CLAMP and Zelda function together as pioneer transcription factors to promote

***Drosophila* zygotic genome activation**

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ABSTRACT

During the essential and conserved process of zygotic genome activation (ZGA), the chromatin

accessibility must increase to promote transcription. *Drosophila* is a well-established model for

defining mechanisms which drive ZGA. Zelda (ZLD) is a key pioneer transcription factor (TF)

which promotes ZGA in the *Drosophila* embryo. However, many genomic loci which contain GA-

rich motifs become accessible independent of ZLD. Therefore, we hypothesized that other

pioneer TFs that function with ZLD have not yet been identified, especially those that are

capable of binding to GA-rich motifs such as CLAMP (Chromatin-linked adaptor for Male-

specific lethal MSL proteins). Here, we demonstrate that early *Drosophila* embryonic

development requires CLAMP to: 1) promote chromatin accessibility at promoters of genes that

often encode other TFs; 2) activate zygotic transcription; 3) facilitate ZLD occupancy at

promoters. Thus, maternal CLAMP functions with ZLD as a novel pioneer TF to open chromatin

and drive zygotic genome activation.

KEYWORDS WORDS Zygotic genome activation, pioneer transcription factors, CLAMP, Zelda,

Drosophila embryo, nucleosomal gel shift

INTRODUCTION

During zygotic genome activation (ZGA), dramatic reprogramming occurs in the zygotic nucleus to initiate global transcription and prepare the embryo for further development (Jukam et al., 2017). Chromatin changes that activate the zygotic genome during ZGA rely on cooperation among transcription factors (TFs) (Lee et al., 2014). However, only pioneer TFs (Cirillo and Zaret, 1999; Mayran and Drouin, 2018) can bind to closed chromatin before ZGA because most TFs cannot bind to nucleosomal DNA (Soufi et al., 2015).

In *Drosophila,* the pioneer TF Zelda (ZLD; Zinc-finger early *Drosophila* activator) plays a key role during ZGA (Liang et al., 2008). ZLD exhibits several critical characteristics of pioneer TFs, including: 1) binding to nucleosomal DNA (Sun et al., 2015; McDaniel et al., 2019); 2) targeting early zygotic genes (Harrison et al., 2011); and 3) modulating chromatin accessibility to increase the ability of other non-pioneer TFs to bind to DNA (Schulz et al., 2015). However, a large subset of ZLD binding sites (60%) are highly enriched for GA-rich motifs and have constitutively open chromatin even in the absence of ZLD (Schulz et al., 2015). Therefore, we and others (Schulz et al., 2015) hypothesized that other pioneer TFs which directly bind to GA-rich motifs work together with ZLD to activate the zygotic genome.

GAGA-associated Factor (GAF Farkas et al., 1994) and Chromatin-Linked Adaptor for Male-Specific Lethal (MSL) Proteins (CLAMP, Soruco et al., 2013) are two of few known TFs that can bind to GA-rich motifs and regulate transcriptional activation in *Drosophila* (Fuda et al., 2015; Kaye et al., 2018). GAF performs several essential functions in early embryos, including chromatin remodeling (Leibovitch et al., 2002), and RNA Pol II recruitment (Fuda et al., 2015), and is required for nuclear divisions (Bhat et al., 1996).

CLAMP is essential for early embryonic development (Rieder et al., 2017) and plays several vital roles including: recruiting the MSL dosage compensation complex to the male X-

chromosome before ZGA (Rieder et al., 2019); activating coordinated regulation of the histone

genes (Rieder et al., 2017). Therefore, we hypothesized that CLAMP is a new pioneer TF that

regulates ZGA either cooperatively with ZLD or independent of ZLD.

Here, we identify the GA-binding factor CLAMP as a new pioneer transcription factor in

Drosophila. First, we determined that depleting maternal CLAMP and maternal ZLD cause

similar phenotypic changes in the early embryo, which we assessed using smFISH and

immunostaining for critical zygotic genes. Next, we combined genomic and biochemical

approaches to demonstrate that: 1) CLAMP is a novel pioneer factor which binds to

nucleosomal DNA that increases chromatin accessibility; 2) CLAMP and ZLD function

cooperatively to regulate transcription, chromatin accessibility and facilitate each other's

occupancy at promoters of genes which encode other TFs; 3) When ZLD is bound to a locus but

does not increase chromatin accessibility, CLAMP can often function to open chromatin.

Overall, we determined that CLAMP is a novel a pioneer transcription factor that plays an

essential role with ZLD in *Drosophila* zygotic genome activation.

RESULTS

Depletion of maternal CLAMP disrupts of zygotic patterning gene expression and

cytoskeletal organization in blastoderm embryos

We previously reported that nearly 100% (99.87%) of maternal *clamp* RNAi embryos

never hatch and die at early embryonic stages (Rieder et al., 2017), demonstrating that

maternally-deposited CLAMP is critical for embryonic development. To assess embryonic

phenotypic patterning after maternal *clamp* depletion, we first identified three key early zygotic

genes (*even-skipped*, *runt,* and *neurotactin,* **Figure 1-supplementary file 1A**) that had

significantly (*p-value* < 0.05, DESeq2, RNA-seq) reduced expression in early embryos when

depleting maternal CLAMP (Rieder et al., 2017). We then used single-molecule fluorescent in

situ hybridization (smFISH) for *even-skipped* and *runt,* and immunostaining for *neurotactin* to

determine how the depletion of maternal *clamp* or *zld* alters phenotypic patterning and

cytoskeletal integrity in blastoderm stage embryos **(Figure 1)**. Knockdown of *clamp* or *zld* in

early embryos was validated by qRT-PCR and western blotting (**Figure 1 – figure supplement**

1B, C).

Both *even-skipped (eve)* and *runt (run)* play an important role in embryonic

segmentation (Manoukian and Krause, 1992). *eve* also establishes sharp boundaries between

parasegments (Fujioka et al., 1995). Strikingly, when maternally deposited *clamp* is depleted,

we observed the complete disruption of classic seven stripe pair-rule gene expression patterns

using smFISH **(Figure 1A, middle)**. Additionally, the nuclei in the embryonic syncytium were

disassociated compared to control *egfp* RNAi embryos **(Figure 1A, left)**. Furthermore, the

expression of *eve* and *run* was significantly reduced in *clamp* maternal depletion embryos that

also failed to form sharp stripe boundaries. Similar, but slightly stronger, phenotypic changes

were observed in *zld* maternal depletion embryos **(Figure 1A, right)**, indicating that CLAMP and

ZLD have critical roles in establishing embryonic patterning in pre-cellular blastoderm embryos.

Moreover, all of embryos depleted for maternal *clamp* or maternal *zld* (n = 10) show defective

eve/run localization (*p* < 0.05, *Fisher's* exact test).

Next, we used immunostaining to examine the localization of neurotactin (NRT), a cell

adhesion glycoprotein that is expressed early during *Drosophila* embryonic cellularization in a

lattice surrounding syncytial blastoderm nuclei (Hortsch et al., 1990). In *clamp* maternal

depletion embryos **(Figure 1B, middle)**, we observed dramatically disrupted cellularization and

reduced NRT levels. These embryos fail to form the WT pattern of cytoskeletal elements, which

can be seen in the e*gfp* RNAi control embryos **(Figure 1B, left)**. Embryos depleted for maternal

zld also reveal similar patterns of discordant nuclei. More than 50% of embryos depleted for

maternal *clamp* (n = 23) and 100% of embryos depleted for maternal *zld* (n=10) show NRT

disruption **(Figure 1B, right)**, (*p* < 0.05, *Fisher's* exact test). Overall, smFISH and

immunostaining results suggest that both maternally deposited CLAMP and ZLD are essential

for early embryonic development.

CLAMP binds to nucleosomal DNA *in vivo* and *in vitro*

One of the intrinsic characteristics of pioneer transcription factors is their capacity to bind

nucleosomal DNA and compacted chromatin (Cirillo and Zaret, 1999). To test the hypothesis

that CLAMP is a pioneer factor, we performed electromobility shift assays (EMSAs) that test the

intrinsic capacity of CLAMP to directly interact with nucleosomes *in vitro*. First, we identified a

240 bp region of the X-linked 5C2 locus **(Figure 1C)** that CLAMP binds to in cultured S2 cells

and exhibited decreased chromatin accessibility in the absence of CLAMP (J. Urban et al.,

2017). This region is also occupied by a nucleosome **(Figure 1C)**, suggesting that CLAMP

promotes accessibility of this region while binding to nucleosomes in S2 cells.

We then performed *in vitro* nucleosome assembly using 240 bp of DNA from the 5C2

locus that contains three CLAMP-binding motifs and used 5C2 naked DNA as a control. We

142 found that both the CLAMP DNA binding domain (DBD**, Figure 1D**) and full-length protein (F/L**,**

143 **Figure 1E**) can bind and shift naked 5C2 DNA and nucleosomes assembled with 5C2 DNA.

144 Increased protein concentration results in a secondary "super" shift species **(Figure 1D & 1E)**,

145 indicating that multiple CLAMP molecules may occupy the three CLAMP-binding motifs. Both

146 full length CLAMP and CLAMP DBD are fused to the maltose binding protein (MBP), which we

147 previously demonstrated does not bind to DNA independent of CLAMP or alter the specificity of

148 CLAMP binding (Kaye et al., 2018). We also previously determined the specificity of CLAMP

149 binding to its GA-rich motif *in vivo* and *in vitro* (Soruco et al., 2013; Kaye et al., 2018).

150 Importantly, here we demonstrate that CLAMP can directly bind to nucleosomal DNA, a unique

151 feature of pioneer TFs that is not shared with the majority of TFs (Lai et al., 2018).

153 **CLAMP regulates chromatin accessibility in early embryos**

155   Another essential characteristic of pioneer transcription factors is that they can establish

156 and maintain the accessibility of their DNA target sites, allowing other TFs to bind to DNA and

157 activate transcription (Zaret and Carroll, 2011; Iwafuchi-Doi et al., 2016). We previously used

158 MNase-seq (J. Urban et al., 2017) to determine that CLAMP guides MSL complex to GA-rich

159 sequences by promoting an accessible chromatin environment on the male X-chromosome in

160 cultured S2 cells. Furthermore, GA-rich motifs are enriched in regions that remain accessible in

161 the absence of the pioneer factor ZLD (Schulz et al., 2015). Therefore, we hypothesized that

162 CLAMP regulates chromatin accessibility during ZGA.

164   To test our hypothesis, we performed Assay for Transposase-Accessible Chromatin

165 using sequencing (ATAC-seq, see **Figure 2-supplementary file 1** for analysis pipeline) on 0-

166 2hr (pre-ZGA) and 2-4hr (post-ZGA) embryos with wild-type levels of CLAMP [maternal triple

167 GAL4 driver (MTD) alone (Ni et al., 2011)] and embryos depleted for maternal CLAMP using the

168 MTD driver (*clamp-i*). We identified differentially accessible (DA) regions **(Figure 2A,** and **Table**

169 **1)** by comparing ATAC-seq reads between MTD and *clamp-i* embryos using Diffbind (Stark and

Brown, 2019). High Pearson correlation for DA regions between replicates indicates robust

reproducibility **(Figure 2-figure supplement 1A-B,** and **Figure 2- supplement table 1** for

mapping statistics**)**. Over a thousand genomic regions exhibited reduced chromatin accessibility

in the absence of CLAMP (**Figure 2A,** 0-2hr: 1,675; 2-4hr: 1,192), indicating that chromatin

accessibility of these regions requires CLAMP. In contrast, very few loci (0-2hr: 76; 2-4hr: 260)

increased their accessibility in the absence of CLAMP **(Figure 2A** and **Table 1)**. Gene Ontology

(GO) analysis **(Figure 2-figure supplement 1C-D)** indicates that CLAMP increases

accessibility of chromatin regions that are mainly within DNA-binding, RNA Pol II binding, and

enhancer-binding TF encoding genes **(Figure 2-figure supplement 1C-D)**.

Table 1. The number of ATAC-seq peaks called in each replicate and the number of

differentially accessible peaks.

Open chromatin peaks (read fragments <= 100bp)	MTD (caller: MACS2)			Maternal *Clamp*-i (caller: MACS2)			Differential accessible peaks (DiffBind, minimal overlap in 2 replicates)		
	#1	#2	#3	#1	#2	#3	Up	Down	None
0-2hr	7,951	13,947	10,417	8,509	8,908	2,157	76	1,675	9,465
2-4hr	26,280	20,896	14,131	14,697	10,884	18,159	260	1,192	18,851

Moreover, a subset of DA regions were bound by CLAMP suggesting that CLAMP

directly regulates their chromatin accessibility [17.5% (294/1,675) at 0-2hr; 20% (241/1,192) at

2-4hr] **(Table 2)**. For example, the *mod(mdg4)* promoter is a DA site and shows a reduction of

CLAMP occupancy after *clamp* RNAi as expected **(Figure 2B)**. We also determined the

distribution of DA sites and CLAMP binding sites throughout the genome **(Figure 2C)**. While DA

sites were significantly ($p < 0.05$, Fisher's exact test) enriched in promoter regions (67.34%),

CLAMP binds most often to both promoters (29.08%) and introns that are not first introns

(27.72%). Therefore, CLAMP is required to establish or maintain open chromatin at promoters

but could also play other roles at intronic regions. Furthermore, motif analysis identified both

GA-rich motifs and ZLD motifs enriched at regions which require CLAMP for their accessibility in

0-2hr embryos **(Figure 2D)**. These data suggest that CLAMP also regulates the accessibility of

some ZLD binding sites, a hypothesis that we will discuss further below.

We further determined whether CLAMP-mediated chromatin accessibility could

specifically drive early transcription by examining the relationship between the chromatin

accessibility (DA, ATAC-seq) changes and gene expression of the nearest differential

expressed gene (DEG) as measured by RNA-seq (Rieder et al., 2017). We obtained significant

(p-values < 0.001, hypergeometric test, N= 15,682 total fly genes) overlap between CLAMP-

mediated down-regulate chromatin accessibility and down-regulate gene expression changes at

both time points: 0-2hr and 2-4hr **(Figure 2E)**. Overall, our ATAC-seq data indicate that CLAMP

promotes accessibility of chromatin during ZGA, a key function of pioneer TFs.

CLAMP and ZLD binding mediate CLAMP-related chromatin accessibility

To determine how direct binding of CLAMP relates to CLAMP-mediated chromatin

accessibility, we integrated CLAMP binding sites from ChIP-seq with ATAC-seq peaks. Inspired

by a FAIRE-seq (Formaldehyde-Assisted Isolation of Regulatory Elements) study which

identified ZLD-mediated chromatin accessible regions (Schulz et al., 2015), we defined four

classes of CLAMP-related peaks: 1) DA with CLAMP binding, 2) DA without CLAMP binding, 3)

Non-DA with CLAMP binding, 4) Non-DA without CLAMP binding **(Figure 3A, Figure 3-figure**

supplement 1A, and **Table 2)**. Heatmap of z-score normalized ATAC-seq read counts (CPM) in

MTD and *clamp-i* embryos revealed that DA regions show a significant decrease in accessibility

in embryos lacking CLAMP. In contrast, non-DA regions remain accessible in the absence of

CLAMP **(Figure 3A,** and **Figure 3-figure supplement 1A).** In this way, we defined regions of

the genome where chromatin accessibility is dependent on CLAMP, which largely include

promoters of genes encoding transcriptional regulators.

Table 2. The number of peaks in 4 types of CLAMP or ZLD mediated regions.

Top 6,000 ATAC-seq peaks (CPM)	DA w/ CLAMP	DA w/o CLAMP	Non-DA w/ CLAMP	Non-DA w/o CLAMP
0-2hr	249	835	267	2,101
2-4hr	241	199	1,618	2,826
Top 6,000 ATAC-seq peaks in CPM (Hannon et al., 2017)	DA w/ ZLD	DA w/o ZLD	Non-DA w/ ZLD	Non-DA w/o ZLD
NC14+12min	806	426	1,331	2,269

Next, we generated a heatmap to examine the ChIP-seq occupancy of CLAMP and ZLD

at the four different classes of loci defined above, based on the effect of CLAMP on chromatin

accessibility (**Figure 3A** and **Figure 3-figure supplement 1A-B**). We found that highest

occupancy CLAMP sites are those at which CLAMP regulates chromatin accessibility (DA

w/CLAMP loci). Interestingly, DA w/CLAMP sites show higher occupancy of CLAMP compared

to Non-DA w/CLAMP sites, suggesting that enhanced CLAMP occupancy promotes the ability

of CLAMP to regulate chromatin accessibility **(Figure 3A** and **Figure 3-figure supplement 1A)**.

ZLD ChIP-seq and motif analysis revealed that ZLD and its motif are enriched at all of

the CLAMP-related classes of sites **(Figure 3A** and **Figure 3-figure supplement 1A)**.

Moreover, ZLD requires CLAMP for its occupancy at sites where CLAMP regulates chromatin

accessibility (DA regions) but binds independently of CLAMP to regions that do not depend on

CLAMP for accessibility (Non-DA regions) (**Figure 3A** and **Figure 3-figure supplement 1A).**

Together, these data are consistent with a model in which high levels of CLAMP occupancy

promote changes in chromatin accessibility. However, CLAMP-dependent changes in chromatin

accessibility promote the occupancy of ZLD even if there is not high CLAMP occupancy at these

loci.

To compare CLAMP- and ZLD-mediated chromatin accessibility during ZGA, we also

defined four ZLD-related classes of genomic loci using ZLD binding sites from ChIP-seq (this

study) and ATAC-seq datasets (Hannon et al., 2017; Soluri et al., 2020). The ZLD-related

ATAC-seq data were generated from embryos laid by wildtype (wt) mothers or mothers with *zld*

germline clone (*zld-*) at the nuclear cycle 14 (NC14) +12 min time point. Specifically, we defined

four classes of genomic loci for ZLD-related classes: 1) DA with ZLD, 2) DA without ZLD, 3)

Non-DA with ZLD, 4) Non-DA without ZLD **(Figure 3B** and **Table 2).** A heatmap of ATAC-seq

data (CPM) in wt and *zld-* embryos and ZLD ChIP-seq data in MTD and *zld-i* embryos in each

ZLD-related class also demonstrates that the read enrichment is consistent with our

classification **(Figure 3B** and **Figure 3-figure supplement 1C)**. We found the read enrichment

of ZLD ChIP-seq in MTD and *zld-i* embryos corresponds to our classification of ZLD binding

classes **(Figure 3B)**.

We also plotted CLAMP ChIP-seq at the four ZLD-related classes of sites. Strikingly,

CLAMP occupancy was highly enriched at sites where ZLD binds but does not regulate

chromatin accessibility (Non-DA w/ ZLD), even in the absence of maternal *zld* **(Figure 3B).**

Moreover, motif analysis also demonstrates that the CLAMP motif is significantly enriched in the

Non-DA with ZLD region**,** supporting our hypothesis that CLAMP binds to these regions and

keeps them open, even in the absence of ZLD **(Figure 3B)**.

Next, we determined the relationship between the four classes of CLAMP-related peaks

and four classes of ZLD-related peaks by performing a pairwise intersection of genomic regions

(Table 3). At 0-2hrs, we observed that the sites which require CLAMP for their chromatin

accessibility but have low/no CLAMP occupancy (DA w/o CLAMP) significantly overlap with all

ZLD classes ($p < 0.05$, Hypergeometric test, N=15,682 total fly genes) **(Table 3)**. Among these

overlaps, the lowest *p*-value is between DA w/o CLAMP and DA w/ ZLD. In contrast, sites that

have ZLD occupancy but do not require ZLD for their chromatin accessibility (Non-DA w/ ZLD)

overlap significantly with all CLAMP classes. Interestingly, the lowest *p*-value is between DA w/

CLAMP and Non-DA w/ ZLD. At 2-4hr, we also found significant overlap between sites that are

bound by both CLAMP and ZLD (DA w/ CLAMP and Non-DA w/ ZLD; Non-DA w/ CLAMP and

DA w/ ZLD). This relationship between classes of sites suggests that CLAMP and ZLD act

cooperatively: CLAMP promotes chromatin accessibility at locations bound by ZLD that do not

depend on ZLD for their accessibility and vice versa. As Schulz et al. (2015) predicted, a GA-

binding TF can increase the accessibility of sites bound by ZLD which do not require ZLD for

chromatin accessibility. Here, we determined that CLAMP is one of the GA-binding TFs which

can function cooperatively with ZLD.

Table 3. Significance of pairwise overlaps between four classes of CLAMP-related peaks

and four classes of ZLD-related peaks in 0-2hr and 2-4hr embryos

Overlap peaks (peak number)	DA, w/ CLAMP 0-2hr (249)	DA, w/o CLAMP 0-2hr (835)	Non-DA, w/ CLAMP 0-2hr (267)	Non-DA, w/o CLAMP 0-2hr (2,101)
DA, w/ ZLD NC14+12min (806)	22 (p = 0.0006)	168 (p = 2.57e-59)	20 (p = 0.04)	157 (p = 9.13e-8)
DA, w/o ZLD NC14+12min (426)	0 (-)	62 (p = 2.13e-13)	0 (-)	55 (-)
Non-DA, w/ ZLD NC14+12min (1,331)	109 (p = 8.99e-53)	117 (p = 8.98e-09)	101 (p = 4.89e-12)	280 (p = 6.2e-17)
Non-DA, w/o ZLD NC14+12min (2,269)	9 (-)	176 (p = 2.4e-08)	11 (-)	579 (p = 1.4e-66)
Overlap peaks (peak number)	DA, w/ CLAMP 2-4hr (241)	DA, w/o CLAMP 2-4hr (199)	Non-DA, w/ CLAMP 2-4hr (1,618)	Non-DA, w/o CLAMP 2-4hr (2,826)
DA, w/ ZLD NC14+12min (806)	12 (-)	2 (-)	133 (p = 4.04-09)	113 (-)
DA, w/o ZLD NC14+12min (426)	2 (-)	2 (-)	4 (-)	48 (-)
Non-DA, w/ ZLD NC14+12min (1,331)	82 (p = 6.35e-30)	11 (-)	589 (p = 3.5e-263)	362 (p = 1.55e-19)
Non-DA, w/o ZLD NC14+12min (2,269)	25 (-)	37 (-)	179 (-)	1,044 (p = 2.87e-257)

279 *"-" not significant p-value; w/: with; w/o: without*
280 *p-values are calculated by Hypergeometric test, N=15,682 total fly genes*
281

CLAMP and ZLD bind cooperatively to promoters

To directly determine how CLAMP and ZLD impact each other's binding, we performed

ChIP-seq (see **Figure 4-supplementary file 1** for analysis pipeline) for CLAMP and ZLD in

control MTD embryos and embryos that were maternally depleted for each factor with RNAi at

the same two time points we used for our ATAC-seq experiments: before ZGA (0-2hr) and

during and after ZGA (2-4hr) **(Figure 4A-B** and **Table 4)**. Overall, ZLD has more peaks (0-2hr:

6,974; 2-4hr: 8,035) across the whole genome than CLAMP (0-2hr: 4,962, 2-4hr: 7,564) in

control MTD embryos. As we hypothesized, CLAMP and ZLD peaks significantly overlap ($p <$

0.05, Hypergeometric test, N=15,682 total fly genes) **(Figure 4-figure supplement 1A)**.

Before ZGA (0-2hrs), ZLD showed a higher enrichment at promoters than CLAMP. In

contrast, CLAMP had a similar distribution to ZLD at the 2-4hr time point, indicating that CLAMP

binds to promoters later than ZLD **(Figure 4C)**. Depletion of either maternal *zld* or *clamp* mRNA

altered the genomic distribution of CLAMP and ZLD: both factors shifted their occupancy from

promoters to introns. Interestingly, maternal *zld* RNAi no longer affects CLAMP binding to

promoters at 2-4hr which may be because the maternal RNAi is not as effective at reducing ZLD

protein levels at this time point **(Figure 4C)**. Therefore, CLAMP and ZLD change the distribution

of each other's occupancy to increase their binding to promoters instead of introns.

Table 4. The number of peaks for CLAMP and ZLD in MTD, *clamp-i* and *zld-i* embryos and

differential binding peaks

ChIP-seq Peaks (consensus in at least 2 replicates)	CLAMP			ZLD		
	MTD	*clamp-i*	*zld-i*	*MTD*	*clamp-i*	*zld-i*
0-2hr	4,962	3,488	4,746	6,974	3,687	4,650
2-4hr	7,564	4,064	8,279	8,035	4,687	6,420
Differential Binding (DiffBind, DEseq2)	*MTD vs. zld-i*			*MTD vs. clamp-i*		
	up-DB	down-DB	non-DB	up-DB	down-DB	non-DB
0-2hr	54	390	4,184	8	274	3,144
2-4hr	3	30	7,351	223	1,289	5,672

Next, we defined the sites that show differential binding (DB, **Figures 4D-E** and **Table 4**)

of CLAMP and ZLD in the absence of each other's maternally deposited mRNA using Diffbind

(Stark and Brown, 2019). We found a significant reduction of ZLD binding in the absence of

CLAMP. There were 274 (0-2hr) and 1,289 (2-4hr) sites where ZLD binding decreased in

clamp-i compared to MTD controls (down-DB) **(Figures 4D, Figure 4-figure supplement 1B,**

and **Table 4)**. Fewer ZLD binding sites increased in occupancy after *clamp* RNAi: 8 (0-2hr) and

233 (2-4hr) up-DB sites. In contrast, loss of ZLD had a weaker impact on CLAMP binding: 390

(0-2 hr) and 30 (2-4 hr) down-DB sites **(Figures 4E, Figure 4-figure supplement 1C,** and

Table 4). We identified very few sites where CLAMP occupancy increases after *zld* RNAi (up-

DB sites: 0-2hr: 54, 2-4hr: 3). Moreover, CLAMP and ZLD down-DB sites were also significantly

overlapped ($p < 0.05$, Hypergeometric test, N=15,682 total fly genes) throughout ZGA **(Figure**

4-figure supplement 1D).

To further understand how CLAMP and ZLD bind to dependent (down-DB) and

independent (non-DB) sites, we determined the genomic distribution of these two types of sites.

We found that dependent sites are enriched at promoters and transcription start sites, while

independent sites are mainly located in introns **(Figure 4F)**. Overall, dependent peaks are much

broader in size and are located at promoters. In contrast, independent sites are narrower and

located within introns **(Figures 4G-H** and **Figure 4-figure supplement 1E)**. On average, the

peak size of dependent sites (400-500bp) is almost double that of independent sites (200-

250bp) with significant differences in peak size for both TFs at both time points ($p < 0.001$,

Mann-Whitney U-test) **(Figure 4I)**. In summary, these results support a model in which there is

a cooperative relationship between CLAMP and ZLD binding at promoters of genes which

encode other transcription factors.

CLAMP and ZLD function together to regulate genes during zygotic genome activation by

mediating chromatin accessibility

One essential function of a pioneer TF is its ability to activate zygotic genes (Zaret and

Carroll, 2011). To define how CLAMP regulates transcription in early embryos, we examined the

effect of maternal CLAMP depletion on the expression of maternally-deposited or zygotically-

transcribed genes using mRNA-seq data (Rieder et al., 2017). We found that the expression

levels of zygotically-transcribed genes but not maternally-deposited genes were significantly

downregulated in embryos lacking CLAMP (p < 0.001, Mann-Whitney U-test) **(Figure 5A).**

Therefore, CLAMP has a similar effect on zygotic transcription to that which has been previously

reported for ZLD (Liang et al., 2008; McDaniel et al., 2019).

We next asked whether the ability of CLAMP to bind to genes directly regulates zygotic

gene activation by integrating ChIP-seq data (this study) with RNA-seq data (Rieder et al., 2017;

Combs and Eisen, 2017). We determined that genes strongly bound by CLAMP showed a

significant (p < 0.001, Mann-Whitney U-test) level of gene expression reduction after *clamp*

RNAi (Rieder et al., 2017) compared to weakly bound or unbound genes **(Figure 5B** and **Figure**

5-figure supplement 1A). We also observed a significant (p < 0.001, Mann-Whitney U-test)

change in gene expression in *zld-* embryos (Combs and Eisen, 2017) for the genes which are

strongly bound by ZLD **(Figure 5C** and **Figure 5-figure supplement 1B)**. Furthermore, the

numbers of genes in the CLAMP or ZLD-regulated groups are similar size to each other. Also,

the magnitude of the transcriptional changes are similar for sites that directly bind CLAMP or

ZLD. Moreover, we compared and contrasted the transcriptional roles of CLAMP and ZLD in

early embryos at genes that have different temporal expression patterns. We found that CLAMP

binding was enriched at mid- and late-transcribed zygotic genes (categories defined in Li et al.,

2014), while ZLD binding is stronger in early-transcribed zygotic genes **(Figure 5-figure**

supplement 1C-D).

We hypothesized that CLAMP and ZLD could regulate each other's binding to precisely

drive the transcription of target genes. To test this hypothesis, we plotted the gene expression

changes caused by depleting maternal ZLD at genes where CLAMP regulates ZLD binding. The

depletion of maternal *zld* significantly (p = 2.1e-6, Mann-Whitney U-test) reduces the expression

of genes where ZLD regulates CLAMP binding (down-DB) more than sites where CLAMP binds

independently of ZLD (non-DB) at the 0-2hr but not the 2-4hr (p = 0.53) time point **(Figure 5D)**.

Therefore, ZLD may specifically regulate early genes where ZLD promotes CLAMP binding.

Also, compared to genes where ZLD binds independent of CLAMP, genes where ZLD binding is

regulated by CLAMP had a significant (p < 0.001, Mann-Whitney U-test) expression reduction

after *clamp* RNAi at both 0-2hr and 2-4hr time points **(Figure 5D)**. Thus, CLAMP may regulate

the transcription of genes targeted by ZLD by promoting ZLD binding.

Previous proteomic studies (J. A. Urban et al., 2017; Hamm et al., 2017, 2015) found no

evidence that CLAMP and ZLD could directly contact each other at the protein level, suggesting

that CLAMP and ZLD may regulate each other via binding to their own DNA motifs. Therefore,

we analyzed the motifs enriched at dependent (down-DB) and independent (non-DB) sites. We

found that dependent sites are enriched for motifs specific for the required protein, which are not

present at the independent sites **(Figure 5-figure supplement 1E).** For example, the ZLD motif

is only enriched at sites where CLAMP requires ZLD for binding (CLAMP down-DB) but not at

sites where CLAMP binds independently of ZLD (CLAMP non-DB). Similarly, the CLAMP motif

is only enriched at sites where ZLD requires CLAMP for binding (ZLD down-DB) **(Figure 5-**

figure supplement 1E). Therefore, the presence of specific CLAMP and ZLD motifs correlates

with their ability to promote each other's binding which regulates the expression of each other's

target genes.

Lastly, given the cooperative relationship between CLAMP and ZLD binding to

chromatin, which regulates transcription, we measured chromatin accessibility changes at

dependent and independent sites **(Figures 5E-F).** We found that sites where ZLD regulates

CLAMP binding (CLAMP down-DB) have high chromatin accessibility while sites where CLAMP

binds independent (CLAMP non-DB) of ZLD showed low chromatin accessibility in both control

and *zld-* embryos. Interestingly, the accessibility slightly increases upon the loss of ZLD in

CLAMP down-DB at 0-2hr **(Figures 5E).** An active TF binding to DNA could prevent Tn5

cleavage at those regions (Yan et al., 2020). Therefore, loss of ZLD and CLAMP binding could

result in a perceived accessibility increase, as measured by ATAC-seq. Similarly, the average

ATAC-seq signals significantly reduced at site ZLD dependent on CLAMP to bind (ZLD down-

DB sites) in *clamp-i* embryos compared to MTD controls. Simultaneously, the accessibility at

where ZLD bind independently (ZLD non-DB) is much lower than that at ZLD DB sites **(Figures**

5F). Overall, our data are consistent with the direct action of CLAMP and ZLD on chromatin

accessibility, which influences the binding of both TFs to their binding sites and regulates target

gene expression.

DISCUSSION

Two questions central to early embryogenesis of all metazoans are how and where do

early transcription factors work together to drive chromatin changes and zygotic genome

activation. Here, we identified CLAMP as a pioneer transcription factor that is essential for early

embryonic development, which directly binds to nucleosomal DNA **(Figure 1)**, establishes

and/or maintains chromatin accessibility **(Figure 2-3)**, facilitates the binding of ZLD to promoters

(Figure 4) and regulates zygotic genome activation **(Figure 5)**. We further discovered that

CLAMP and ZLD cooperatively regulate each other's binding during ZGA. Also, we determined

that both CLAMP and ZLD alter chromatin accessibility which influences the binding of both TFs

to their binding sites **(Figure 6)**. Overall, we identify a new pioneer TF, CLAMP, and provide

critical insight into how CLAMP and ZLD function cooperatively to remodel zygotic genome

accessibility, which drives zygotic genome activation.

CLAMP and ZLD act together to define an open chromatin landscape and activate

transcription in early embryos

Our ATAC-seq and EMSA data suggest that CLAMP is a novel pioneer transcription

factor in early *Drosophila* embryos. Pioneer transcription factors (Mayran and Drouin, 2018),

such as FoxA1 (Cirillo et al., 2002), have distinct characteristics from other TFs such as direct

biochemical interaction with nucleosomes, activating gene expression in the embryo,

establishing accessible chromatin domains, and facilitating binding of additional TFs. Analogous

to prior work on ZLD (Schulz et al., 2015; McDaniel et al., 2019), we demonstrate that CLAMP

also possesses these characteristics of a pioneer factor.

We defined CLAMP-dependent and ZLD-dependent peaks in early embryos which

reveals cooperative roles for CLAMP and ZLD in defining chromatin accessibility and zygotic

transcription during ZGA **(Figure 6)**: 1) CLAMP promotes ZLD enrichment at sites where

CLAMP binding increases chromatin accessibility (DA, w/ CLAMP) and further regulates ZLD

target gene expression. 2) ZLD increases chromatin accessibility at sites that are bound by

CLAMP but do not depend on CLAMP for chromatin accessibility (Non-DA, w/ CLAMP). 3) ZLD

facilitates CLAMP binding at sites where ZLD regulates chromatin accessibility (DA, w/ ZLD)

and promotes CLAMP target gene expression. 4) CLAMP opens chromatin at locations bound

by ZLD that do not depend on ZLD for their accessibility (Non-DA, w/ ZLD). Overall, our data

suggest that CLAMP functions cooperatively with ZLD to regulate chromatin accessibility and

gene expression of the early zygotic genome.

Although we have demonstrated an instrumental role for CLAMP in defining the open

chromatin landscape in early embryos, our data show that CLAMP does not increase chromatin

accessibility at all genomic loci. CLAMP mainly drives chromatin accessibility changes at

promoters of genes that encode transcription factors which are important for early development.

Moreover, ZLD binding and/or chromatin accessibility is not regulated by maternal depletion of

CLAMP at all GA-rich sites in the genome. A previous study found that GAF is also enriched at

these same ZLD-bound regions where ZLD is not required for chromatin accessibility (Schulz et

al., 2015). Both CLAMP and GAF are deposited maternally (Rieder et al., 2017; Hamm et al.,

2017) and bind to similar GA-rich motifs (Kaye et al., 2018). To test whether GAF compensates

for the depletion of CLAMP or ZLD, we tried to perform GAF RNAi in the current study to

prevent GAF from compensating for CLAMP depletion. However, we could not achieve

depletion of GAF in early embryos by RNAi, likely due to autoregulation of its own promoter and

its prion-like self-perpetuating function (Tariq et al., 2013).

We previously demonstrated that competition between CLAMP and GAF at GA-rich

binding sites is essential for MSL complex recruitment in S2 cells (Kaye et al., 2018).

Furthermore, CLAMP excludes GAF at the histone locus which co-regulates genes that encode

the histone proteins (Rieder et al., 2017). However, we also observed synergistic binding

between CLAMP and GAF at many additional binding sites (Kaye et al., 2018). Yet, the

relationship between CLAMP and GAF in early embryos remains unknown. It is very possible

that the competitive relationship has not been established in early embryos, since dosage

compensation has not yet been initiated (Prayitno et al., 2019).

The GA-rich sequences targeted by CLAMP and GAF are distinct from each other *in*

vivo and *in vitro*. GAF binding sites typically have 3.5 GA repeats; however, GAF is able to bind

to as few as three bases (GAG) within the *hsp70* promoter and *in vitro* (Wilkins and Lis, 1999).

In contrast, CLAMP binding sites contain an 8-bp core with a less well-conserved second GA

dinucleotide within the core (GA__GAGA) (Alekseyenko et al., 2008). CLAMP binding sites also

include a GAGAG pentamer at a lower frequency than GAF binding sites, and flanking bases

surrounding the 8-bp core are critical for CLAMP binding (Kaye et al., 2018).

Therefore, GAF and CLAMP may have overlapping and non-overlapping functions at

different loci, tissues, or developmental stages. Moreover, another TF Pipsqueak (Psq) also

targets sites containing the GAGAG motif, and has multiple functions during oogenesis,

embryonic pattern formation and functions with Polycomb in three-dimensional genome

organization (Lehmann et al., 1998; Gutierrez-Perez et al., 2019). In the future, an optogenetic

inactivation approach could be used to remove CLAMP, GAF and/or Psq simultaneously in a

spatial and temporal manner (McDaniel et al., 2019).

CLAMP and ZLD regulate each other's binding via their own motifs

ZLD is an essential TF that regulates activation of the first set of zygotic genes during

the minor wave of ZGA and thousands of genes transcribed during the major wave of ZGA at

NC14 (Liang et al., 2008; Harrison et al., 2011). ZLD also establishes and maintains chromatin

accessibility of specific regions and facilitates transcription factor binding and early gene

expression (Sun et al., 2015; Schulz et al., 2015). CLAMP regulates histone gene expression

(Rieder et al., 2017), X chromosome dosage compensation (Soruco et al., 2013), and

establishes/maintains chromatin accessibility (J. Urban et al., 2017). Nonetheless, it remained

unclear whether and how CLAMP and ZLD functionally interact during ZGA. Here, we

demonstrate a cooperative relationship between CLAMP and ZLD at hundreds of promoters

which encode other transcriptional regulators.

ZLD often regulates CLAMP occupancy earlier than CLAMP regulates ZLD occupancy.

Genomic loci at which CLAMP is dependent on ZLD early (0-2hr) in development often become

independent from ZLD later (2-4hr), with the caveat that ZLD depletion is not as effective later in

development. Therefore, CLAMP may require the pioneering activity of ZLD to access specific

loci before ZGA, but ZLD is no longer necessary once CLAMP binding is established. Also, our

results suggest that CLAMP is a potent regulator of ZLD binding, especially in 2-4hr embryos.

Furthermore, ZLD can bind to many more promoter regions at 0-2 hours, while CLAMP mainly

binds to introns early in development but occupies promoters later at 2-4 hours. Therefore,

CLAMP may require ZLD to increase chromatin accessibility of these promoter regions (Schulz

et al., 2015). In fact, ZLD is sufficient to activate a subgroup of early genes, although most ZLD

bound regions are not active until NC14 (Bosch et al., 2006).

In addition to its role in embryonic development, CLAMP also plays an essential role in

targeting the MSL male dosage compensation complex to the X-chromosome (Soruco et al.,

2013). *Drosophila* embryos initiate X-chromosome counting in NC12 and start the sex

determination cascade prior to the major wave of ZGA at NC14 (Gergen, 1987; Bosch et al.,

2006). However, most dosage compensation is initiated much later in embryonic development

(Prayitno et al., 2019). Therefore, our data support a model in which CLAMP functions early in

the embryo prior to MSL complex assembly to open up specific chromatin regions for MSL

complex recruitment later (J. Urban et al., 2017; Rieder et al., 2019). Moreover, ZLD likely

functions primarily as an early pioneer factor, whereas CLAMP has pioneering functions in both

early- and late-ZGA embryos. Consistent with this hypothesis, CLAMP binding is enriched at

both early and late zygotic genes. In contrast, ZLD binding is localized mainly to early zygotic

genes, suggesting a that there may be a sequential relationship between occupancy of these

two TFs at some loci during early embryogenesis.

The different characteristics of dependent and independent CLAMP and ZLD binding

sites also provide insight into how early transcription factors work together to regulate ZGA. At

dependent sites, there are often relatively broad peaks of CLAMP and ZLD that are significantly

enriched for clusters of motifs for the required protein. Our CLAMP EMSAs and those previously

reported (Kaye et al., 2018) also show multiple shifted bands consistent with possible

multimerization. CLAMP contains two central disordered prion-like glutamine-rich regions (Q

domains) (Kaye et al., 2018), a type of domain that is critical for transcriptional activation and

multimerization *in vivo* in several TFs, including GAF (Wilkins and Lis, 1999). Moreover,

glutamine-rich repeats alone can be sufficient to mediate stable protein multimerization *in vitro*

(Stott et al., 1995). Therefore, it is reasonable to hypothesize that the CLAMP glutamine-rich

domain also functions in CLAMP multimerization.

In contrast, ZLD fails to form dimers or multimers (Hamm et al., 2015, 2017), indicating

that ZLD most likely binds as a monomer. There is no evidence that CLAMP and ZLD have any

direct protein-protein interaction at sites where they depend on each other to bind. For example,

mass spectrometry results that identified dozens of CLAMP-associated proteins did not identify

ZLD (J. A. Urban et al., 2017). No validated protein-protein interactions of ZLD with itself as a

multimer or between ZLD and any other TFs have been identified to date using diverse methods

(Hamm et al., 2017). Taken together, our study suggests that regulating the chromatin

landscape in early embryos to drive ZGA requires the cooperation of multiple transcription

factors.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Recombinant Protein Expression and Purification of CLAMP

MBP-tagged CLAMP DBD was expressed and purified as described previously (Kaye et

al., 2018). MBP-tagged (pTHMT, Peti and Page, 2007) full-length CLAMP protein was

expressed in *Escherichia coli* BL21 Star (DE3) cells (Life Technologies). Bacterial cultures were

grown to an optical density of 0.7 to 0.9 before induction with 1 mM isopropyl-β-D-1-

thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) for 4 hrs at 37°C.

Cell pellets were harvested by centrifugation and stored at -80°C. Cell pellets were

resuspended in 20 mM Tris, 1M NaCl, 0.1mM ZnCl2, 10 mM imidazole pH 8.0 with one EDTA-

free protease inhibitor tablet (Roche) and lysed using an Emulsiflex C3 (Avestin). The lysate

was cleared by centrifugation at 20,000 rpm for 50 min at 4°C, filtered using a 0.2 μm syringe

filter, and loaded onto a HisTrap HP 5 mL column. The protein was eluted with a gradient from

10 to 300 mM imidazole in 20 mM Tris, 1.0 M NaCl pH 8.0, and 0.1mM ZnCl2. Fractions

containing MBP-CLAMP full-length were loaded onto a HiLoad 26/600 Superdex 200 pg column

equilibrated in 20 mM Tris 1.0 M NaCl pH 8.0. Fractions containing full-length CLAMP were

identified by SDS-PAGE and concentrated using a centrifugation filter with a 10 kDa cutoff

(Amicon, Millipore) and frozen as aliquots.

***In vitro* assembly of nucleosomes**

The 240 bp 5C2 DNA fragment used for nucleosome *in vitro* assembly was amplified

from 276 bp 5C2 fragments (50ng/ul, IDT gBlocks Gene Fragments) by PCR (see 276 bp 5C2

and primer sequences below) using OneTaq Hot Start 2X Master Mix (New England Biolabs).

The DNA was purified using the PCR clean-up kit (Qiagen) and concentrated to 1ug/ul by

SpeedVac Vacuum (Eppendorf). The nucleosomes were assembled using the EpiMark®

Nucleosome Assembly Kit (New England Biolabs) following the kit's protocol.

5C2 (276 bp), **bold** sequences are CLAMP-binding motifs, underlined sequences are primer

binding sequences:

TCGACGACTAGTTTAAAGTTA<u>TTGTAGTTCTTAGAGCAGAATGT</u>ATTTTAAATATCAATGTTT

CGATGTAGAAATTGAATGGTTTAAATCACGTTCACACAACTTA**GAAAGAGATAG**CGATGGC

GGTGT**GAAAGAGAGCGAGATAG**TTGGAAGCTTCATG**GAAATGAAAGAGAGGTAG**TTTTT

GGAAATGAAAGTTGTACTAGAAATAAGTATTTTATGTATATAGAATATCGAAGTACAG<u>AAATT</u>

<u>CGAAGCGATCTCAAC</u>TTGAATATTATATCG

Primers for 5C2 region (product is 240bp):

Forward: TTGTAGTTCTTAGAGCAGAATGT

Reverse: GTTGAGATCGCTTCGAATTT

Electromobility shift assays

DNA or nucleosome probes at 35nM (700fmol/reaction) were incubated with MBP-

tagged CLAMP DBD protein or MBP-tagged full-length CLAMP protein in a binding buffer. The

binding reaction buffer conditions are similar to conditions previously used to test ZLD

nucleosome binding (McDaniel et al. 2019) in 20 ul total volume: 7.5ul BSA/HEGK buffer (12.5

mM HEPES, PH 7.0, 0.5 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM EGTA, 5% glycerol, 50 mM KCl, 0.05 mg/ml BSA,

0.2 mM PMSF, 1 mM DTT, 0.25 mM ZnCl2, 0.006% NP-40,) 10 ul probe mix (5 ng poly[d-(IC)],

5 mM MgCl2, 700 fmol probe), and 2.5 ul protein dilution (0.5uM, 1uM, 2.5uM) at room

temperature for 60 min. Reactions were loaded onto 6% DNA retardation gels (ThermoFisher)

and run in 0.5X Tris–borate–EDTA buffer for 2 hours. Gels were post stained with Gelred

Nucleic Acid Stain (Thermo Scientific) for 30 min and visualized using the ChemiDoc MP

imaging system (BioRad).

Fly stocks and crosses

To deplete maternally deposited *clamp* or *zld* mRNA throughout oogenesis, we crossed

a maternal triple driver (MTD-GAL4, Bloomington, #31777) line (Ni et al., 2011) with a

Transgenic RNAi Project (TRiP) *clamp* RNAi line (Bloomington, #57008), a TRiP *zld* RNAi line

(from C. Rushlow lab) or *egfp* RNAi line (Bloomington, #41552). *egfp* RNAi line was used as

control in smFISH, Immunostaining and Imaging experiments. The MTD-GAL4 line alone was

used as the control line in ATAC-seq and ChIP-seq experiments.

Briefly, the MTD-GAL4 virgin females (5-7day age) were mated with TRiP UAS-RNAi

males to obtain MTD-Gal4/UAS-RNAi line daughters. The MTD drives RNAi during oogenesis in

these daughters: therefore, the targeted mRNA will be depleted in their eggs. Then MTD-

Gal4/UAS-RNAi daughters were mated with males to produce embryos with depleted maternal

clamp or *zld* mRNA targeted for ATAC-seq and ChIP-seq experiments. The embryonic

phenotypes of the maternal *zld*⁻ TRiP RNAi line were confirmed previously (Sun et al., 2015).

Maternal *clamp*⁻ embryonic phenotypes of the TRiP *clamp* RNAi line were confirmed by

immunofluorescent staining in our study (**Figure 1A-B**). Moreover, we validated CLAMP or ZLD

protein knockdown in early embryos by western blotting using the Western Breeze kit

(Invitrogen) and measured *clamp* and *zld* mRNA levels by qRT-PCR (**Figure 1 – figure**

supplement 1B, C).

Embryo collections

To optimize egg collections, young (5-7 day old) females and males were mated. To

ensure mothers do not lay older embryos during collections, we first starved flies for 2 hours in

the empty cages and discarded the first 2-hour grape agar plates with yeast paste (Plate set

#0). When we collected eggs for the experiments, we put flies in the cages with grape agar

plates (Plate set #1) with yeast paste for egg laying for 2 hours. Then, we replaced Plate set #1

with a new set of plates (Plate set #2) at the 2hr time point. We kept Plate set #1 embryos

(without any adult flies) to further develop for another 2 hours to obtain 2-4hr embryos. At the

same time, we obtained newly laid 0-2hr embryos from Plate set #2. Therefore, this strategy

successfully prevented cross contamination between 0-2hr embryos (Plate set #2) and the 2-4hr

embryos (Plate set #1).

smFISH, Immunostaining and Imaging

For whole embryo single molecule fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (smFISH) and

immunostaining and subsequent imaging, standard protocols were used (Little and Gregor,

2018). smFISH probes complementary to *run* were a gift from Thomas Gregor, and those

complementary to *eve* were a gift from Shawn Little. The concentrations of the different dyes

and antibodies were as follows: Hoechst (Invitrogen, 3µg/ml), Anti-NRT (Developmental Studies

Hybridoma Bank BP106, 1:10), AlexaFluor secondary antibodies (Invitrogen Molecular Probes,

1:1000). Imaging was done using either a Nikon A1 point-scanning confocal microscope with a

40X oil objective or the Leica SP8 confocal microscope system with a 40X oil objective (1.3N.A.)

Image processing and intensity measurements were done using Image J software (NIH).

Figures were assembled using Adobe Photoshop CS4.

ATAC-seq in embryos

We conducted ATAC-seq following the protocol from Blythe and Wieschaus, (2016). 0-

2hr or 2-4hr embryos were laid on grape agar plates, dechorionated by 1 min exposure to 6%

bleach (Clorox) and then washed 3 times in deionized water. We homogenized 10 embryos and

lysed them in 50 ul lysis buffer (10mM Tris 7.5, 10mM NaCl, 3mM MgCl2, 0.1% NP-40). We

collected nuclei by centrifuging at 500 g at 4°C and resuspended nuclei in 5 ul TD buffer with

2.5 ul Tn5 enzyme (Illumina Tagment DNA TDE1 Enzyme and Buffer Kits). We incubated

samples at 37°C for 30 min at 800 rpm (Eppendorf Thermomixer) for fragmentation, and then

purified samples with Qiagen Minelute columns before PCR amplification. We amplified libraries

by adding 10 ul DNA to 25 ul NEBNext HiFi 2x PCR mix (New England Biolabs) and 2.5 ul of a

25 uM solution of each of the Ad1 and Ad2 primers. We used 13 PCR cycles to amplify samples

from 0-2hr embryos and 12 PCR cycles to amplify samples from 2-4hr embryos. Next, we

purified libraries with 1.2x Ampure SPRI beads. We performed three biological replicates for

each genotype (n=2) and time point (n=2). We measured the concentrations of 12 ATAC-seq

libraries by Qubit and determined library quality by Bioanalyzer. We sequenced libraries on an

Illumina Hi-seq 4000 sequencer at GeneWiz (South Plainfield, NJ) using the 2x150-bp mode.

ATAC-seq data is deposited at NCBI GEO and the accession number is GSE152596.

Chromatin Immunoprecipitation-sequencing (ChIP-seq) in embryos

We performed ChIP-seq as previously described Blythe and Wieschaus, (2015). We

collected and fixed ~100 embryos from each MTD-GAL4 and RNAi cross 0-2hr or 2-4hr after

egg lay. We used 3 ul of rabbit anti-CLAMP (Soruco et al., 2013) and 2 ul rat anti-ZLD (from C.

Rushlow lab) per sample. We performed three biological ChIP replicates for each protein (n=2),

genotype (n=3) and time point (n=2). In total, we prepared 36 libraries using the NEBNext Ultra

ChIP-seq kit (New England Biolabs) and sequenced libraries on the Illumina HiSeq 2500

sequencer using the 2x150-bp mode. ChIP-seq data is deposited at NCBI GEO and the

accession number is GSE152598.

Computational analyses

ATAC-seq analysis

Detailed ATAC-seq analysis pipeline code is provided as **Figure 2- supplementary file**

1. Prior to sequencing, the Fragment Analyzer showed the library top peaks were in the 180-

190bp range, which is comparable to the previously established embryo ATAC-seq protocol

(Haines, 2017). Demultiplexed reads were trimmed of adapters using TrimGalore (Krueger,

2017) and mapped to the *Drosophila* genome dm6 version using Bowtie2 (v. 2.3.0) with option -

X 2000. We used Picard tools (v. 2.9.2) and SAMtools (v.1.9, Li et al., 2009) to remove the

reads that were unmapped, failed primary alignment, or duplicated (-F 1804), and retain

properly paired reads (-f 2) with MAPQ >30. After quality trimming and mapping, the Picard tool

reported the mean fragment sizes for all ATAC-seq mapped reads is between 125-161bp. As

expected, we observed three classes of peaks: 1) A sharp peak at <100 bp (open chromatin); 2)

A peak at ~200bp (mono-nucleosome); 3) Other larger peaks (multi-nucleosomes).

ATAC-seq mapping stats are summarized in **Table 1 – Source Data 1.** After mapping,

we used Samtools to select a fragment size <= 100bp within the bam file to focus on open

chromatin. Peak regions for open chromatin regions were called using MACS2 (version 2.1.1,

Zhang et al., 2008). The peak numbers are summarized in **Table 1**. ENCODE blacklist was

used to filter out problematic regions in dm6 (Amemiya et al., 2019). DiffBind with the DESeq2

method (v. 3.10, Stark and Brown, 2019) was used to identify differentially accessible (DA)

regions **(Figure 2A)**. The DA and non-DA number were summarized in **Table 1.** We report

differentially accessible peak p-values from DiffBind in **Table 1 – Source Data 2.** We used

DeepTools (version 3.1.0, Ramírez et al., 2014) to generate enrichment heatmaps (CPM

normalization), and average profiles were generate in DeepStats (Gautier RICHARD, 2020).

Bigwig files generated by Deeptools bamCoverage (CPM normalization) is uploaded to IGV

(Robinson et al., 2011) for genomic track visualizations **(Figure 2B)**. Then, we used Homer (v

4.11, Givler and Lilienthal, 2005) for *de novo* motif searches **(Figure 2D)**. Visualizations and

statistical tests were conducted in R (R Core Team, 2014). Specifically, we annotated peaks to

their genomic regions using R packages Chipseeker **(Figure 2C,** Yu et al., 2015) and we

performed gene ontology enrichment analysis using clusterProfiler (Yu et al., 2012). Boxplot and

violin plots were generated using ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009) package. Intervene (Khan and

Mathelier, 2017) was used for intersection and visualization of multiple peak region sets **(Figure**

2E).

ChIP-seq analysis

Detailed ChIP-seq analysis pipeline code is provided as **Figure 4- supplementary file**

1. Briefly, we trimmed ChIP sequencing raw reads with TrimGalore (Krueger, 2017) with a

minimal phred score of 20, 36 bp minimal read length, and Illumina adaptor removal. We then

mapped cleaned reads to the *D. melanogaster* genome (UCSC dm6) with Bowtie2 (v. 2.3.0)

with the –very-sensitive-local flag feature. We used Picard tools (v. 2.9.2) and SAMtools (v.1.9,

Li et al., 2009) to remove the PCR duplicates. ChIP-seq mapping stats are summarized in **Table**

4 – Source Data 1. We used MACS2 (version 2.1.1, Zhang et al., 2008) to identify peaks with

default parameters and MSPC (v.4.0.0, Jalili et al., 2015) to obtain consensus peaks from 3

replicates. The peak number for each sample was summarized in Table 4. ENCODE blacklist

was used to filter out problematic regions in dm6 (Amemiya et al., 2019). We identified

differential binding (DB) and non-differential binding (non-DB) between MTD and RNAi samples

using DiffBind (v. 3.10, Stark and Brown, 2019) with the DESeq2 method **(Figure 4D-E).** The

DB and non-DB peak numbers are summarized in **Table 4**. Differential binding p-value from

DiffBind for all peaks were reported in **Table 4 – Source Data 2**. We used DeepTools (version

3.1.0, Ramírez et al., 2014) to generate enrichment heatmaps **(Figure 4A-B,** SES

normalization**)** and average profiles **(Figure 4H)**. Bigwig files were generated with Deeptools

bamCompare (SES normalization) and uploaded to IGV (Robinson et al., 2011) for genomic

track visualization **(Figure 4G).** We used Homer (v 4.11, Givler and Lilienthal, 2005) for *de novo*

motif searches and genomic annotation **(Figure 4F)**. Intervene (Khan and Mathelier, 2017) was

used for intersection and visualization of multiple peak region sets. Visualizations and statistical

tests were conducted in R (R Core Team, 2014). Specifically, we annotated peaks to their

genomic regions using the R package Chipseeker **(**Yu et al., 2015) and we did gene ontology

enrichment analysis using clusterProfiler (Yu et al., 2012). Boxplots and violin plots were

generated using the ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009) package **(Figure 4I and Figure 5)**.

ATAC-seq and ChIP-seq data integration

We first selected the top 6,000 ATAC-seq peaks based on the count per million value

rank from our ATAC-seq data or the ATAC-seq in Hannon et al. (2017). Then, we used Bedtools

(Quinlan and Hall, 2010) intersection tool to intersect peaks in CLAMP ChIP-seq binding regions

with CLAMP DA or non-DA peaks. Based on the intersection of the peaks, we defined 4 types of

CLAMP related peaks: 1) DA with CLAMP, 2) DA without CLAMP, 3) Non-DA with CLAMP, 4)

Non-DA without CLAMP **(Figure 3A, Figure 3-figure supplement 1A,** and **Table 2).**

Similarly, we defined ZLD related peaks by intersecting ZLD DA or non-DA peaks and

ATAC-seq datasets (Hannon et al., 2017; Soluri et al., 2020) from wildtype (wt) and *zld* germline

clone (*zld*-) embryos at the NC14 +12 min stage. Specifically, we defined four classes of

genomic loci for ZLD-related classes: 1) DA with ZLD, 2) DA without ZLD, 3) Non-DA with ZLD,

4) Non-DA, without ZLD **(Figure 3B** and **Table 2).** We used DeepTools (version 3.1.0, Ramírez

et al., 2014) to generate enrichment heatmaps (CPM normalization) and average profiles for

each subclass of peaks **(Figure 3A-B).** We used Homer (v 4.11, Givler and Lilienthal, 2005) for

de novo motif searches. Peaks locations in each CLAMP or ZLD-related category were

summarized in **Table2 - Source Data 1**.

ATAC-seq and RNA-seq data integration

We annotated genes near differential (down-DA) ATAC-seq peaks in R using

detailRanges function from the csaw package (Lun and Smyth, 2016). Then we used Intervene

(Khan and Mathelier, 2017) to overlap the genes near differentially accessible (DA) peaks with

differentially down-regulated genes identified by RNA-seq (Rieder et al., 2017).

ChIP-seq and RNA-seq data integration

To define strong, weak, and unbound genes close to peaks in CLAMP or ZLD ChIP-seq

data, we used the peak binding score reported in MACS2 -log10(p-value) of 100 as a cut off

value. We defined the following categories: 1) Strong binding peaks: score greater than 100; 2)

Weak binding peak: score lesser than 100; 3) Unbound peak: the rest of the peaks that are

neither strong or weak. Then, we annotated all peaks using Homer annotatePeaks (v 4.11,

Givler and Lilienthal, 2005). We then obtained the log2 fold change (MTD/clamp-i or wt/zld-) of

gene expression in the RNA-seq dataset for each protein binding group: CLAMP (Rieder et al.,

2017) or ZLD (Combs and Eisen, 2017). Boxplots and violin plots were generated using the

ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009) package **(Figure 4I** and **Figure 5)**.

Datasets

RNA-seq datasets from wild type and maternal *clamp* depletion by RNAi were from

GSE102922 (Rieder et al., 2017). RNA-seq datasets from wild type and *zld* germline clones

were from GSE71137 (Combs and Eisen, 2017). ATAC-seq data from wild type and *zld*

germline clones were from GSE86966 (Hannon et al., 2017). Processed ATAC-seq data

identifying differential peaks between wild type and *zld* germline mutations were from Soluri et

al., (2020).

Data accessibility for reviewers only

ATAC-seq (GSE152596) and ChIP-seq (GSE152598) are under GEO SuperSeries

GSE152613. To review GEO accession GSE152613:

Go to https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE152613

Enter token ihevsmiqnxexrod into the box

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, L.E.R., J.E.D. and E.N.L.; Methodology, J.E.D., L.E.R. and E.N.L; ChIP-seq

Experiment, L.E.R.; ATAC-seq Experiment, J.E.D.; Initial Analysis, W.J.III; Formal Analysis,

J.E.D.; Microscopy, immunostaining and smFISH: M.M.C. and G.D. Protein Expression: M.M.,

S.W., and N.L.F.; Gel-shift Experiment, A.H and J.E.D.; Investigation, J.E.D; Data Curation,

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DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Novel pioneer factor CLAMP is essential for early embryonic development

A. Control maternal *egfp* depletion (left), maternal *clamp* depletion (middle) and maternal *zld* depletion (right) syncytial blastoderm stage embryos probed using smFISH for the pair-rule patterning genes *run* (green) and *eve* (red). Embryos were co-labeled with Hoechst (blue) to visualize nuclei. Scale bar represents 10 µm. Quantification (%) of *eve/run* defected embryos is on the right, *p-value*s were calculated with the *Fisher's* Exact test; number of embryos is in parentheses.

B. Control maternal *egfp* depletion (left), maternal *clamp* depletion (middle) and maternal *zld* depletion (right) syncytial blastoderm stage embryos were assessed for integrity of the developing cytoskeleton using anti-NRT antibody (green) and Hoechst (blue) to label nuclei. Scale bar represents 10 µm. Quantification (%) of NRT defected embryos is on the right, *p-values* were calculated with the *Fisher's* Exact test; number of embryos is in parentheses.

C. Genome browser tracks for a region of the CES 5C2 locus (red bar is 500bp) used to make *in vitro* reconstituted nucleosomes (Urban et al., 2017). Locations of three CLAMP binding motifs are marked as black dots. CLAMP ChIP-seq normalized sequencing reads are shown in green. MNase-seq MACC scores (dark blue) show chromatin accessibility in S2 cells in control (*egfp-i*), *clamp*, and *msl2* RNAi treatment. The nucleosome profile (Nuc) is shown in purple. The dashed red rectangle highlights the genomic region (240bp) used to reconstitute nucleosomes *in vitro*.

D. Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) showing the binding of increasing amounts of CLAMP DNA-binding domain (DBD) fused to MBP to 5C2 naked DNA or 5C2 *in vitro* reconstituted nucleosomes (NUC). Concentrations (uM) of CLAMP DBD increase from left to right.

E. EMSA showing the binding of increasing amounts of full-length (FL) CLAMP (fused to MBP) to 5C2 DNA or 5C2 nucleosomes (NUC). Concentrations (uM) of CLAMP FL increase from left to right.

Figure 2. CLAMP regulates chromatin accessibility throughout early development

A. Differential accessibility (DA) analysis (left) of ATAC-seq from MTD embryos versus *clamp-i* embryos in 0-2hr or 2-4hr. Blue dots indicate non-differentially accessible sites (non-DA). Pink dots indicate significant ($p < 0.05$) differential peaks after maternal *clamp* RNAi, identified by DiffBind (DESeq2) (DA peaks). The number of peaks in each class is noted on the plot. Average ATAC-seq signal (right) in counts per million (CPM) reads in 0-2hr or 2-4hr embryos after maternal *clamp* RNAi centered on open chromatin (<= 100bp) peaks identified significant changes upon maternal *clamp* RNAi.

B. Example of IGV views of genomic locus encoding Mod(mdg4) bound by CLAMP (ChIP-seq) which shows significantly decreased CLAMP binding and ATAC-seq signal after *clamp* RNAi.

C. Genomic features of regions that require CLAMP for chromatin accessibility (ATAC-seq) compared with all CLAMP binding sites (ChIP-seq).

D. Top 4 motifs enriched in regions that require CLAMP for chromatin accessibility. Enrichment *p*-value and percentage of sequences are noted.

E. Venn diagram comparing CLAMP-mediated changes in down-regulated differential gene expression (DEG, mRNA-seq) and down-regulated differential accessibility (DA, ATAC-seq). *p*-value represents the significance (hypergeometric test, N= 15,682 total fly genes) of the overlap.

Figure 3. CLAMP-mediated chromatin accessibility is correlated with CLAMP and ZLD binding

A. Four classes of CLAMP-related peaks defined by combining ATAC-seq and CLAMP ChIP-seq peaks in 0-2hr MTD and maternal *clamp* RNAi embryos. Data is displayed as a heatmap of z-score normalized ATAC-seq (CPM) and ChIP-seq (log2 IP/input) reads in a 2 kb region centered around each peak. Peaks in each class are arranged in order of decreasing z-scores in control MTD embryos. Top three motifs called from each peak type by Homer are listed on the right.
Four types of peaks and number of peaks are marked on plot:
DA w/ CLAMP: differentially accessible region depends on CLAMP and has CLAMP binding.
DA w/o CLAMP: differentially accessible region depends on CLAMP and has no CLAMP binding.
nonDA w/ CLAMP: non-differentially accessible region and has CLAMP binding.
nonDA w/o CLAMP: non-differentially accessible region and has no CLAMP binding.

B. Four classes of ZLD-related peaks defined by integrating ATAC-seq (Hannon et al., 2017; Soluri et al., 2020) in nuclear cycle 14 (NC14)+12min wildtype (wt) and maternal *zld* RNAi embryos and ZLD ChIP-seq peaks in 0-2hr MTD and maternal *zld* RNAi embryos. Data is displayed as a heatmap of z-score normalized ATAC-seq (CPM) and ChIP-seq (log2 IP/input) reads in a 2 Kb region centered around each peak. Peaks in each class are arranged in order of decreasing z-scores in control wildtype or MTD embryos. Top three motifs called from each peak type by Homer are listed on the right.
Four types of peaks and number of peaks are marked on plot:
DA w/ ZLD: differentially accessible region depends on ZLD and has ZLD binding.
DA w/o ZLD: differentially accessible region depends on ZLD and has no ZLD binding.
nonDA w/ ZLD: non-differentially accessible region and has ZLD binding.
nonDA w/o ZLD: non-differentially accessible region and has no ZLD binding.

Figure 4. CLAMP and ZLD depend on each other for binding at a subset of sites

A. ZLD peaks in 0-2hr and 2-4hr MTD and maternal *clamp* RNAi embryos. Data is displayed as a heatmap of z-score normalized ChIP-seq (log2 IP/input) reads in a 2 Kb region centered at each peak. Peaks in each class are arranged in order of decreasing z-scores in control MTD embryos.

B. CLAMP peaks in 0-2hr and 2-4hr MTD and maternal *zld* RNAi embryos. Data is displayed as a heatmap of z-score normalized ChIP-seq (log2 IP/input) reads in a 2 Kb region centered around each peak. Peaks in each class are arranged in order of decreasing z-scores in control MTD embryos.

C. Genomic distribution fractions in promoters, UTRs, exon, intron and intergenic regions for CLAMP and ZLD peaks in the *Drosophila* genome (dm6) in 0-2hr and 2-4hr embryos (MTD, *clamp*-i and *zld*-i).

D. Differential bing (DB) analysis of ZLD ChIP-seq. Mean difference (MA) plots of ZLD peaks in MTD embryos versus *clamp*-i embryos in 0-2hr (left) or 2-4hr (right). Blue dots indicate non-differential binding sites. Pink dots indicate significant (FDR < 0.05) differential peaks

identified by DiffBind (DESeq2). The number of peaks changed in each direction is noted on the plot.

E. Differential bing (DB) analysis of CLAMP ChIP-seq. MA plots of CLAMP peaks from MTD embryos versus *zld*-i embryos in 0-2hr (left) or 2-4hr (right). Blue dots indicate non-differential binding (non-DB) sites. Pink dots indicate significant (FDR < 0.05) differential binding (DB) peaks identified by DiffBind (DESeq2). Number of peaks in each direction is noted on the plot.

F. Stacked bar plots of CLAMP and ZLD down-DB (left) and CLAMP and ZLD non-DB peaks (right) distribution fraction in the *Drosophila* genome (dm6) in 0-2hr and 2-4hr embryos.

G. Example IGV views of genomic loci: ChIP-seq in MTD and *zld*-i embryos at *Hbn* promoter region (upper panel) with CLAMP differential binding (down-DB) peak; *Fdl* (lower panel) with CLAMP non-differential binding (non-DB) peak at an intron. Peaks called by MACS2 are marked in dark grey (non-DB) and grey (down-DB). CLAMP and ZLD motifs are marked in green and orange respectively.

H. Average profiles of ChIP-seq signal in log2 (IP/input) show the size of down-DB or non-DB peaks of CLAMP in MTD versus *zld*-i embryos.

I. Box plot of the peak sizes in CLAMP and ZLD down-DB and non-DB peaks in 0-2hr and 2-4hr embryos. *p*-values of significant size difference between down-DB and non-DB peaks were calculated by Mann-Whitney U-test and noted on the plot.

Figure 5. CLAMP and ZLD function together in zygotic genome activation by mediating chromatin accessibility

A. Effect of maternal *clamp* RNAi on maternally-deposited (orange) or zygotically-transcribed (yellow) gene expression log2 (*clamp*-i/MTD) in 0-2hr (left) or 2-4hr (right). Maternal vs. zygotic gene categories were as defined in Lott et al. (2011). *p*-values of significant expression changes between maternal and zygotic genes were calculated by Mann-Whitney U-test and noted on the plot.

B. Gene expression changes caused by maternal *clamp* RNAi at genes with strong, weak, and no CLAMP binding as measured by ChIP-seq in 0-2hr (left) or 2-4hr (right) embryos. *p*-values of significant expression changes of CLAMP bindings were calculated by Mann-Whitney U-test and noted on the plot.

C. Gene expression changes caused by maternal *zld* RNAi (Combs and Eisen, 2017) at genes with strong, weak, and no ZLD binding as measured by ChIP-seq in 0-2hr (left) or 2-4hr (right) embryos. *p*-values of significant expression changes of ZLD bindings were calculated by Mann-Whitney U-test and noted on the plot.

D. Left: Gene expression changes caused by germline clone *zld*- (Combs and Eisen, 2017) at genes with CLAMP down-DB and non-DB that defined in wt vs. *zld*- 0-2hr and 2-4hr embryos. *p*-values of significant expression changes of CLAMP down-DB and non-DB were calculated by Mann-Whitney U-test and noted on the plot.

Right: Gene expression changes caused by maternal *clamp* RNAi (Rieder et al., 2017) at genes with ZLD down-DB and non-DB that defined in MTD vs. *clamp*-i 0-2hr and 2-4hr embryos. *p*-values of significant expression changes of ZLD down-DB and non-DB were calculated by Mann-Whitney U-test and noted on the plot.

E. Average profiles of ATAC-seq signal in CPM show chromatin accessibility at CLAMP down-DB (green line) and non-DB (grey line) sites in NC14+12min wt and *zld-* embryos (Hannon et al., 2017). Number of peaks are noted on the plot.

F. Average profiles of ATAC-seq signal in CPM show chromatin accessibility at ZLD down-DB (orange line) and non-DB (grey line) sites in 0-2hr (upper panel) or 2-4hr (lower panel) MTD and *clamp*-i embryos. Number of peaks are noted on the plot.

Figure 6. Model for how CLAMP and ZLD pioneer factor function together to define chromatin accessibility in early embryos

CLAMP and ZLD are two pioneer TFs which function cooperatively at promoters to open chromatin and regulate gene expression of genes encoding other key TFs. We defined CLAMP-related and ZLD-related peaks in early embryos, which revealed cooperative roles for CLAMP and ZLD in defining chromatin accessibility and zygotic transcription during ZGA:

DA, w/ CLAMP sites: CLAMP promotes ZLD enrichment at these sites where CLAMP binding increases chromatin accessibility and further regulates ZLD target gene expression. These sites are closed when maternal *clamp* is depleted.

Non-DA, w/ CLAMP sites: ZLD modulates chromatin opening at these sites that are bound by CLAMP but do not depend on CLAMP for chromatin accessibility. These sites remain open when maternal *clamp* is depleted.

DA, w/ ZLD sites: ZLD facilitates CLAMP binding to sites where chromatin accessibility is increased by ZLD and promotes CLAMP target gene expression. These sites are closed upon maternal *zld* depletion.

Non-DA, w/ ZLD sites: CLAMP opens chromatin at these locations which are bound by ZLD but do not depend on ZLD for their accessibility. These sites remain open upon maternal *zld* depletion.

Supplemental Figure Legends

Figure 1-figure supplement 1. Novel pioneer factor CLAMP is essential for early embryonic development

A. Expression of early zygotic genes (*even-skipped*, *runt,* and *neurotactin*) in in MTD and *clamp-i* embryos measured by RNA-seq (Rieder et al., 2017). Log$_2$ Fold Change and *p-value* were calculated using DESeq2.

B. Expression of mRNAs (*clamp* and *zld*) in MTD, *clamp-i* and *zld-i* embryos in 0-2hr and 2-4hr embryos measured by RT-qPCR. Log$_2$ Fold Change was calculated using the ΔΔCt method (Rao et al., 2013) and normalized to reference gene *pka*.

C. Western blot of CLAMP, ZLD and reference control Actin in MTD, *clamp-i* and *zld-i* embryos in 0-2hr and 2-4hr embryos. MTD: MTD-Gal4 line. *clamp-i:* MTD-Gal4-*clamp* mRNAi line, *zld-i:* MTD-Gal4-*zld* mRNAi line.

Figure 2-figure supplement 1. CLAMP regulates chromatin accessibility throughout ZGA

A-B. Pearson correlation heatmap of peaks dependent on CLAMP in MTD vs. *clamp-i* embryos at 0-2hr and 2-4hr time points.

C-D. GO terms for genes that require CLAMP for chromatin accessibility at 0-2hr and 2-4hr time points.

Figure2-supplementary file 1.html. ATAC-seq data analysis pipeline

Figure 3-figure supplement 1. CLAMP-mediated chromatin accessibility is correlated with CLAMP and ZLD binding

A. Four classes of CLAMP-related peaks defined by combining ATAC-seq and CLAMP ChIP-seq peaks in 2-4hr MTD and maternal *clamp* RNAi embryos. Data is displayed as a heatmap of z-score normalized ATAC-seq (CPM) and ChIP-seq (log2 IP/input) reads, in a 2 Kb region centered around each peak. Peaks in each class are arranged in order of decreasing z-scores in control MTD embryos. Top 3 motif called from each peak type by Homer was listed on the right. Four types of peaks and number of peaks are marked on plot:
DA w/ CLAMP: differentially accessible region depends on CLAMP and has CLAMP binding.
DA w/o CLAMP: differentially accessible region depends on CLAMP and has no CLAMP binding.
Non-DA w/ CLAMP: not differentially accessible region and has CLAMP binding.
Non-DA w/o CLAMP: not differentially accessible region and has no CLAMP binding.

B. CLAMP peaks in 0-2hr and 2-4hr MTD and maternal *clamp* RNAi embryos. Data is displayed as a heatmap of z-score normalized ChIP-seq (log2 IP/input) reads, in a 2 Kb region centered around each peak called in control MTD embryos. Peaks in each class are arranged in order of decreasing z-scores in control MTD embryos.

C. ZLD peaks in 0-2hr and 2-4hr MTD and maternal *zld* RNAi embryos. Data is displayed as a heatmap of z-score normalized ChIP-seq (log2 IP/input) reads, in a 2 Kb region centered around each peak called in control MTD embryos. Peaks in each class are arranged in order of decreasing z-scores in control MTD embryos.

Figure 4-figure supplement 1. CLAMP and ZLD depend on each other for chromatin binding

A. CLAMP (green) and ZLD (orange) peaks and shared peaks where both CLAMP and ZLD are present in 0-2hr and 2-4hr embryos. *p*-values represent the significance (hypergeometric test, N= 15,682 total fly genes) of overlap.

B. ZLD up-DB, down-DB and non-DB peaks in 0-2hr and 2-4hr MTD and maternal *clamp* RNAi embryos. Data is displayed as a heatmap of *z*-score normalized ChIP-seq (log2 IP/input) reads in a 2 Kb region centered around each peak. Peaks in each class are arranged in order of decreasing *z*-scores in control MTD embryos.

C. CLAMP up-DB, down-DB and non-DB peaks in 0-2hr and 2-4hr MTD and maternal *zld* RNAi embryos. Data is displayed as a heatmap of z-score normalized ChIP-seq (log2 IP/input) reads in a 2 kb region centered around each peak. Peaks in each class are arranged in order of decreasing z-scores in control MTD embryos.

D. Venn diagram showing the number of overlapping sites between ZLD and CLAMP down-DB or ZLD and CLAMP non-DB sites in 0-2hr and 2-4hr. *p*-values represent the significance (hypergeometric test, N= 15,682 total fly genes) of overlap.

E. Average profiles of ChIP-seq signal in log2 (IP/input) show the size of DB or non-DB peaks of ZLD in MTD versus *clamp*-i embryos.

Figure4-supplementary file 1.html. ChIP-seq data analysis pipeline

Figure 5 figure supplement 1. CLAMP and ZLD functioning together in zygotic genome activation via mediating chromatin accessibility

A. Density plot of gene expression shifts caused by maternal *clamp* RNAi at genes with strong, weak and no CLAMP binding as measured by ChIP-seq in 0-2hr (left) or 2-4hr (right) embryos.

B. Density plot of gene expression shifts caused by maternal *zld* RNAi (Combs and Eisen, 2017) at genes with strong, weak and no ZLD binding as measured by ChIP-seq in 0-2hr (left) or 2-4hr (right) embryos.

C. Percentage of CLAMP binding sites in 0-2hr and 2-4hr embryos distributed in maternal (n = 646), early (n = 69), mid-(n = 73), late- (n = 104), later (n = 74), and silent (n = 921) genes (peaks within a 1 Kb promoter region and gene body). Gene categories were defined in Li et al. (2014).

D. Percentage of ZLD binding sites in 0-2hr and 2-4hr embryos distributed in maternal (n = 646), early (n = 69), mid-(n = 73), late- (n = 104), later (n = 74), and silent (n = 921) genes (peaks within a 1 Kb promoter region and gene body). Gene categories were defined in Li et al. (2014).

E. Top three motifs called by Homer for CLAMP down-DB, CLAMP non-DB, ZLD down-DB, and ZLD non-DB peaks sites in 0-2hr and 2-4hr embryos.

Supplementary table captions

Table 1-Source Data1. Mapping statistics summary for ATAC-seq samples.

Table 1-Source Data2. ATAC-seq read counts in peak region in replicates of MTD and RNAi samples (DiffBind analysis).
Page 1. *clamp*-i vs. MTD in 0-2hr embryos.
Page 2. *clamp*-i vs. MTD in 2-4hr embryos.

Table 2-Source Data1. Peaks locations in each CLAMP or ZLD-related category.
Page 1 DA with CLAMP 0-2hr;
Page 2 DA without CLAMP 0-2hr;
Page 3 Non-DA with CLAMP 0-2hr;
Page 4 Non-DA without CLAMP 0-2hr;
 Page 5 DA with CLAMP 2-4hr;
Page 6 DA without CLAMP 2-4hr;
Page 7 Non-DA with CLAMP 2-4hr;
Page 8 Non-DA without CLAMP 2-4hr;
Page 9 DA with ZLD NC14+12 min;
Page 10 DA without ZLD NC14+12 min;
Page 11 Non-DA with ZLD NC14+12 min;
Page 12 Non-DA, without ZLD NC14+12 min.

Table 4-Source Data1. Mapping statistics summary for ChIP-seq samples.

Table 4-Source Data2. ChIP-seq read counts in peak regions in replicates of MTD and RNAi samples (DiffBind analysis).
Page 1. CLAMP ChIP-seq in *zld*-i vs. MTD in 0-2hr embryos;
Page 2. CLAMP ChIP-seq in *zld-i* vs. MTD in 2-4hr embryos;
Page 3. ZLD ChIP-seq in *clamp-i* vs. MTD in 0-2hr embryos;
Page 4. ZLD ChIP-seq in *clamp-i* vs. MTD in 2-4hr embryos.

Fig.1

Fig.2

A

0-2hr *clamp-i* vs. MTD

up=76
down=1,675

0-2hr *clamp-i* down DA

MTD
clamp-i

2-4hr *clamp-i* vs. MTD

up=260
down=1,192

2-4hr *clamp-i* down DA

MTD
clamp-i

B

Chr3   Mod (mdg4)

CLAMP binding

MTD 0-2hr
clamp-i 0-2
MTD 2-4hr
clamp-i 2-4

ATAC peak

MTD 0-2hr
clamp-i 0-2
MTD 2-4hr
clamp-i 2-4hr

Mod (mdg4)

C

clamp-i down ATAC peaks

- Promoter (67.34%)
- 5' UTR (0.3%)
- 3' UTR (1.79%)
- 1st Exon (0.3%)
- Other Exon (2.93%)
- 1st Intron (8.36%)
- Other Intron (8.72%)
- Downstream (<=300) (2.63%)
- Distal Intergenic (7.64%)

CLAMP binding peaks

- Promoter (29.08%)
- 5' UTR (0.96%)
- 3' UTR (6.26%)
- 1st Exon (0.48%)
- Other Exon (2.43%)
- 1st Intron (11.8%)
- Other Intron (27.72%)
- Downstream (<=300) (2.82%)
- Distal Intergenic (18.45%)

D

Motifs in *clamp-i* down ATAC peaks (0-2hr)

CLAMP (32%)
$p = 1e-141$

Zelda (11%)
$p = 1e-59$

DREF (9%)
$p = 1e-57$

GAF (37%)
$p = 1e-52$

Motifs in *clamp-i* down ATAC peaks (2-4hr)

CLAMP (53%)
$p = 1e-176$

GAF (57%)
$p = 1e-105$

GA-rich (37%)
$p = 1e-90$

UGA3 (7%)
$p = 1e-59$

E

clamp-i down 0-2hr

DA 1,569   106   DEG 629

$p = 0.0007$

clamp-i down 2-4hr

DA 1,043   149   DEG 991

$p = 1.67e-11$

Fig.3

Fig.4

Fig.2- figure supplement 1

Fig.3-figure supplement 1

0-2hr peaks in MTD

CLAMP 930 | 2,824 | ZLD 3,640

p = 0

2-4hr peaks in MTD

CLAMP 1,674 | 4,397 | ZLD 2,802

p = 0

D **0-2hr down-DB**

CLAMP 295 | 95 | ZLD 179

p = 2.02e-84

2-4hr down-DB

CLAMP 12 | 18 | ZLD 1,271

p = 8.1e-13

0-2hr non-DB

CLAMP 2,090 | 2,091 | ZLD 1,050

p = 0

2-4hr non-DB

CLAMP 4,006 | 3,322 | ZLD 2,333

p = 5.17e-114

B

ZLD peaks 0-2hr — MTD / *clamp-i*

ZLD peaks 2-4hr — MTD / *clamp-i*

up-DB
down-DB
non-DB

$\log_2$ (IP/input)

-1.0 center 1.0Kb

C

CLAMP peaks 0-2hr — MTD / *zld-i*

CLAMP peaks 2-4hr — MTD / *zld-i*

up-DB
down-DB
non-DB

$\log_2$ (IP/input)

-1.0 center 1.0Kb

E ZLD down-DB

MTD
clamp-i

$\log_2$ (IP/input)

-1.0 center 1.0Kb

ZLD non-DB

-1.0 center 1.0Kb