveals large deletions. Molecular size marker is shown in the left lane. Wild-type plasmid (WT) is depicted in the right lane. g, Mutation detection in the pUPZ1 and pUPZ2 plasmids mutagenized in COS-7 cells. Structural elements of the vector plasmid are depicted at the top. Position of the inserted Z1 and reciprocal Z2 sequences is shown in turquoise. Sequencing results are shown from biologically independent clones recovered in NEB Stable or DH5α bacteria, as indicated. Deletions are marked by blue horizontal bars. Micro-homologies that flank these deletions are shown by the DNA sequence. Sequencing results are shown from one of three independent mutagenesis experiments.
Fig. 4 | ZBTB43 binding sequences can form the Z-DNA structure in vitro. a, EMSA. Hexamine CoCl$_3$ was added to the DNA probes at increasing concentrations. The induced Z-DNA was detected as a gel shift using the anti-Z-DNA antibody Z22. b, Z-DNA formation (blue lines) is detected by CD spectroscopy at the (CACG)$_8$ consensus sequence in response to different concentrations of CoCl$_3$. The B-DNA specific spectrum is displayed in red. c, 2D gel electrophoresis detects a kink (blue arrow) at certain plasmid topoisomers, a sign of Z-DNA formation. d, Generation of circular Z-DNA probe. When two single-stranded circles (CC) are annealed, part of the circle, which contains PPRs is forced into left-handed DNA. Circular B-DNA is prepared by annealing a circular and a linear single-stranded DNA molecule (CL), and then ligating the nick (CL). Linear B-DNA is prepared by annealing two strands of linear DNA (LL). e, f, Z-DNA structure is confirmed in the CC probe by its insensitivity to restriction enzymes. The CC, CL and LL probes of PPR sequences, as marked above, were subjected to restriction digestion. The CC form (turquoise asterisk), was refractory. The CL form (black asterisk) is linearized, and the LL form is resistant to restriction enzyme digestion. We used restriction enzyme digestion to confirm the presence of Z-DNA structure in the CC probes of the (CACG)$_6$ and Rps6kl-Y sequences (Fig. 4e,f). Control B-DNA templates of the same sequences were sensitive to restriction enzyme digestion (Fig. 4e,f). Using EMSA we found that CC probes containing the ZBTB43 consensus sequence (CACG)$_6$ or the Rps6kl-Z sequences (Fig. 4e,f). g, Z-DNA is formed in the CC probe at the ZBTB43 consensus sequence. Increasing amount of the Z-DNA antibody Z22 quantitatively shifts the CC probe of (CACG)$_6$ and Rps6kl-Z sequences. h, ZBTB43 binds Z-DNA. EMSA results show that ZBTB43-FL shifts the CC probe containing the (CACG)$_6$ and Rps6kl-Z sequences. Data shown represent three independent experiments in a–c and e–h. i, ZBTB43 binds both Z-DNA and B-DNA but prefers Z-DNA. Competition binding experiment is shown where the CC and CL probes were mixed at equal molar ratios and the aliquots were allowed to interact with increasing amounts of ZBTB43-FL before separating the free probes and complexes in EMSA gels. The remaining free CC and CL probes in each reaction were quantified in the gel images. Data are presented as mean ± standard error of the mean (s.e.m.) from $n = 3$ independent experiments. In addition, using a recent method, we generated topologically constrained Z-DNA from ZBTB43 binding sequences under physiological conditions. When two single-stranded DNA circles (CC) are annealed, the simple repeat sequences snap into left-handed Z-DNA in one half of the circle, while the other half of the circle remains right-handed B-DNA (Fig. 4d). As controls for the CC-containing constrained Z-DNA, we generated a flexible B-DNA circle by annealing a circular and a linear single-stranded DNA molecule (CL), and then ligating the second strand (Fig. 4d). We also generated B-DNA by annealing two linear DNA strands (LL). Z-DNA is known to be resistant to restriction enzyme digestion. We used restriction digestion to confirm the presence of Z-DNA structure in the CC probes of the (CACG)$_6$ and Rps6kl-Y sequences (Fig. 4e,f). Control B-DNA templates of the same sequences were sensitive to restriction digestions (Fig. 4e,f). Using EMSA we found that CC probes containing the ZBTB43 consensus sequence (CACG)$_6$, or the Rps6kl-Z affinity peak sequence were fully shifted by the Z-DNA antibody (Fig. 4g); therefore, Z-DNA structure was present in 100% of the CC probes.
we showed earlier that ZBTB43 specifically binds the PPR sequences in linear double-stranded probes (Fig. 2g), which are in B-DNA form. To determine whether ZBTB43 binds PPRs in the Z-DNA structure, we incubated ZBTB43-FL with the CC probes, which contain topologically constrained Z-DNA. We found that the ZBTB43-FL protein recognized and strongly bound the CC probes containing the (CAGC) sequence or the ZBTB43 binding site at Rps6kl1-Z (Fig. 4h). These results suggest that ZBTB43 has the capacity to bind PPRs in the Z-DNA conformation.

To assess the relative affinity of ZBTB43 to Z-DNA and B-DNA, we carried out a competition EMSA assay using increasing amounts of ZBTB43-FL with the CC and CL probes combined at 1:1 ratio. The CC probe was bound more readily than the CL probe in three separate experiments (Fig. 2h). These results indicate that ZBTB43 binds PPRs in both B-DNA and Z-DNA structures but prefers Z-DNA over B-DNA.

ZBTB43 alters DNA topology and removes Z-DNA in vitro. We utilized the known property of Z-DNA structure to resist restriction enzyme digestion\(^{22}\),\(^{23}\) to test whether ZBTB43 can alter the Z-DNA structure. We first confirmed the resistance of the mutantgenic Rps6kl1-Z sequence in the CC but not LL probe to \(I\) digestion (Fig. 5a). We then subjected the CC or LL probes to reactions with topoisomerase I (TOP1) or ZBTB43-FL, or both, followed by isolating the resulting DNA and digesting it with \(I\) restriction enzyme (Fig. 5b,c). In the control experiment, TOP1 and/or ZBTB43 had no effect on the sensitivity of the LL probe to \(I\) (Fig. 5c). However, TOP1 and ZBTB43 reduced the intensity of the CC band, which retained resistance to \(I\) (Fig. 5b). A slower-migrating band appeared at the same time, which was sensitive to \(I\), and therefore was B-DNA. Adding ZBTB43-FL also resulted in a slower-migrating, restriction-sensitive band not seen in the control, implying that ZBTB43-FL has the ability to remodel Z-DNA on its own in vitro.

Z-DNA structure formation at PPRs is induced by DNA super-coiling\(^{24}\). We hypothesized that ZBTB43 removes Z-DNA structures by affecting DNA topology. TOP1 facilitates the release of superhelical tension from DNA by generating single-strand nicks, rotating one strand around the other, and re-ligating the nick. When we included ZBTB43 in the reaction of TOP1 and the plasmid DNA containing the Rps6kl1 affinity peak sequence, we found that the range of topoisomers shifted to less superhelical topoisomers (Fig. 5d). Adding ethidium bromide intercalator in this reaction resulted in a different set of topoisomers, as expected. Again, the presence of ZBTB43 resulted in a shifted pattern of topoisomers compared to TOP1 alone. In this experimental system, ZBTB43 enhanced the relaxing effect of TOP1 on DNA topology (Fig. 5d).

The Z-\(\alpha\) domain of the cytoplasmic ADAR1 protein is known to convert B-DNA to Z-DNA\(^{25}\) in vitro. This provided us the
opportunity to test the effect of ZBTB43 on Z-DNA using CD. We first confirmed that Z-α shifts the ellipticity of the (CA)$_{16}$ double-stranded linear DNA to the lower wavelength (Fig. 5e), by generating Z-DNA from B-DNA. We also confirmed that ZBTB43 does not shift the ellipticity of the same probe (Fig. 5f), therefore, it has no effect on the B-DNA structure. When we co-incubated Z-α and ZBTB43 with the (CA)$_{16}$ probe, the effect of Z-α was eliminated (Fig. 5g,h), suggesting that ZBTB43 reversed the effect of Z-α on B-DNA. The results above collectively suggest that ZBTB43 is capable of altering Z-DNA structures in vitro and has a similar effect on DNA topology as TOPO1.

ZBTB43 removes Z-DNA structures in prospermatogonia. To test the role of ZBTB43 on remodelling Z-DNA in prospermatogonia in vivo, we immunostained paraffin sections of wild-type and Zbtb43$^{-/-}$ foetal mouse testes at 15.5 dpc with antibodies against ZBTB43 and Z-DNA (Fig. 6a–d). The ZBTB43-negative mutant germ cells exhibited a strikingly higher level of Z-DNA staining compared with ZBTB43-positive wild-type germ cells (Fig. 6d). We similarly stained foetal testis sections at 13.5, 15.5 and 18.5 dpc and found that the mutant germ cells were affected at 15.5 dpc (Extended Data Fig. 6), the time at which ZBTB43 expression is turned on.
ZBTB43 protects foetal MGCs from DNA breaks. Z-DNA-forming PPRs are known to stimulate the formation of DSBs. We found that the sequence at a prominent ZBTB43 site was highly mutagenic in mammalian cells (Fig. 3). We next tested whether an increased Z-DNA load in the absence of ZBTB43 renders the Zbtb43−/− mutant foetal MGCs more vulnerable to DNA breakage. We performed immunostaining using an antibody against γH2AX, a histone variant that is a marker for DSBs. Formation of γH2AX foci increased in Zbtb43−/− mutant germ cells compared with wild-type germ cells (Fig. 6e,f), suggesting that ZBTB43 protein protects the genome from DSBs in foetal MGCs in vivo.

ZBTB43 binds at PPRs in prospermatogonia. To detect in vivo binding sites of ZBTB43, we isolated prospermatogonia at 15.5 dpc by fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS), based on the Oct4-EGFP transgene expression, and performed chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by sequencing (ChIP–seq) experiments as we did earlier using the anti-ZBTB43 antibody. We found that specific regions, such as Sre, Cngb3, Pdcd7 and Tshz2, displayed clear in vivo ChIP–seq peaks in wild-type prospermatogonia (Fig. 7a). We identified 897 peaks against a non-specific rabbit IgG ChIP–seq library (Supplementary Table 4), and 878 of these matched the input-controlled peaks (n = 1,183). The peaks called using 100,000 prospermatogonia (Fig. 7b) represent a subset of peaks called in 500,000 prospermatogonia (Fig. 7c). The distribution of ChIP peaks in the genome (Fig. 7d) and at genes (Fig. 7e) closely matches that of the affinity peaks and predicted Z-DNA sites (Fig. 7f). The ChIP–seq data show that ZBTB43 specifically binds PPRs in 15.5 dpc prospermatogonia in vivo.

ZBTB43 is required for de novo DNA methylation at PPRs. ZBTB43 in vivo binding at PPRs (Fig. 7) may result in the global removal of Z-DNA in wild-type prospermatogonia as seen by immunohistochemistry (Fig. 6). To detect specific sequences where ZBTB43 has in vivo activity in the germ line, we examined the effect of ZBTB43 on DNA methylation. Earlier studies showed that Z-DNA inhibits the catalytic activity of the DNA methyltransferase enzyme DNM1T1 (ref. 28). We hypothesized that Z-DNA may also inhibit the catalytic activity of DNM1T3A, the DNA methyltransferase enzyme that carries out de novo DNA methylation in prospermatogonia. We first tested whether Z-DNA prevents DNA methylation by DNM1T3A. We prepared three different substrates from the Rps6k1l affinity-peak region that contains the (CA)₆(CAGC)₆ repeat sequences: constrained circular Z-DNA (CC), control circular B-DNA (CL) and linear DNA (LL) according to a published approach (Fig. 4d and 8a). We subjected these substrates to methylation by DNM1T3A and found that the Z-DNA-containing CC, but not the CL or LL substrate, was refractory to DNM1T3A binding (Fig. 8a). We further hypothesized that Z-DNA affects de novo methylation by DNM1T3A in vivo, and ZBTB43 is required in the male germ line for methylation sequences that adopt Z-DNA structure, was refractory to DNM1T3A in vitro (Fig. 8a).

We showed above that Z-DNA removal takes place in prospermatogonia at 15.5 dpc (Fig. 1a), which coincides with the time of global de novo DNA methylation in those cells between 15.5 and 18.5 dpc (refs. 13,14). To test whether the sperm DMRs originate at the foetal germ cell stage and if ZBTB43 affects the process of de novo methylation, we isolated 18.5 dpc prospermatogonia from Zbtb43−/− and control Zbtb43+/+ male foetuses by FACS and carried out bisulphite sequencing at selected hypomethylated DMR sequences. In the absence of ZBTB43, the mutant foetal germ cells failed to achieve de novo DNA methylation at the Arid2, Ago2 and Rps6kl1 MIRA DMRs (Fig. 8c).

The hypomethylated DMRs (Supplementary Table 5) globally aligned with ZBTB43 in vitro affinity peaks (Fig. 8d and Extended Data Fig. 7a,b), matched with a subset of ChIP–seq peaks (Fig. 8e) and mapped at predicted Z-DNA sites (Extended Data Fig. 7c,d). Examples of hypomethylated regions that overlapped with ChIP–seq peaks are displayed at Dhx35, Cngb3, Mxi1, Tshz2 and Pdcd2, and downstream of Shq1 (Fig. 8b). Overlap of ZBTB43 ChIP–seq and MIRA hypomethylation DMRs gives direct evidence that methylation of PPRs depends on ZBTB43 binding at those sequences in the male germ line in vivo. Overlap of ZBTB43 affinity-seq peaks and hypomethylated DMRs gives indirect but in vivo evidence that methylation of CpG-containing PPR at a larger number of DMRs depends on ZBTB43 in the male germ line.

Importance of ZBTB43 in mouse viability and growth. The phenotype of the Zbtb43 mutant mouse has not been described, and the effect of its mutation on development is unknown. Zbtb43−/− pups were underrepresented at weaning in test crosses between Zbtb43+/− mice, in two different genetic backgrounds, C57BL/6 and F1/Jf1/Ms9 (Extended Data Fig. 8a). Conversely, Zbtb43−/− pups were overrepresented among dead pups from a test cross between Zbtb43+/− × Zbtb43−/− mice and also in a test cross between Zbtb43+/− × Zbtb43−/− mice (Extended Data Fig. 8b,c). These findings were consistent with a partially penetrant perinatal lethality of Zbtb43−/− pups. To further assess the partially penetrant lethality phenotype, we set up genetic crosses in different combinations of Zbtb43+/− and Zbtb43−/− parents from the original line (HET, and HOMO, respectively) and also from a line that was backcrossed to the C57BL/6 J (B6) wild-type strain one time (HET B6 and HOMO B6). Having a Zbtb43−/− mother in the HOMO × HET cross resulted in 35% lethality of HOMO pups (Extended Data Fig. 8d), but having both a Zbtb43−/− mother and Zbtb43−/− father in the HOMO × HOMO and HOMO B6 × HOMO B6 crosses increased the postnatal lethality of HOMO pups to above 60% (Extended Data Fig. 8d). This suggests that ZBTB43 has parental effects on viability from both female and male germ lines. The lethality phenotype of HOMO offspring out of the HOMO × HOMO cross was observed in consecutive generations (Extended Data Fig. 8e).

Next, we measured the weight of live offspring of different genotypes weekly between 3 and 8 weeks of age. We found that the weight of HOMO mice out of the HOMO × HOMO cross was significantly lower at each timepoint compared with control WT mice out of WT parents (Extended Data Fig. 8f,g). HET and HOMO mice out of the HET × HET cross also appeared smaller compared with the WT siblings (Extended Data Fig. 8h.i). The difference was significant for HOMO males at 3 weeks and for HOMO females at 5 and 8 weeks. Whereas growth of WT pups was indistinguishable from WT × WT or HET × HET parents (Extended Data Fig. 8j), HOMO pups were smaller from HOMO × HOMO cross than HOMO pups from HET × HET cross (Extended Data Fig. 8k). This suggests that having two Zbtb43−/− parents enhances the growth retardation phenotype in pups of the Zbtb43−/− genotype. These results are consistent with parental effects of ZBTB43 in the mouse germ line affecting viability and post-weaning growth of the offspring.

Discussion

The mammalian germ line undergoes global epigenome remodelling at the level of DNA methylation and chromatin structure. In the present work, we discovered an additional layer of the remodelling process in the male germ line at the level of DNA structure.
Fig. 7 | ZBTB43 binds at PPRs in prospermatogonia in vivo. a, Genome browser images of ZBTB43 ChIP–seq peaks (light green) obtained in purified 15.5 dpc prospermatogonia are displayed at 12 genomic locations. IgG lanes are shown as controls. The ChIP peaks align with the in vitro affinity sequencing peaks found in fully methylated genomic DNA (SSsl) and in fully unmethylated genomic DNA (TKO) (dark green). MBP affinity-seq lanes are shown as controls. The scale of reads was normalized between experimental samples and their respective background control samples using the ‘group-autoscale’ function of IGV as marked on the right. b, c, Heatmap showing the ZBTB43 ChIP–seq peaks detected against IgG background in 100,000 (b) or 500,000 (c) purified prospermatogonia. The read intensities in three libraries, ZBTB43 antibody, IgG antibody and input DNA (as marked above), are plotted (as marked at the top) along subset of genomic regions centred at ZBTB43-FL affinity-seq peaks in methylated DNA (SssI), unmethylated DNA (TKO) and distal intergenic regions are excluded. d, e, Venn diagrams depicting the location of ZBTB43 ChIP–seq peaks mapped in 15.5 dpc prospermatogonia are displayed at 12 genomic locations. IgG lanes are shown as controls. The ChIP peaks align with the in vitro affinity sequencing peaks found in fully methylated genomic DNA (SssI) and in fully unmethylated genomic DNA (TKO) (dark green). MBP affinity-seq lanes are shown as controls. The plotted regions were centred at ChIP peaks called in 500,000 or 100,000 prospermatogonia against IgG, as indicated at the bottom. f, The ZBTB43 ChIP–seq peaks detected in vivo are recognized by purified ZBTB43 protein in vitro. Heatmaps display the read intensities of ZBTB43-FL and the control MBP in affinity binding with unmethylated DNA (TKO) or methylated DNA (SSsl). The plotted regions were centred at ChIP peaks called in 500,000 or 100,000 prospermatogonia against IgG, as indicated at the bottom. g, The ZBTB43 ChIP–seq peaks detected in prospermatogonia align with affinity-seq peaks and with predicted Z-DNA. Heat maps display the ChIP–seq log, IP/IgG read intensities detected in 500K or 100K prospermatogonia (as marked at the top) along subset of genomic regions centred at ZBTB43-FL affinity-seq peaks in methylated DNA (SSsl), unmethylated DNA (TKO) and at the subset of predicted Z-DNA sites (marked at the bottom) where overlap is found with ChIP-seq peaks. The ChIP–seq and affinity-sequencing results shown represent two independent biological replicates in a, f and g.
We found that the left handed transient Z-DNA structure that forms under permissive conditions\(^1\) is removed naturally in prospermatogonia between 13.5 dpc and 15.5 dpc (Fig. 1a–d). We also provide genetic, epigenomic and biochemical evidence that a sequence-specific DNA binding protein, ZBTB43, carries out this function, as summarized in the model (Fig. 8f). Remodelling of DNA structure not only coincides with the major wave of global epigenetic remodelling in the foetal male germ line\(^12\)–\(^14\), but de novo methylation of PPR-rich regions in prospermatogonia also requires ZBTB43 (Fig. 8b–e). The MIRA–seq experiment...

---

**Fig. 8** ZBTB43 is required for de novo methylation of PPRs in prospermatogonia. a, Z-DNA structure inhibits DNMT3A catalytic activity in vitro. The CC, CL and LL substrates were prepared from the Rps6kl1 affinity binding sequence and were subjected to methylation by DNMT3A at 30X or 60X molar excess. The level of DNA methylation at each CpG is plotted after multiplexed bisulfite sequencing in two biologically independent replicates. b, DNA methylation is aberrant in sperm of Zbtb43\(^{-/-}\) mice at the sites of ZBTB43 binding. IGV browser images display selected in vivo hypomethylated regions detected using MIRA–seq assays in Zbtb43\(^{-/-}\) versus wild-type spermatooza (navy). The ZBTB43 affinity binding peaks (green), and ChIP–seq peaks mapped in 15.5 dpc prospermatogonia (light green) are also shown together with the MBP and IgG backgrounds. Independent replicate samples are displayed. c, DMRs originate at the time of de novo methylation in prospermatogonia. Bisulfite sequencing results show methylated and unmethylated CpGs (black and white circle, respectively) along individual chromosomes at specific DMR sequences and at one control region in adult spermatozoa. d, ZBTB43 creates an accessible substrate for DNMT3A and facilitates DNA methylation establishment at PPR-rich DNA regions. Bottom: Z-DNA is not removed in the Zbtb43\(^{-/-}\) prospermatogonia in the absence of ZBTB43, DNA methylation is not established at PPRs, and hypomethylated DMRs are found in mutant sperm. One prominent ZBTB43 region can induce large rearrangements in mammalian mutation assays, and ZBTB43 protects from DSBs by directly binding to PPRs and removing mutagenic Z-DNA structures in the foetal germ cells.
identifies ZBTB43's function for removing Z-DNA structure in the male germ line in vivo at more than 300 sperm DMRs. As methyl-CpG binding proteins used in the MIRA assay prefer higher density of 5mCpGs\(^\text{62}\), our list of DMRs is an underestimation of ZBTB43's effect on de novo methylation.

Mouse breeding experiments (Extended Data Fig. 8) suggest that ZBTB43 function is important for growth and viability of the offspring in a stochastic manner. Future experiments will address the exact cause of these parental effect phenotypes. It will be interesting to find out whether methylating PPRs itself is important for germ-line function or DNA methylation may only be a consequence of Z-DNA structure remodelling, and whether ZBTB43 selects those Z-DNA sequences that have evolved to be of value for regulatory purposes, by facilitating essential methylation in this case.

ZBTB43 indirectly affects the function of DNMT3A, the methyltransferase responsible for de novo methylation in pro spermatogonia\(^\text{9,33}\). Our biochemical experiments showed that, similar to DNMT1 and bacterial methyltransferases\(^\text{22,23,27}\), DNMT3A discriminates against Z-DNA substrates (Fig. 8a). By removing Z-DNA structures, ZBTB43 generates the favoured B-DNA substrate for DNMT3A, facilitating DNA methylation establishment at specific PPR-rich DNA regions (Fig. 8). This study identifies ZBTB43 as a unique DNA-binding factor required for specifying locations of de novo DNA methyltransferase activity in the male germ line.

Mechanistically, ZBTB43 can reduce the superhelicity of PPR-containing plasmid DNA together with TOPO1 (Fig. 5d). This should destabilize Z-DNA structures, because negative superhelicity stabilizes Z-DNA structure in plasmid DNA in vitro\(^\text{35,19}\) and reducing negative superhelicity in DNA is known to destabilize Z-DNA structure in vivo in bacteria and mammalian cells\(^\text{30,34}\). In addition, ZBTB43 has an ability to eliminate the Z-DNA structure by itself from a topologically constrained circular DNA (Fig. 5b), and it can also reverse the action of Z-α domain of ADAR1 in vitro (Fig. 5e–h). Future biochemical studies will identify interacting molecules and structural biology studies will elucidate the detailed mechanism of how ZBTB43 remodels Z-DNA.

Unlike known Z-DNA binding proteins, such as ADAR1 and E3L, which carry out their biological function in the cytoplasm\(^\text{20,19}\), ZBTB43 is a nuclear protein (Fig. 1d–f) and functions to remove Z-DNA in the nucleus (Fig. 6a–d). Another transcription factor ZBTB43 is a nuclear protein (Fig. 1d–f) and functions to remove Z-DNA in the nucleus (Fig. 6a–d). Another transcription factor ZBTB43 is a nuclear protein (Fig. 1d–f), which helps remove Z-DNA in the nucleus (Fig. 6a–d). Another transcription factor ZBTB43 is a nuclear protein (Fig. 1d–f), which helps remove Z-DNA in the nucleus (Fig. 6a–d). Another transcription factor ZBTB43 is a nuclear protein (Fig. 1d–f), which helps remove Z-DNA in the nucleus (Fig. 6a–d).

Z-DNA-forming PPRs are mutagenic and can lead to large deletions and re-arrangements in the mammalian genome\(^\text{6,16}\). It has been shown that PPRs induce DSBs in mammalian cells, most likely due to their capacity to form Z-DNA\(^\text{5,6}\). Indeed, we found that the level of DSBs is elevated in Zbtb43−/− mutant pro spermatogonia (Fig. 6e,f), where removal of Z-DNA structures does not occur (Fig. 6a–d). This provides genetic evidence for the model that Z-DNA structure, not simply the PPR sequence, poses a risk for DSB formation in the mammalian organism in vivo.

Indeed, the prominent PPR-rich ZBTB43-binding peak from an intron of Rps6kl1 can induce large re-arrangements in mammalian mutation assays (Fig. 3e–g). It forms Z-DNA in vitro (Fig. 4a–c), and it is preferentially bound by ZBTB43 in the Z-DNA structure in vitro (Fig. 4h,i). This sequence also changes its DNA structure from Z to B in response to ZBTB43 in vitro (Fig. 5b). ZBTB43 binds this DNA fragment and changes its conformation in pro spermatogonia in vivo, as judged by its effect on de novo DNA methylation (Fig. 8b,c). By removing the mutagenic Z-DNA structure at such sites, ZBTB43 may balance the mutagenicity of PPRs in the germ line, thus controlling the level of mutations passed to the next generation. Therefore, by eliminating the Z-DNA structures in the germ line, ZBTB43 safeguards genome stability of the species.

An interesting aspect is the timing of Z-DNA removal during male gametogenesis. As these MGCs are in mitotic arrest at 15.5 dpc and remain there until after birth, any newly formed DSBs at Z-DNA-forming sequences could only be repaired by the error-prone non-homologous end joining pathway but not by error-free homologous recombination\(^\text{44,45}\). For these reasons, it seems logical that a mechanism for Z-DNA removal during this critical time period has evolved. Future experiments will test whether the DSB formation in the Zbtb43 mutant foetal germ cells leads to mutations, which then could be passed to the next generation via the sperm.

Repeated loss of pelvic structures in evolution was reported in the stickleback fish, and this corresponded to genomic deletions which occurred at PPRs\(^\text{66}\). In this instance, deletions that occurred at PPRs lent the freshwater fish an advantage, which was selected for during parallel evolution. Such evolutionary events may be controlled differently in different species. It is interesting to note that stickleback fish do not have the Zbtb43 gene, and without ZBTB43 they may not have a mechanism to curb Z-DNA formation and the mutagenicity of PPRs in the germ line.

In summary, our results reveal the existence of a ZBTB43-dependent mechanism that protects genomic and epigenomic integrity of the species by regulating mutagenic Z-DNA structures at PPRs in the mammalian germ line.

### Online content

Any methods, additional references, Nature Research reporting summaries, source data, extended data, supplementary information, acknowledgements, peer review information; details of author contributions and competing interests; and statements of data and code availability are available at [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41556-022-00941-9](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41556-022-00941-9).

Received: 24 April 2021; Accepted: 17 May 2022; Published online: 4 July 2022

### References

1. Drew, H., Takano, T., Tanaka, S., Itakura, K. & Dickerson, R. E. High-salt d(CpGpCpG), a left-handed DNA double helix. *Nature* **286**, 567–573 (1980).
2. Crawford, J. L. et al. The tetramer d(CpGpCpG) crystallizes as a left-handed double helix. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* **77**, 4016–4020 (1980).
3. Rich, A. & Zhang, S. Timeline: Z-DNA: the long road to biological function. *Nat. Rev. Genet.* **4**, 566–572 (2003).
4. Zhao, J., Bacolla, A., Wang, G. & Vasquez, K. M. Non-B DNA structure-induced genetic instability and evolution. *Cell. Mol. Life Sci.* **67**, 43–62 (2010).
5. Boehm, T. et al. Alternating purine–pyrimidine tracts may promote chromosomal translocations seen in a variety of human lymphoid tumours. *EMBO J.* **8**, 2621–2631 (1989).
6. McKinney, J. A. et al. Distinct DNA repair pathways cause genomic instability at alternative DNA structures. *Nat. Commun.* **11**, 236 (2020).
7. Wang, G., Christensen, L. A. & Vasquez, K. M. Z-DNA-forming sequences generate large-scale deletions in mammalian cells. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* **103**, 2677–2682 (2006).
8. Filion, G. J. et al. A family of human zinc finger proteins that bind methylated DNA and repress transcription. *Mol. Cell Biol.* **26**, 169–181 (2006).
9. Zhu, C., Chen, G., Zhao, Y., Gao, X. M. & Wang, J. Regulation of the development and function of B cells by ZBTB transcription factors. *Front. Immunol.* **9**, 580 (2018).
10. Moller, A. et al. Monoclonal antibodies recognize different parts of Z-DNA. *J. Biol. Chem.* **257**, 12081–12085 (1982).
11. Abe, M., Tsai, S. Y., Jin, S. G., Pfeifer, G. P. & Szabó, P. E. Sex-specific dynamics of global chromatin changes in fetal mouse germ cells. *PLoS ONE* **6**, e23848 (2011).
12. Kobayashi, H. et al. High-resolution DNA methylome analysis of primordial germ cells identifies gender-specific reprogramming in mice. *Genome Res.* **23**, 616–627 (2013).
13. Seisenberger, S. et al. The dynamics of genome-wide DNA methylation reprogramming in mouse primordial germ cells. *Mol. Cell* **48**, 849–862 (2012).
14. Singh, P. et al. De novo DNA methylation in the male germ line occurs by default but is excluded at sites of H3K4 methylation. Cell Rep. 4, 205–219 (2013).

15. Szabó, P. E., Hubner, K., Scholer, H. & Mann, J. R. Allele-specific expression of imprinted genes in mouse migratory primordial germ cells. Mech. Dev. 115, 157–160 (2002).

16. Tsumura, A. et al. Maintenance of self-renewal ability of mouse embryonic stem cells in the absence of DNA methyltransferases Dnmt1, Dnmt3a and Dnmt3b. Genes Cells 11, 805–814 (2006).

17. Cer, R. Z. et al. Non-B DNA: a database of predicted non-B DNA-forming motifs in mammalian genomes. Nucleic Acids Res. 39, D383–D391 (2011).

18. Kouzine, F. et al. Permanganate/S1 nuclease footprinting reveals non-B DNA structures with regulatory potential across a mammalian genome. Cell Syst. 4, 344–356 e347 (2017).

19. Herbert, A. & Rich, A. Left-handed Z-DNA: structure and function. Genetica 106, 37–47 (1999).

20. Keller, W. Determination of the number of superhelical turns in simian virus 40 DNA by gel electrophoresis. Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA 72, 4876–4880 (1975).

21. Zhang, Y. et al. Topologically constrained formation of stable Z-DNA from normal sequence under physiological conditions. JACS 141, 7758–7764 (2019).

22. Vardimon, L. & Rich, A. In Z-DNA the sequence G-C-G-C is neither methylated by Hha I methyltransferase nor cleaved by Hha I restriction endonuclease. Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA 81, 3268–3272 (1984).

23. Zacharias, W., Larson, J. E., Kidpatrick, M. W. & Wells, R. D. HhaI methylase and restriction endonuclease as probes for B to Z DNA conformational changes in d(GGCC) sequences. Nucleic Acids Res. 12, 7677–7692 (1984).

24. Singleton, C. K., Klysik, J., Stirdivant, S. M. & Wells, R. D. Left-handed Z-DNA is induced by supercoiling in physiological ionic conditions. Nature 299, 312–316 (1982).

25. Schwartz, T. et al. Proteolytic dissection of Zab, the Z-DNA-binding domain of human ADAR1. J. Biol. Chem. 274, 2989–2996 (1999).

26. Singh, P. & Szabó, P. E. Chromatin immunoprecipitation to characterize the epigenetic profiles of imprinted domains. Methods Mol. Biol. 925, 159–172 (2012).

27. Bestor, T. Supercoiling-dependent sequence specificity of mammalian DNA methyltransferase. Nucleic Acids Res. 15, 3835–3843 (1987).

28. Kaneda, M. et al. Essential role for de novo DNA methyltransferase Dnmt3a in paternal and maternal imprinting. Nature 429, 900–903 (2004).

29. Jung, M. et al. MIRA-seq for DNA methylation analysis of CpG islands. Epigenomics 7, 695–706 (2015).

30. Koide, T. et al. A new inbred strain JF1 established from Japanese fancy mouse carrying the classic piebald allele. Mamm. Genome 9, 15–19 (1998).

31. Rich, A., Nordheim, A. & Wang, A. H. The chemistry and biology of left-handed Z-DNA. Annu. Rev. Biochem. 53, 791–846 (1984).

32. Rauch, T., Li, H., Wu, X. & Pfeifer, G. P. MIRA-assisted microarray analysis, a new technology for the determination of DNA methylation patterns, identifies frequent methylation of homeodomain-containing genes in lung cancer cells. Cancer Res. 66, 7939–7947 (2006).

33. Okano, M., Bell, D. W., Haber, D. A. & Li, E. DNA methyltransferases Dnmt3a and Dnmt3b are essential for de novo methylation and mammalian development. Cell 99, 247–257 (1999).

34. Rich, A., Nordheim, A. & Azorin, F. Stabilization and detection of natural left-handed Z-DNA. J. Biomol. Struct. Dyn. 1, 1–19 (1983).

35. Jaworski, A., Higgins, N. P., Wells, R. D. & Zacharias, W. Topoisomerase mutants and physiological conditions control supercoiling and Z-DNA formation in vivo. J. Biol. Chem. 266, 2576–2581 (1991).

36. Wittig, B., Dorbic, T. & Rich, A. The level of Z-DNA in metabolically active, permeabilized mammalian cell nuclei is regulated by torsional strain. J. Cell Biol. 108, 755–764 (1989).

37. Herbert, A. Z-DNA and Z-RNA in human disease. Commun. Biol. 2, 7 (2019).

38. Streibl, A., Hallegger, M. & Jantsch, M. F. Nucleocytoplasmic distribution of human RNA-editing enzyme ADAR1 is modulated by double-stranded RNA-binding domains, a leucine-rich export signal, and a putative dimerization domain. Mol. Biol. Cell 13, 3822–3835 (2002).

39. Srinivasan, R. et al. Zscan4 binds nucleosomal microsatellite DNA and protects mouse two-cell embryos from DNA damage. Sci. Adv. 6, eaaz9115 (2020).

40. Xie, K. T. et al. DNA fragility in the parallel evolution of pelvic reduction in stickleback fish. Science 363, 81–84 (2019).

41. Arnould, N. et al. Regulation of DNA repair pathway choice in S and G2 phases by the NHEJ inhibitor CYREN. Nature 549, 548–552 (2017).

42. Chapman, J. R., Taylor, M. R. & Boulton, S. J. Playing the end game: DNA double-strand break repair pathway choice. Mol. Cell 47, 497–510 (2012).

43. Medina-Rivera, A. et al. RSAT 2015: Regulatory Sequence Analysis Tools. Nucleic Acids Res. 43, W50–W56 (2015).

44. Kiesel, A. et al. The BaMM web server for de-novo motif discovery and transcription factor binding site predictions. Nature Methods 9, 137–140 (2012).

45. Bailey, T. L., Johnson, J., Grant, C. E. & Noble, W. S. The MEME suite. Nucleic Acids Res. 41, W118–W122 (2013).

46. Srinivasan, R. et al. The adenosine deaminase inhibitor 2′-deoxyadenosine promotes ADAR1 recruitment to Dicer bodies in vivo, inducing transient hypermethylation at 135 known targets. Cell Syst. 3, 344–346 e347 (2017).

47. Baumeister, R., Bork, P. & Kopp, M. promDom: protein domain prediction in eukaryotes. Nucleic Acids Res. 33, W220–W222 (2005).

48. Miska, E. A. & Slack, F. J. MicroRNA effects on mammalian development and disease. Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol. 9, W65–W73 (2008).

49. Bailey, T. L., Johnson, J., Grant, C. E. & Noble, W. S. The MEME suite. Nucleic Acids Res. 41, W118–W122 (2013).
Methods

Mice. This research complies with all relevant ethical regulations. All animal experiments were performed according to the National Institutes of Health Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory animals, with Institutional Care and Use Committee-approved protocols at Van Andel Institute.

Mouse lines. The Zbtb43<sup>−/−</sup> heterozygous mouse C57BL/6N-Zbtb43<sup>+/−</sup>Mmly was obtained from the Jackson Laboratory, and kept in the C57BL/6N genetic background. A subline was created by back-crossing to [F1]<sup>−/−</sup> mice. To obtain wild-type prospermatogonia for ChIP–seq by FACS, C57BL/6 females (~2 months old) were crossed with B6CBA-Tg(−)<sup>−/−</sup>-Dio (TgO2G3) (ref. 17) transgenic males (~2–12 months old) and male foetuses were collected at 15.5 dpc. Zbtb43<sup>−/−</sup>; TgO2G3 females (~2 months old) were crossed with Zbtb43<sup>−/−</sup>; TgO2G3 transgenic males (~2–12 months old) to obtain mutant and wild-type foetuses at 18.5 dpc, for collecting prospermatogonia by FACS. Adult Zbtb43<sup>−/−</sup> and wild-type males at 3 months of age were used for sperm collection. Mice were kept on a 12 h light/dark cycle, 7:00 to 18:00 at ambient room temperature of 72 degrees F, and at humidity of 30–70%, monitored through the building control management system.

Genotyping of Zbtb43 mutant mice. Mouse tail tip samples were collected at weaning time, boiled in 180 μl tail digestion buffer (50 mM NaOH, 0.1 M EDTA) at 95°C for 20 min, and dissociated by vortexing. Then, 20 μl tail neutralization buffer (1 M Tris–HCl pH 8.0) was added to stop the digestion. Two pairs of primers, one for wild-type and one for mutant, were mixed with 1 μl digested tail DNA in a total volume including 2 μl Taq Green Master Mix (M7128-C, Promega) and 1 μl preheated PCR cycles: 95°C, 3 min; 35 cycles, 95°C, 30 s, 72°C, 65 × 39, 32, 79°C, 5 min. The size of wild-type and mutant bands, 298 bp and 405 bp, respectively, was resolved in a 1.5% agarose gel. The primer sequences are listed in Supplementary Table 3. Genotyping experiments (Extended Data Fig. 2b) were consistently done multiple times.

Western blot. Sample preparation. Brain and kidney were dissected from adult mice. After a 1× PBS rinse, the organ was immediately lysed in RIPA buffer (1 ml for one kidney, 2 ml for one brain) containing protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche, cat. no. 1169749601) and sonicated for 10 s at (an amplitude of 25%) at 4°C in an EpipHane Spot Sonicator. Sample was centrifuged at 16,800 rpm for 20 min at 4°C in an Eppendorf centrifuge. Protein concentration was determined from the supernatant using Bradford colorimetry. Then, 50 μg total protein per each lane was resolved in a 10% SDS–PAGE and transferred onto a PVDF membrane.

Antibody incubation. After blocking with 5% non-fat dry milk in TBST, protein blots were incubated with primary antibody overnight at 4°C. Then blots were washed three times and probed with secondary peroxidase-conjugated antibodies for 1 h at room temperature. Signals were visualized using an ECL chromogenic kit. Antibodies were diluted in 5% non-fat dry milk in 1× PBS as follows: anti-ZBTB43 (1:100, Aviva Systems Biology, cat. no. ARP39048-P050); anti-LacZ (1:2,000, Abcam, cat. no. ab9361); anti-GAPDH (1:10,000, Abclonal, cat. no. AC035); and secondary antibody reactions were carried out at room temperature, in the dark and at 1:200 dilution. Images were taken by a Nikon A1plus-Rsi Laser Scanning Confocal Microscope with 100× oil objectives.

DNA–protein affinity sequencing assay. Affinity capture. His-MBP-ZBTB43 recombinant protein was purified from E. coli and stored in diethyl buffer (50 mM HEPES pH 7.4, 50% glycerol and 5 mM 2-mercaptoethanol) at −80°C. Unmethylated genomic DNA was purified from mouse TKO ES cells (Dnmt<sup>−/−</sup>

Microscopy. Images were taken by a Nikon A1plus-Rsi Laser Scanning Confocal Microscope with 100× oil objectives.

Z-DNA antibody of pUCNIM7. Clones resulting from the transformation of DH5α cells were screened by restriction analysis and verified by sequencing. Plasmid DNA was prepared from One Shot Stbl3 cells (Invitrogen, cat. no. C7373-03).

Z-DNA-induced mutagenesis of the LacZ gene in mammalian COS-7 cells. Mutagenesis was done as we described earlier. COS-7 cells were transfected with the Z-DNA-forming plasmids, pUPZ1, pUPZ2 or the control plasmid pUC119, using GenePORTER (Gene充沛) according to the manufacturer’s recommendations. After 48 h, the amplified plasmids were recovered by the method of Hirt<sup>18</sup>. After treatment with DpnI to remove those plasmids that were not replicated in the COS-7 cells, the transfected plasmids were then transfected into DH5α cells or NEB Stable cells (New England Biolabs, cat. no. C3040H) to detect the LacZ mutants using a blue-white screen. Differences in mutation frequencies were analysed using two-tailed Student’s t-tests (unequal variance) from three independent experiments. DNA sequencing of the mutation reporter plasmids was carried out with the upstream sequencing primer 548 (GGTAGATGGCGTAAAAACCT), which was close to the non-B DNA insert, and in case of larger deletions using primer 201: CGTTTCCTGCGGTGAGCAAA.

EMSA. ZBTB43 EMSA. His-MBP-ZBTB43-BF (full length) and GST-ZBTB43-ZF (ZF domain) and His-MBP-ZBTB43-CTB (CT domain) were purified from E. coli against the His tag or GST tags, respectively. The 5′-FAM probes were synthesized by IDT. The probe sequences were provided in Supplementary Table 3. Briefly, 0.5 pmol of FAM-labelled double-stranded DNA probe was incubated with 60 pmol of ZBTB43 (FL) or 12.5 pmol of ZBTB43 (ZF) or 12.5 pmol of ZBTB43 (CTB) in 10 μl volume of binding buffer (10 mM Tris–HCl pH 7.8, 100 mM NaCl, 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.05% NP40, 25 mg/ml BSA, 1 mM DTT, 0.05 mM MnCl<sub>2</sub> and 6.25 ng/ml sonicated unmethylated E. coli genomic DNA) at 37°C for 2 h. Competition assay was carried out with 100× unlabelled competitor probe (50 pmol) on ice for 20 min before adding the FAM-labelled probe.

Z-DNA EMSA. Z-DNA antibody (Z22) (Abcam, cat. no. ab80073-30) was used to detect Z-DNA binding by the Z-DNA structure in EMSA gels.
using FAM-labelled double-stranded linear probes (CACCG), and Rps6k1I. 0.5 pmoles of probe was induced by hexamine CoCl$_2$ at 100µM, 200µM and 400µM concentrations for 30 min at room temperature followed by incubation with 500 ng of CC DNA in 10µl EMSA binding buffer (10 mM Tris–HCl pH 7.8, 0.05% NP-40, 25 µg/ml BSA, 1 mM DTT and 6.25 µg E. coli fragmented genomic DNA) for 30 min at room temperature. To titrate the specific affinity between the Z22 antibody and Z-DNA, 0.5 pmoles of the FAM-labelled consensus probe (CACCG) was induced with 200µM hexamine CoCl$_2$ in 10µl binding buffer for 30 min at room temperature and was incubated with 250 ng, 300 ng or 500 ng of Z22 antibody for 30 min at room temperature. Reactions were subjected to electrophoresis on a 4% native polyacrylamide gel in 0.5x TBE running buffer. Gel images were collected using the Alexa 488 channel of the Chemidoc MP imaging system.

Preparation of circular double-stranded DNA probes. Topologically restrained circular DNA, CC and control CL and LL probes were prepared according to Zang.

Circulation of single-stranded DNA. Single-stranded DNA was synthesized by IDT using FAM-labelled double-stranded linear probes (CACG)8, and was annealed in its complementary circle were combined at a final concentration of 4µM. Preparation of double-stranded circular DNA (CC). The single-stranded linear DNA substrate (480 pmoles) and T4 DNA ligase were added into ten portions, and each portion was step by step added into the cyclization system every 20 min at room temperature. The reaction was continued at 4°C for overnight with 2 U additional T4 ligase. Reaction was terminated by incubating at 65°C for 10 min. The remaining substrate DNA and linear byproducts were removed using exoucnuclease I (NEB, cat. no. M0293S) at 37°C for 2h and DNA was purified by phenol–chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitation. The single-stranded DNA circles were purified after gel electrophoresis as described earlier.

Preparation of double-stranded circular DNA (CC). The single-stranded circle and its complementary circle were combined at a final concentration of 4µM in 1x annealing buffer (10mM HEPES pH 7.5 and 10mM MgCl$_2$) and were annealed to generate a Z–B chimera using the following annealing steps: 90°C 5 min, 60°C 10 min, cooling to 20°C with a rate of 0.1 degree per second; 20°C 10 min. As B-DNA control, the double-stranded DNA was annealed in the same 1x annealing buffer using the same annealing steps either from two single-stranded linear DNA (LL) or from one single-stranded circle and one single-stranded linear DNA (CL-nicked). The nick in the CL-nicked circle was closed by ligation (CL-lig or simply CL).

EMSA of the CC DNA. To detect the formation of Z-DNA in the CC probe, a gel-shift assay was performed with the Z22 antibody (Absolute Antibody, cat. no. Ab00783-3.0). A total of 1.5 pmoles of the CC probe was incubated with different amounts (0.1 pmole, 0.2 pmole and 0.5 pmole) of Z22 antibody in 10µl reaction buffer (10mM HEPES pH 7.5 and 10mM MgCl$_2$) at room temperature for 2.5h. Reactions were subjected to electrophoresis on a native polyacrylamide gel (pre-run 1h) in 0.5x TBE running buffer at room temperature for 2h. The gel was stained with SYBR Green II (Thermo Fisher, S7594) in the dark at room temperature for 10 min before imaging. Gel images were collected using the Chemidoc MP imaging system.

CC–CL competition. The probes CC and CL were combined at a 1:1 ratio, and 1.5 pmoles of the CC–CL combined probe was incubated with different amounts (3.75, 7.5, 12, 15, 21, 27, 30, 45, 60, 90, 120 and 150 pmoles) of ZBTB43(FL) in 8µl volume of binding buffer (10mM HEPES pH 7.5 and 10mM MgCl$_2$) at room temperature for 2.5h. Reactions were subjected to electrophoresis in a native polyacrylamide gel (pre-run 1h) in 0.5x TBE running buffer at room temperature for 3.5h. The gel was stained with SYBR Green II (Thermo Fisher, S7594) in the dark at room temperature for 10 min before imaging. Gel images were collected using the ChemidocTMMP imaging system. Quantification was done by Fiji.

Restriction digestion of CC, CL and LL DNA. The respective restriction enzymes and expected fragment sizes after digesting linear DNA are listed below. Circular DNA in B conformation was expected to be linearized by these enzymes. We incubated 1.5 pmoles of probe DNA (CC, CL or LL) with 2 U (or 4 U when indicated) of HhaI (NEB, R01395) restriction enzyme at 37°C, BstwI (NEB, R05355) at 55°C or with TfiI (Thermo, ER11141) at 65°C for 12h. After incubation, reactions were subjected to electrophoresis in a 12% native polyacrylamide gel (0.5x TBE running buffer) at room temperature for about 2.5h. The gel was stained with SYBR Green II (Thermo Fisher, S7594) in the dark at room temperature for 10 min before imaging. Gel images were collected using the Chemidoc MP imaging system.

DNMT3A assay of CC, CL and LL DNA. Recombinant DNMT3A protein was purchased from Abcam (cat. no. 31406). A total of 0.5 pmoles of DNA template (CC, CL or LL) was incubated together with 3 pmoles or 6 pmoles of DNMT3A as indicated, and 6,400 pmoles of SAM (B90208S, NEB) in 1x reaction buffer (20mM HEPES pH 7.5, 50mM KCl, 1mM EDTA and 0.25mg ml⁻¹ BSA) at 37°C for 4h. Freshly thawed SAM (6,400 pmoles) was added every 1h followed by pipetting up and down six times. DNA was purified by phenol–chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitation.

Multiplex bisulfite sequencing of CC, CL and LL DNA. DNMT3A-methylated CC and CL probes were linearized before bisulfite conversion using SauI restriction enzyme digestion, which cuts in the B-DNA part of CC and CL probes. DNA was purified by phenol–chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitation. The EZ DNA methylation kit (Zymo) was used to methylate linearized CC or CL probes and LL probes according to kit instructions. Multiplex PCR was performed with indexed primers and Zymo Taq hot start polymerase (EZ020, ZYMO) to amplify the converted DNA. Amplified DNA fragments were resolved using a 1% agarose gel, and DNA was isolated from the gel slices using Monarch DNA Gel Extraction Kit (cat. no. T12025). In total, 50 ng of each fragment was amplified with different index primers and listed in Supplementary Table 3 for Amplicon-EZ sequencing by GENEWIZ.

CD spectroscopy. B-DNA and Z-DNA absorption spectra were measured between wavelengths 230nm and 320 nm at the speed of 100nm min⁻¹ by Chirascan CD spectrometer (Applied Photophysics) (Fig. 4b) or by Jasco J-815 (Fig. 5c–h) using a quartz cuvette (Hellma Analytics, art. no.100-1-40) with a path length of 1 mm. In the CoCl$_2$ experiment, the baseline spectrum was calibrated for the reaction buffer (10mM Tris–HCl pH 7.8, 15mM NaCl). For CD spectroscopy of B-DNA, 3µg double-stranded linear (CACCG), probe was dissolved in 200µl reaction buffer. For CD spectroscopy of Z-DNA, 5µg double-stranded linear (CACCG), probe was reacted in 200µl reaction buffer with hexamine CoCl$_2$ (ref. 21) at molar ratios of 1:4,000 and 1:8,000 (probe : hexamine CoCl$_2$). The Z-α domain of ADAR1 was purified as described earlier. In the Z-α experiment, the baseline spectrum calibration was carried out for all reaction components without the DNA: 10mM Tris–HCl pH 8.0, 50mM NaCl, 2.200 pmoles (or 4,400 pmoles or 8,800 pmoles) of Z-α or Z-α’s storage buffer. In the ZBTB43 experiment, the baseline spectrum calibration was carried out for all reaction components without the DNA: 4,400 pmoles of ZBTB43(FL) or ZBTB43(FL)s storage buffer. In the Z-α plus ZBTB43 experiment, the baseline spectrum calibration was carried out for all reaction components without the DNA: 2,200 pmoles (or 4,400 pmoles or 8,800 pmoles) of Z-α or Z-α’s storage buffer and 4,400 pmoles of ZBTB43(FL) or ZBTB43(FL)s storage buffer. After baseline spectrum calibration, 5µg (4.4µl) double-stranded linear probe (CA)$_n$ was added to 195.6µl baseline calibration buffer to measure the CD spectrum of DNA. Each CD spectrum was presented as an average of three scans.

2D gel. Plasmid construction. Plasmids used for 2D gel electrophoresis were generated by PCR and were subcloned using TA cloning in pGEM-T vector (Promega, cat. no. A3600). The sequences were confirmed by Sanger sequencing.

The insertion for pGEM-Rps6k1 contains the central 417 bases from ZBTB43 affinity peak in the intron of the mouse Rps6k1 gene. The insertion for pGEM-Ago2(12) contains 417 bases from exon 4 of the Ago2 gene, which is not recognized by the ZBTB43 protein. The sequences of the plasmid inserts are listed in Supplementary Table 3.
ChIP–seq of foetal germ cells. ChIP was performed according to Singh26. For the GST-MBD2b and His-MBD3L1 preparation, GST-MBD2b and His-MBD3L1 was purified from E. coli (Aviva Systems Biology, cat. no. ARP39048-P050), or the control E. coli (cat. no. ab178150) was added to 100.000 cells worth chromatin and incubated overnight at 4 °C. The complex was washed, and the DNA was eluted as described earlier. The captured DNA fraction was purified using phenol–chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitation and was stored at −80 °C until library preparation.

MIRA–seq and affinity-seq analysis. Peaks were called using MACS2 v 2.2.7.1 (ref. 52) with the parameters ‘–f BAMPE –g mm’ and using the corresponding MBP background samples as controls. Differentially methylated regions were called in MIRA–seq using MEDIPS17 with an extension size of 300 bp and window size of 100 bp. Differentially methylated windows with an adjusted P value <0.05 were split by the log fold change direction. Adjacent windows were merged using bedtools merge v2.29.2 (ref. 4), with the parameter ‘–d 1’.

Bioinformatics. MIRA–seq and affinity-seq analysis. Reads were aligned to the mm10 genome using bwa mem v0.7.17 (ref. 47) with default parameters for MIRA–seq and affinity-seq. Peaks were called for affinity-seq samples using MACS2 callpeak v2.2.7.1 (ref. 47) with default parameters, combining duplicate samples and using the corresponding MBP background samples as controls. Differentially methylated regions were called in MIRA–seq using MEDIPS17 with an extension size of 300 bp and window size of 100 bp. Differentially methylated windows with an adjusted P value <0.05 were split by the log fold change direction. Adjacent windows were merged using bedtools merge v2.29.2 (ref. 4) with the ‘–v’ option.

Visualization and peak analysis. To count overlaps between peak sets, peaks were imported into R as GenomicRanges49. We noticed 328 of the predicted ZDNA regions were exact duplicates, so we removed these using the unique() function. All peaks overlapping ENCODE blacklist v2 regions were removed using subsetByOverlaps() with ‘invert=TRUE’. Except for the ZBTB43 ChIP–seq peaks, which were already blacklist-filtered as described above, Peaks on unplaced contigs were removed using keepStandardChromosomes() with ‘pruning. mode=“coarse’.

DeepTools v3.4.3 (ref. 62) was used to generate bigWig files and coverage heatmaps. For single-sample bigWig files, bamCoverage was run with the parameters ‘–binSize 10–normalizeUsing “CPM”–samFlagInclude 64–extendReads’ for paired-end samples. For single-sample (MIRA-seq), the last two parameters were replaced with ‘–extendReads 200’. For bigWig files comparing immunoprecipitation signals to input, signal coverage files were generated using specific anti-ZBTB43 antibody to nospesific anti-IgG antibody, bamCompare was run with the parameters ‘–extendReads 200–samFlagInclude 64–and–extendReads 200–samFlagExclude 1024–samFlagInclude 64’ and specifying the ENCODE blacklist v2 (ref. 47) using ‘– blacklistFileName’. The input BAM
files were as described in the above sections, except the affinity-seq alignments were additionally filtered, as described for the ZBTB43 ChIP–seq alignments, for the heatmaps involving ZBTB43 ChIP–seq peaks for consistency. To generate the heatmaps, the command line reference-point function was used with the parameters, -referencePoint "center"–binSize 10 –a 1000 –b 1000. Outputs from computeMatrix were plotted using the plotHeatmap function. Plotted regions were blacklist-filtered beforehand as described for the Venn diagrams.

 Bisulfite amplicon-seq analysis: Reads were trimmed using Trim Galore v0.6.0 (https://github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore) with default settings to remove low-quality bases and Illumina adapters. De-multiplexing was done using CutAdapt v3.2 (ref. 39). The 6-mer barcode for each sample present in a multiplexed library was specified using the anchored 5’ adapter option (‘–sampleID=n=barcode’), requiring no mismatches and no indels (‘–0=0-indels’). As CutAdapt looks for the barcode in R1 only, CutAdapt was run twice. In the first round, R1 and R2 were specified in the correct order. To account for reads where the barcode adapter was on R2, unmatched reads from the first CutAdapt run were processed with CutAdapt again using the same settings except R1 and R2 were specified in reverse (R1 as R2 and vice versa). To remove the remaining, non-barcode adapter sequence, CutAdapt was run once more for each of the two rounds of de-multiplexing, specifying R1 and R2 in the same order as the de-multiplexing step, and using ‘–PASS = 5’ for reads the bismarkmethylation_extractor script in Bismark with the parameters ‘–non_directional’ and ‘–paired-end’. 

Statistics and reproducibility. Statistically significant changes (P value) of different features was calculated using multiple two-sided t-tests using Prism. In addition, we provided the q values in the source data files to Fig. 6d and Extended Data Figs. 6c–e and 8f–i after adjustment for multiple comparisons using the Benjamini–Hochberg–Yekutieli correction. Affinity-seq and ChIP-seq peaks (Supplementary Tables 1, 2 and 4) were called using the ‘cappeak’ command in MACS2. Briefly, MACS2 models the background (based on the control sample) read fragment distribution in windows across the genome using a Poisson distribution. P values are calculated for enrichment of read fragments in the enriched/treatment sample compared with the expected number of reads for a given genomic region. MACS2 also corrects for multiple testing using the Benjamini–Hochberg–Yekutieli correction to calculate q values. No statistical method was used to pre-determine sample size. The experiments were not randomized. The investigators were not blinded to allocation during experiments or outcome assessment.

Immunostaining assays, mutagenesis assays and biochemical assays were performed three times using three biologically independent replicates unless specified in the legends. For figure panels Figs. 1a, 2a and 4e, experiments were performed once. For figure panels Figs. 1f, 2a (ZBTB43FL and ZF domain), 5a–d, 6f, 8a, experiments were performed twice. Deep sequencing assays, such as affinity-seq (Figs. 2c,e,f and Fig. 7a,g), ChIP-seq (Fig. 7a,g) and MIRA-seq (Fig. 8b,d) were performed twice with biologically independent duplicates. Quantification and statistics were derived from one experiment unless specified in the legends.

Reporting summary. Further information on research design is available in the Nature Research Reporting Summary linked to this article.

Data availability
The genomics data have been deposited to GEO database and can be accessed in the link https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE200729. Source data are provided with this paper. All other data supporting the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

References
46. Hirt, B. Selective extraction of polyoma DNA from infected mouse cell cultures. J. Mol. Biol. 26, 365–369 (1967).
47. Ray, B. K., Dhar, S., Shakya, A. & Ray, A. Z-DNA-forming silencer in the first exon regulates human ADAM-12 gene expression. Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA 108, 103–108 (2011).
48. Nichols, P. J. et al. Recognition of non-CpG repeats in Alu and ribosomal RNAs by the Z-RNA binding domain of ADAR1 induces A-Z junctions. Nat. Commun. 12, 793 (2021).
49. Placido, D., Brown, B. A. 2nd, Lowenhaupt, K., Rich, A. & Athanasiadis, A. A left-handed RNA double helix bound by the Z alpha domain of the RNA-editing enzyme ADAR1. Structure 15, 395–404 (2007).
50. Kumaki, Y., Oda, M. & Okano, M. QUAM: quantification tool for methylation analysis. Nucleic Acids Res. 36, W170–W175 (2008).
51. Li, H. Aligning sequence reads, clone sequences and assembly contigs with BWA-Mem. Preprint at ArXiv https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.1303.3997 (2013).
52. Zhang, Y. et al. Model-based analysis of ChIP–seq (MACS). Genome Biol. 9, R13 (2008).
53. Lienhard, M., Grimm, C., Morkel, M., Hervig, R. & Chavez, L. MEDIPS: genome-wide differential coverage analysis of sequencing data derived from DNA enrichment experiments. Bioinformatics 30, 284–286 (2014).
54. Quinlan, A. R. & Hall, I. M. BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing genomic features. Bioinformatics 26, 841–842 (2010).
55. Martin, M. Cutadapt removes adapter sequences from high-throughput sequencing reads. EMBnet J. 17, 10–12 (2011).
56. Faust, G. G. & Hall, I. M. SAMBLASTER: fast duplicate marking and structural variant read extraction. Bioinformatics 30, 2503–2505 (2014).
57. Li, H. et al. The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. Bioinformatics 25, 2078–2079 (2009).
58. Amemiya, H. M., Kudange, A. & Boyle, A. P. The ENCODE Blacklist: identification of problematic regions of the genome. Sci. Rep. 9, 9354 (2019).
59. Lawrence, M. et al. Software for computing and annotating genomic ranges. PLoS Comput. Biol. 9, e1003118 (2013).
60. Zhu, L. J. et al. ChiPpeakAnno: a Bioconductor package to annotate ChIP–seq and ChIP-chip data. BMC Bioinf. 11, 237 (2010).
61. Yu, G., Wang, J. G. & He, Q. Y. ChIPseeker: an R/Bioconductor package for ChIP peak annotation, comparison and visualization. Bioinformatics 31, 2382–2383 (2015).
62. Ramirez, F. et al. deepTools2: a next generation web server for deep-sequencing data analysis. Nucleic Acids Res. 44, W160–W165 (2016).
63. Kulis, B. & Andrews, S. R. Bismark: a flexible aligner and methylation caller for Bisulfite-Seq applications. Bioinformatics 27, 1571–1572 (2011).

Acknowledgements
The authors gratefully acknowledge the helpful discussions, technical advice, sharing protocols and equipment by our colleagues at VAI, K. Metchler, S. Rothbart, T. Yang, P. Laidr, P. Jones, R. Vaughan, R. Tiedemann, J. Johnson, Z. Huang, M. Liu, H. Liu and D. Lu. We thank J. Liao for helpful suggestions and N. Pierce for performing the bioinformatics analysis at the early stage of this work. We thank M. Okano (Kumamoto University), for providing the TKO ES cells, and P. Nichols and B. Vogeli (University of Colorado Denver School of Medicine) for providing the Z-α expression vector. We are very grateful to L. Lapidus (Michigan State University, Lansing, MI) for sharing her CD spectrometers. We gratefully acknowledge the excellent support from the VAI core facilities: genomics, M. Adams and J. Koeman; vivarium and transgenics, B. Eagleson, V. Su, W. Weaver, R. Burdette and D. Saliers; flow cytometry, R. Sheridan, J. Schipper and M. Nichols; optical imaging, C. Esquebl; and pathology and biorepository, B. Berghuis, S. Heim and L. Turner. We thank V. Fogg for scientific editing. This work was funded by VAI, an NIH/NIGMS grant GM143308 (P.E.S.) and an NIH/NCI grant CA209379 (K.M.V.). H.H. thanks China Scholarship Council for her visiting scholarship to VAI. B.J.B and A.H. thank the Meijer Foundation for sponsoring their summer internships at VAI.

Author contributions
Conceptualization (P.E.S., K.M.V and G.P.P); methodology (P.E.S., XX, K.M.V and G.P.P); supervision (P.E.S., XX, K.M.V and G.P.P); validation (Y.Y.M., G.W., H.H., K.H.L. and P.E.S.); visualization (Y.Y.M., G.W., H.H., K.H.L. and P.E.S.); writing—original draft (Y.Y.M. and P.E.S.); writing—review and editing (Y.Y.M., G.W., H.H., K.H.L. and A.H., B.J.B., A.P., S.G.J. and X.X., K.M.V, G.P.P and P.E.S.).

Competing interests
The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information
Extended data is available for this paper at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41556-022-00941-9.
Supplementary information The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41556-022-00941-9.
Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to Pikoaska E. Szabó.
Peer review information Nature Cell Biology thanks Alan Herbert, Philip C. Hanawalt and the other, anonymous, reviewer(s) for their contribution to the peer review of this work.
Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints.
Extended Data Fig. 1 | See next page for caption.
Extended Data Fig. 1 | \textit{Zbtb43} is specific to fetal male germ cells that remodel Z-DNA. (a) The fetal testis and mesonephros are shown in transmitted light to the left. Testicular cords are visualized by transgenic EGFP expression to the right. EGFP expression in the TgOG2 mouse line\textsuperscript{15} allows germ cell isolation by FACS. MGC: male germ cell (EGFP positive); MSC: male somatic cell (EGFP negative). FACS gating strategy is shown. R6: EGFP+, RS: EGFP-.

(b) RNA-seq results are displayed in purified male germ cells (MGC), female germ cells (FGC) and somatic cells of male and female gonads (MSC and FSC) at 15.5 dpc\textsuperscript{14} (GSE46953). Transcript levels of \textit{Zbtb43} are plotted among other \textit{Zbtb} family members. (c) \textit{Zbtb43} expression is depicted among some of the most highly expressed transcripts (apart from ribosomal proteins, elongation complex members or chaperons) in purified MGC, FGC, MSC, and FSC at 15.5 dpc. (d) \textit{Zbtb43} expression is shown for mouse organs outside of the gonads. GEO Profiles: GDS661/116970_at from #BioProject PRJNA66167.
Extended Data Fig. 2 | Validation of Zbtb43−/− knockout mice. (a) Knockout strategy. Mice carrying the Zbtb43tm1b(KOMP)Mbp allele. A LacZ cassette replaced exon 4 of the Zbtb43 gene. (b) PCR genotyping from tail DNA to distinguish Zbtb43+/+, Zbtb43+/− and Zbtb43−/− pups at weaning. Data shown represent three independent experiments. (c) Western blot in adult kidney samples using the anti-ZBTB43 antibody and GAPDH loading control. (d) Western blot in adult kidney and brain samples using the anti-LacZ antibody. Data shown represent two independent experiments in c and d.
Extended Data Fig. 3 | See next page for caption.
Extended Data Fig. 3 | ZBTB43 protein has affinity to methylated and unmethylated genomic DNA and to predicted Z-DNA-forming sequences. (a–b) Heatmap analysis is shown of MBP-ZBTB43 (FL) binding intensities to genomic DNA, either Dnmt1/Dnmt3α/Dnmt3β triple knockout (TKO) ES cell DNA or DNA fully methylated by SssI bacterial CpG methyltransferase (SssI) centered at the TKO DNA peaks (a) and at the SssI peaks (b). Background level binding by MBP is included to the right. (c) Venn diagram shows the relationship between ZBTB43 affinity peaks mapped in SssI and TKO DNA. (d) Venn diagram shows the relationship between ZBTB43 affinity peaks mapped in SssI DNA, TKO DNA, and predicted Z-DNA sites or enriched Z-DNA sites in activated B-cells. (e–f) Heatmaps show the match between ZBTB43 affinity binding peaks and Z-DNA sites. The affinity intensities are centered at predicted Z-DNA sites (e) and enriched Z-DNA sites mapped in activated B-cells (f). (g–h) Venn diagrams display the relationship between predicted Z-DNA locations and ZBTB43 affinity binding sites in SssI (g) or TKO DNA (h). (i–j) Venn diagrams display the relationship between in vivo mapped Z-DNA sites in activated B-cells and ZBTB43 affinity binding sites in SssI DNA (i) or TKO DNA (j). Affinity-sequencing results shown represent two biologically independent samples.
Extended Data Fig. 4 | See next page for caption.
Extended Data Fig. 4 | Examples of ZBTB43 affinity binding peaks. IGV browser images of selected specific MBP-ZBTB43 peaks are shown in unmethylated genomic DNA (TKO) at four genomic regions. Control samples show the background of MBP capture. Independent biological replicate samples are displayed. The tracks for transcripts and predicted Z-DNA are displayed at the bottom. The predicted Z-DNA sequence is enlarged to illustrate the underlying PPR sequences. The ZBTB43 peaks are often found in an intron of very long transcripts. (a) Rps6kl1 (b) Ago2 (c) Arid2 (d) Emi1.
Extended Data Fig. 5 | The distribution of ZBTB43 affinity binding peaks closely matches predicted Z-DNA sites. Venn diagrams depict the location of ZBTB43 affinity peaks mapped in fully methylated genomic DNA (SssI) and unmethylated genomic DNA (TKO) relative to the location of transcripts in the genome. In comparison, the distribution of predicted Z-DNA and enriched Z-DNA mapped in vivo in activated B-cells are also depicted to the right. (a) All genomic locations are plotted. (b) Distal intergenic regions are excluded. Affinity-sequencing results represent two independent biological replicates.
Extended Data Fig. 6 | Z-DNA is removed in prospermatogonia between 13.5 and 15.5 dpc. (a-b) Immunohistochemistry is shown of the Zbtb43+/+ wild-type (a) and Zbtb43−/− mutant (b) fetal testis sections at 13.5, 15.5 and 18.5 dpc using the ZBTB43 (red) and Z-DNA (green) antibodies, counterstained with DAPI. Scale bar: 10 µm. The ZBTB43-Z-DNA double staining was done three times at all stages. (c-e) Quantification of signal intensities of DAPI, Z-DNA and ZBTB43 in Zbtb43+/+ wild-type, and Zbtb43−/− mutant fetal male germ cells shown relative to the corresponding somatic cells at 13.5 dpc (n=10 cells from one out of two independent experiments) and at 15.5 and 18.5 dpc (n=19 cells from one out of two independent experiments). Data are presented as mean values +/- SEM. Statistically significant changes as calculated by multiple 2-sided T-tests are marked with P-value.
Extended Data Fig. 7 | ZBTB43 has affinity to hypomethylated DMRs found in Zbtb43−/− sperm, which are rich in Z-DNA sites. (a) Venn diagram displays the relationship between ZBTB43 affinity peaks in fully methylated (SssI) genomic DNA and DMRs detected in Zbtb43−/− sperm. (b) Venn diagram displays the relationship between ZBTB43 affinity peaks in fully unmethylated (TKO) genomic DNA and DMRs detected in Zbtb43−/− sperm. (c) Venn diagram shows the relationship between predicted Z-DNA sites in the genome and DMRs detected in Zbtb43−/− sperm. (d) Venn diagram shows the relationship between enriched Z-DNA sites in activated B-cells in the genome and DMRs detected in Zbtb43−/− sperm.
Extended Data Fig. 8 | See next page for caption.
Extended Data Fig. 8 | Growth and lethality phenotypes associated with the Zbtb43 mutation in the soma and germ line. (a) Zbtb43\(^{-/-}\) pups out of the test cross are underrepresented at weaning. Venn diagram shows the distribution of genotypes at weaning from 55 pups out of 6 breeding pairs and 13 litters of the original Zbtb43\(^{+/-}\) heterozygous stock (HET \times HET). The genotype distribution of live weanlings is also plotted from a test cross where the parents had been back-crossed 8-times in the JF1/Ms mouse strain (HET.JF1.N8 \times HET.JF1.N8). These results were obtained from four breeding pairs, 19 litters and 70 pups. (b) Zbtb43\(^{-/-}\) pups are overrepresented among dead pups out of the HET \times HET cross. Venn diagram shows the distribution of dead pups by genotype. We identified 6 Zbtb43\(^{-/-}\) dead pups out of 11 total dead pups from 2 litters of 1 breeding pair of the HET \times HET initial cross by PCR genotyping. After backcrossing to C57BL/6N once, we identified 10 Zbtb43\(^{-/-}\) dead pups out 23 dead pups from 20 litters of 4 pairs of HET.B6 X Het B6. (c) Zbtb43\(^{-/-}\) dead pups (n=16) are overrepresented among all dead pups out of the HOMO \times HET cross. Venn diagram shows the distribution of dead pups by genotype. (d) Partially penetrant lethality in the Zbtb43 mutant mouse line depends on parental genotype. The portion of newborn pups that died is depicted by bar graphs. The lethality phenotype is shown according to different parental crosses as indicated below each bar. The postnatal day of death (P0, P1, P2 and after P2) is shown by colored columns as coded to the right. Zbtb43\(^{-/-}\) (HOMO), and Zbtb43\(^{+/-}\) (HET) mice were obtained from the original JAX stock. Another set of mice were obtained after crossing to C57Bl/6N (B6) one time (HOMO B6, and HET B6). The mother is written first in each cross. The number of breeding pairs, litters, and pups born are provided under the chart. (e) The partial perinatal lethality phenotype of Zbtb43\(^{-/-}\) pups persists through generations (N1, N2, N3 and N4) in the HOMO \times HOMO crosses. Total number of animals and litters in each generation are marked under the plot. (f-g) Zbtb43\(^{-/-}\) pups from Zbtb43\(^{-/-}\) parents exhibit reduced growth compared to Zbtb43\(^{+/-}\) pups out of Zbtb43\(^{+/-}\) parents. Weight of male (f) and female (g) pups is plotted at weeks 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 8 after birth, and numbers of pups included in the measurements are given under the dot plots. Data are presented as mean values +/- SEM. Statistical analysis between genotypes at each age was done using multiple two-sided T-Tests. (h-i) Zbtb43\(^{-/-}\) pups exhibit reduced growth after weaning compared to their littermates. Growth of male (h) and female (i) pups out of HET \times HET cross is depicted. Weight of WT, HET and HOMO pups is shown as coded by colors to the right and numbers of pups are given under the dot plots. Data are presented as mean values +/- SEM. Statistically significant difference is marked with \(P\)-value as determined using multiple two-sided T-Tests between pairs of genotypes at each age. (j) Parental genotype of Zbtb43\(^{+/-}\) pups does not affect their growth. Growth curve of male and female WT pups is shown from 3 weeks to 8 weeks. Solid lines indicate the average weight of WT pups out of WT parents. Dashed lines indicate the average weight of WT pups out of the HET \times HET cross. Data are presented as mean values +/- SEM. No statistically significant difference was found between crosses using multiple 2-sided T-Tests. (k) Parental genotype of male and female Zbtb43\(^{-/-}\) pups affects their growth after weaning. Growth curve of male and female HOMO pups is shown from 3 weeks to 8 weeks. Solid lines indicate the average weight of HOMO pups out of HOMO x HOMO cross. Dashed lines indicate the average weight of HOMO pups out of the HET \times HET cross. Data are presented as mean values +/- SEM. Statistically significant differences between crosses at each age as obtained from multiple two-sided T-Tests are marked.
Reporting Summary

Nature Research wishes to improve the reproducibility of the work that we publish. This form provides structure for consistency and transparency in reporting. For further information on Nature Research policies, see our Editorial Policies and the Editorial Policy Checklist.

Statistics

For all statistical analyses, confirm that the following items are present in the figure legend, table legend, main text, or Methods section.

- The exact sample size (n) for each experimental group/condition, given as a discrete number and unit of measurement
- A statement on whether measurements were taken from distinct samples or whether the same sample was measured repeatedly
- The statistical test(s) used AND whether they are one- or two-sided (Only common tests should be described solely by name; describe more complex techniques in the Methods section.)
- A description of all covariates tested
- A description of any assumptions or corrections, such as tests of normality and adjustment for multiple comparisons
- A full description of the statistical parameters including central tendency (e.g. means) or other basic estimates (e.g. regression coefficient) AND variation (e.g. standard deviation) or associated estimates of uncertainty (e.g. confidence intervals)
- For null hypothesis testing, the test statistic (e.g. F, t, r) with confidence intervals, effect sizes, degrees of freedom and P value noted (Give P values as exact values whenever possible.)
- For Bayesian analysis, information on the choice of priors and Markov chain Monte Carlo settings
- For hierarchical and complex designs, identification of the appropriate level for tests and full reporting! of outcomes
- Estimates of effect sizes (e.g. Cohen’s d, Pearson’s r), indicating how they were calculated

Our web collection on statistics for biologists contains articles on many of the points above.

Software and code

Policy information about availability of computer code

Data collection

Base calling of genomics data was done by Illumina NextSeq Control Software (NCS) v2.0 and output of NCS was demultiplexed and converted to FastQ format with Illumina Bcl2fastq v1.9.0.
Data

Policy information about availability of data

All manuscripts must include a data availability statement. This statement should provide the following information, where applicable:

- Accession codes, unique identifiers, or web links for publicly available datasets
- A list of figures that have associated raw data
- A description of any restrictions on data availability

Data availability: The genomics data have been deposited to GEO database under superseries GSE200729, and can be accessed in the link https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE200729.

Field-specific reporting

Please select the one below that is the best fit for your research. If you are not sure, read the appropriate sections before making your selection.

- [x] Life sciences
- [ ] Behavioural & social sciences
- [ ] Ecological, evolutionary & environmental sciences

For a reference copy of the document with all sections, see nature.com/documents/nr-reporting-summary-list.pdf

Life sciences study design

All studies must disclose on these points even when the disclosure is negative.

Sample size
No statistical method was used to predetermine sample size. Sample sizes were chosen based on practical considerations and norms in the field of the type of studies.

Data exclusions
Duplicated reads or multiply mapped reads were excluded where noted in the methods. Peaks and regions on unplaced contigs or overlapping the ENCODE blacklist v2 were removed where noted.

Replication
Immunostaining, and in vitro biochemistry experiments [EMSA, mutation assays, 2D gels, Circular dichroism assays, TOPOI assays, DNMT3A methylation, CC-CL-IL restriction digestion, etc.] were carried out at least two times and with the same outcome. Affinity-seq, MIRA-seq and ChiP-seq experiments were carried out in biological duplicates and the results were consistent between duplicates.

Randomization
Randomization was not applied, as we did not analyze the consequence of a treatment.

Blinding
Blinding was not applied, because we used mouse genetic mutants whose genotype was known to us. This does not affect our findings, as our experiments were not based on subjective measurements.

Reporting for specific materials, systems and methods
We require information from authors about some types of materials, experimental systems and methods used in many studies. Here, indicate whether each material, system or method listed is relevant to your study. If you are not sure if a list item applies to your research, read the appropriate section before selecting a response.

### Materials & experimental systems

- [ ] Antibodies
- [ ] Eukaryotic cell lines
- [ ] Palaeontology and archaeology
- [ ] Animals and other organisms
- [ ] Human research participants
- [ ] Clinical data
- [ ] Dual use research of concern

### Methods

- [ ] Involved in the study
- [ ] ChiP-seq
- [ ] Flow cytometry
- [ ] MRI-based neuroimaging

---

### Antibodies

**Antibodies used**

Primary antibodies used for Western blot:
- ZBTB43 [Aviva Systems Biology, Cat. No. ARP39048-P050, Lot QC19506-40743]
- LacZ [Abcam, Cat. No. ab9361, Lot, GR3232668]
- GAPDH [Abclonal, Cat. No. AC035, Lot unknown];

Secondary antibodies for Western blot:
- HRP goat anti-rabbit IgG [Active Motif, Cat. No. A5015, Lot 4318009];
- Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-chicken IgY [Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat. No. A11039 Lot 2078383]

Primary antibodies used for immunohistochemistry:
- Rabbit anti-ZBTB43 [Aviva Systems Biology, Cat. No. ARP39048-P050, Lot QC19506-40743]
- Rabbit anti-gammaH2AX [Abclonal, Cat. No. AP0099, Lot 210140101]
- Mouse anti-Z-DNA Z22 [Absolute Antibody, Cat. No. Ab00783-3.0, Lot T1908320]
- Mouse anti-Dax4 [Abcam, Cat. No. ab27591, Clone mAbCam27591, Lot GR3401601-2]
- Rabbit anti-PGC7 [Abcam Cat. No. ab19878, Lot unknown]
- Mouse anti-OCT3/4 [Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Cat No. sc-5279, Lot D1317]

Secondary antibodies used for immunohistochemistry:
- anti-mouse-488 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat. No. A28175)
- anti-rabbit-686 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat. No. A11011)

Antibody for EMSA:
- Z-DNA antibody (Z22) [Absolute AntibodyCat. No. Ab00783-3.0,Lots T1908320 and T2016848]

Antibody used for ChiP-seq:
- Rabbit anti-ZBTB43 antibody [Aviva Systems Biology Cat. No: ARP39048-P050, Lot QC19506-40743]
- Rabbit anti-rabbit-IgG [Abcam Cat No: ab171870. Lot GR3228514-3]

---

### Validation

The most critical primary antibodies of this study were validated by independent methods:
- Z-DNA antibody (Z22) [Aviva Systems Biology, Cat. No. Ab00783-3.0]: Validated by EMSA using cobalt-induced Z-DNA and immunostaining of curaxin-induced Z-DNA in mouse fibroblasts.
- ZBTB43 (antibodies-online, Cat. No. ARP39048-P050): Validated by Western blot of Zbtb43-/- and wild type mouse kidney. Validated also by immunostaining of fetal Zbtb43-/- and wild type mouse testis.

Validation by manufacturers:

Primary antibodies used for Western blot:
- ZBTB43 [Aviva Systems Biology, Cat. No. ARP39048-P050]; host, rabbit; application, Western blotting
- LacZ [Abcam, Cat. No. ab9361]; host, chicken; application, IHC-Fix, IHC-Fix, ICC/F, IHC-Fr, IHC-P
- GAPDH [Abclonal, Cat. No. AC035]; host, mouse; application, Western blotting

Primary antibodies used for immunohistochemistry:
- Rabbit anti-ZBTB43 antibody [Aviva Systems Biology, Cat. No. ARP39048-P050]; host, rabbit, application, Western blotting
- Rabbit anti-gammaH2AX [Abclonal, Cat. No. AP0099] host, rabbit, application, IF
- Mouse anti-Z-DNA Z22 [Absolute Antibody, Cat. No. Ab00783-3.0]; host, mouse; application, gel retardation assay, SPR, ELISA, IF
- Mouse anti-Dax4 [Abcam, Cat. No. ab27591]; host, mouse, applications, ICC/F, IHC-P, WB
- Rabbit anti-PGC7 [Abcam Cat. No. ab19878]; host, rabbit; application, IHC-Fr, WB, ICC/F
- Mouse anti-OCT3/4 [Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Cat No. sc-5279]; host, mouse; application, WB, IP, IF, IHC(P), FCM and ELISA

Antibody used for EMSA:
- Z-DNA antibody (Z22) [Absolute Antibody Cat. No. Ab00783-3.0]; host, mouse; application, gel retardation assay, SPR, ELISA, IF

Antibody used for ChiP-seq:
- Rabbit anti-ZBTB43 antibody [Aviva Systems Biology Cat. No: ARP39048-P050]; host, rabbit; application, Western blotting
Eukaryotic cell lines

Policy information about cell lines

Cell line source(s) TKO ES cells [Dmnt1l-/-;Dmnt3a-/-;Dmnt3b-/-] ES (clone19) RBRC No.: AES0146 provided by Masaki Okano, Ph.D. (Kumamoto University).
COS-7 cells (ATCC)

Authentication Neither of these cell lines were authenticated.

Mycoplasma contamination The cells were not tested for Mycoplasma contamination.

Commonly misidentified lines (See ICLAC register) The cell lines are not listed in the commonly misidentified list.

Animals and other organisms

Policy information about studies involving animals: ARRIVE guidelines recommended for reporting animal research

Laboratory animals The Zbtb43+/- heterozygous mouse C57BL/6N-Zbtb43tm1b(KOMP)Mbp/J was obtained from the Jackson Laboratory, and kept in the C57BL/6N genetic background. A sub-line was created by back-crossing to JF1/Ms1 1 mice. To obtain wild type spermatogonia for ChIP-seq by FACS, C57BL/6J females (~2 months old) were crossed with B6;CBA-Tg[Pou5f1-EGFP]2Mnn 2 (TgO2) transgenic males (2-12 months old) and male fetuses were collected at 15.5 dpc. Zbtb43+/-; TgO2 females (~2 months old) were crossed with Zbtb43+/-; TgO2 transgenic males (2-12 months old) to obtain mutant and wild type fetuses at 18.5 dpc, for collecting spermatogonia by FACS. Adult Zbtb43+/- and wild type males at 3 months of age were used for sperm collection. Mice were kept on a 12-hour light/dark cycle, 7am to 7pm at ambient room temperature of 72 degrees F, and at humidity of 30-70%, monitored through the building control management system.

Wild animals No wild animals were used in this study.

Field-collected samples The study did not involve field-collected samples.

Ethics oversight All animal experiments were performed according to the National Institutes of Health Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory animals, with Institutional Care and Use Committee-approved protocols at Van Andel Institute (VAI).

Note that full information on the approval of the study protocol must also be provided in the manuscript.

ChIP-seq

Data deposition

☒ Confirm that both raw and final processed data have been deposited in a public database such as GEO.
☒ Confirm that you have deposited or provided access to graph files (e.g. BED files) for the called peaks.

Data access links

May remain private before publication.

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query.cgi?acc=GSE200729.

Files in database submission

Affinity-seq Mbp background Sssl methylated lung DNA replicate 1
Affinity-seq Mbp background Sssl methylated lung DNA replicate 2
Affinity-seq Mbp background unmethylated TKO ES DNA replicate 1
Affinity-seq Mbp background unmethylated TKO ES DNA replicate 2
Affinity-seq Mbp background Zbtb43+/- hypomethylated sperm DNA
Affinity-seq Mbp background Zbtb43+/- normally methylated sperm DNA
Affinity-seq Mbp-ZbtB43 Sssl methylated lung DNA replicate 1
Affinity-seq Mbp-ZbtB43 Sssl methylated lung DNA replicate 2
Affinity-seq Mbp-ZbtB43 unmethylated TKO ES DNA replicate 1
Affinity-seq Mbp-ZbtB43 unmethylated TKO ES DNA replicate 2
Affinity-seq Mbp-ZbtB43 Zbtb43+/- hypomethylated sperm DNA
Affinity-seq Mbp-ZbtB43 Zbtb43+/- normally methylated sperm DNA

Affinity-seq Raw files:
SSVectorSSS1_1000_R1_001.fastq.gz
6VectorSSS2_1000_R1_001.fastq.gz
1VectorTKN1_1000_R1_001.fastq.gz
2VectorTKN2_1000_R1_001.fastq.gz
8VectorMutSperm_1000_R1_001.fastq.gz
Affinity-seq Processed files:
5VectorSSS1_filt_alns_keepdups.bw
6VectorSSS2_filt_alns_keepdups.bw
1VectorTKN1_filt_alns_keepdups.bw
2VectorTKN2_filt_alns_keepdups.bw
8VectorWtSperm.bw
7VectorWtSperm.bw
12VectorWtSperm.bw
7VectorWtSperm.bw
12VectorWtSperm.bw
12VectorWtSperm.bw
12VectorWtSperm.bw
12VectorWtSperm.bw
5VectorSSS1.bw
6VectorSSS2.bw
2VectorTKN1.bw
2VectorTKN2.bw
13VectorWtSperm.bw
14VectorWtSperm.bw
9ZBT43TKN1_filt_alns_keepdups.bw
10ZBT43TKN2_filt_alns_keepdups.bw
11ZBT43MuSperm.bw
12ZBT43MuSperm.bw
15ZBT43MuSperm.bw

SSS1.bed
TKN.bed

ChIP-seq samples:
ChIP-seq IgG control 15.5 dpc mouse prospermatogonia 100K cells
ChIP-seq IgG control 15.5 dpc mouse prospermatogonia 415K cells
ChIP-seq input 15.5 dpc mouse prospermatogonia 100K cells
ChIP-seq input 15.5 dpc mouse prospermatogonia 491K cells
ChIP-seq ZBT43 15.5 dpc mouse prospermatogonia 100K cells
ChIP-seq ZBT43 15.5 dpc mouse prospermatogonia 491K cells

ChIP-seq raw files:
44Pig6_L0000_R1_001.fastq.gz
2PiG_L0000_R1_001.fastq.gz
11n43_L0000_R1_001.fastq.gz
6n43_L0000_R1_001.fastq.gz
5Pi43_L0000_R1_001.fastq.gz
1Pi43_L0000_R1_001.fastq.gz
4PiG_L0000_R2_001.fastq.gz
2PiG_L0000_R2_001.fastq.gz
11n43_L0000_R2_001.fastq.gz
6n43_L0000_R2_001.fastq.gz
5Pi43_L0000_R2_001.fastq.gz
1Pi43_L0000_R2_001.fastq.gz
4PiG_filt_alns_keepdups.bw
2PiG_filt_alns_keepdups.bw
11n43_filt_alns_keepdups.bw
6n43_filt_alns_keepdups.bw
5Pi43_filt_alns_keepdups.bw
1Pi43_filt_alns_keepdups.bw
5Pi43_vs_control_logratio.bw
MIRA-seq samples:
DNA methylation-MIRAseq of Zbtb43⁻/⁻ adult sperm DNA replicate 1
DNA methylation-MIRAseq of Zbtb43⁻/⁻ adult sperm DNA replicate 2
DNA methylation-MIRAseq of Zbtb43⁺/⁺ adult sperm DNA replicate 1
DNA methylation-MIRAseq of Zbtb43⁺/⁺ adult sperm DNA replicate 2

MIRA-seq raw files:
ZBTB4337_L000_R1_001.fastq.gz
ZBTB4338_L000_R1_001.fastq.gz
ZBTB4335_L000_R1_001.fastq.gz
ZBTB4356_L000_R1_001.fastq.gz

MIRA-seq processed files:
ZBTB43KO.bw
ZBTB43KOrep2.bw
ZBTB43WT.bw
ZBTB43Wrep2.bw

Methodology

| Replicates | Biological duplicates were used in the genomics experiment MIRA-seq, affinity-seq and ChiP-seq. |
| Sequencing depth | Affinity-seq: paired-end, 40M reads per sample.  
MIRA-seq: single end, 40M reads per sample.  
ChiP-seq: paired end, 40M reads per sample. |
| Antibodies | Rabbit anti-ZBTB43 antibody (Arivia Systems Biology Cat No: ARP39048-P050, Lot QC19506-40743)  
Rabbit anti-rabbit-IgG (Abcam Cat No: ab171870, Lot GR3228514-3) |
| Peak calling parameters | MIRA-seq and Affinity-seq analysis  
Reads were aligned to the mm10 genome using bwa mem v0.7.17 with default parameters for MIRA-seq and Affinity-seq. Peaks were called for Affinity-seq samples using MACS2 callpeak v2.2.7.1 with default parameters, combining duplicate samples and using the corresponding MIRP background samples as controls. Differentially methylated regions were called in MIRA-seq using MEDIPS with an extension size of 300 bp and window size of 100 bp. Differentially methylated windows with an adjusted P-value <0.05 were split by the log fold change direction. Adjacent windows were merged using bedtools merge v2.29.2 with the parameter ‘-d 1’.

ZBTB43 ChiP-seq analysis  
Reads were trimmed using Trim Galore v0.6.0 (https://github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore) then were aligned to the mm10 genome using bwa mem v0.7.17 S1, using default parameters for both steps. Duplicate alignments were marked using SAMBLASTER v0.1.24 with the parameter: “-addMateTags”. Alignments were filtered using samtools view v1.9 with the parameters: “-q 30 -F 2828 -f 2” and removing mitochondrial alignments. Peaks were called using MACS2 v2.2.7.1 with the parameters: “-f BAMPE -g mm -q 0.05 --keep-dup 1” and the corresponding input or igG samples as control. Peaks overlapping ENCODE blacklist v2 58 regions were removed using bedtools intersect v2.29.2 54 with the “-v” option. |
| Data quality | All peaks were called using a q-value (FDR) cutoff of 0.05. |
| Software | Softwares are described above. No novel software was generated. |
Flow Cytometry

Plots

- Confirm that:
  - The axis labels state the marker and fluorochrome used (e.g., CD4-FITC).
  - The axis scales are clearly visible. Include numbers along axes only for bottom left plot of group (a ‘group’ is an analysis of identical markers).
  - All plots are contour plots with outliers or pseudocolor plots.
  - A numerical value for number of cells or percentage (with statistics) is provided.

Methodology

Sample preparation

To obtain fetuses for wild type germ cell purification, C57Bl/6J females were crossed with OG2 females (Oct4-EGFP Tg; Zbb43+/-). To obtain mutant fetuses, we crossed Zbb43-/- mutant females with (Zbb43-/-; Oct4-EGFP Tg+) males. Testicles were dissected from the resulting male fetuses at different days of gestation, at 15.5 days post coitum (dpc) to 18.5 dpc, and were dissociated to single cell suspension using trypsin digestion and trituration as described earlier. 2-10 testes were digested in 150 μl 0.25% trypsin (including 0.5% BSA) at 36 °C for 15 min, tapping gently every 5 min. The trypsin reaction was stopped by adding 450 microliter 20% FBS in M2 medium.

Instrument

- Beckman Coulter MoFlo Astrios sorter.

Software

- Summit v 6.3

Cell population abundance

- The cell purity was 95-99% based on re-sorting the EGFP+ cells.

Gating strategy

- The healthy cell population was gated for positive population of singlets and then for positive population of EGFP expressing cells.

- Tick this box to confirm that a figure exemplifying the gating strategy is provided in the Supplementary Information.