1

Prevalent binding of GATA2/3 and MSX2 on endogenous retrovirus-derived regulatory elements in human trophoblast stem cells

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Running Title: GATA2/3 & MSX2 bind ERV-derived TSC cis-elements

Abstract

The placenta is an organ with extraordinary phenotypic diversity in eutherian mammals. Recent evidence suggests that numerous human placental enhancers are evolved from lineage-specific insertions of endogenous retroviruses (ERVs), yet the transcription factors (TFs) underlying their regulation remain largely elusive. Here, by first focusing on MER41, a primate-specific ERV family previously linked to placenta and innate immunity, we uncover the binding motifs of multiple crucial trophoblast TFs (GATA2/3, MSX2, GRHL2) in addition to innate immunity TFs STAT1 and IRF1. Integration of ChIP-Seq data confirms the binding of GATA2/3 and MSX2 on the majority of MER41-derived enhancers in human trophoblast stem cells (TSCs). Notably, MER41-derived enhancers that are constitutively active in human TSCs are distinct from those activated upon interferon stimulation, which is determined by the binding of trophoblast TFs and their sub-family compositions. We further demonstrate that GATA2/3 and MSX2 have prevalent binding on numerous other ERV families – indicating their broad impact on ERV-derived placental enhancers. Functionally, the derepression of many syncytiotrophoblast genes after disruption of MSX2 is likely to be mediated by regulatory elements derived from ERVs – suggesting ERVs are also important for mediating transcriptional repression. Overall, this study characterized the prevalent binding of GATA2/3, MSX2 and their co-factors on ERV-derived regulatory elements in human TSCs and provided mechanistic insights into the importance of ERVs in human trophoblast regulatory network.

Introduction

Endogenous retroviruses (ERVs) make up ~8% of the human genome. ERVs originate from germline infection of exogenous retroviruses, which can then be vertically inherited and expanded in the host during evolution (Stoye 2012; Johnson 2019). The intact structure of ERVs includes the internal protein-coding genes (eg. *gag*, *pol and env*) flanked by Long Terminal Repeats (LTRs) at both ends, yet the internal genes frequently got lost via LTR recombination resulting in a high proportion of "solo-LTRs" left in the genome (Johnson 2019). ERVs have long been ignored as "junk DNA" - partly because most of them are epigenetically repressed (Sharif et al. 2016; Deniz et al. 2019; Wolf et al. 2020), yet accumulating evidence suggests that specific ERV families could be activated during embryonic development, tumorigenesis or immune response (Macfarlan et al. 2012; Chuong et al. 2016; Ito et al. 2020). Importantly, many ERV families are lineage-specific and rich of transcription factor binding sites (TFBSs) in their LTRs, therefore can be co-opted as cis-regulatory elements to boost the genetic novelty of the host (Chuong et al. 2016; Chuong et al. 2017; Senft and Macfarlan 2021; Sun et al. 2021; Buttler and Chuong 2022).

The placenta is a temporary organ crucial for nutrient/waste exchange, hormone secretion and maternal-fetus immune tolerance during pregnancy (Maltepe and Fisher 2015; Ander et al. 2019). Even though shared by all eutherian mammals, placentae are extraordinarily diversified in their shape, structure and cellular composition (Ramsey et al. 1976; Mossman 1987; Hemberger et al. 2020). At the molecular level, numerous genes have altered expression patterns in human placenta relative to rodents or even other primates (Rosenkrantz et al. 2021; Sun et al. 2021). Correspondingly, the enhancers of placenta are the least conserved across species compared with other tissues (Sun et al. 2021), with ERVs playing crucial roles for lineage-specific enhancer evolution. For example, comparison between mouse and rat trophoblast stem cells (TSCs)

indicates that the mouse-specific RLTR13D5 family creates hundreds of enhancers co-bound by

the core trophoblast transcription factors (TFs) Cdx2, Eomes and Elf5 (Chuong et al. 2013). The

functional importance of ERVs in primate placentae has also been analyzed recently. For example,

one primate-specific THE1B element creates an enhancer driving *CRH* expression to influence

gestation length (Dunn-Fletcher et al. 2018). Recent transcriptomic and epigenomic comparisons

for human, macaque and mouse placentae further identified dozens of ERV families that are

significantly enriched in human placental enhancers (Sun et al. 2021).

Despite the well-recognized importance of ERVs in the placenta, the transcription factors that

regulate ERV activation in the human placenta remain largely obscure. Previously we

demonstrated that the primate-specific MER41 is amongst the top most enriched ERV families in

human placental enhancers (Sun et al. 2021). MER41 has six sub-families including A/B/C/D/E/G

(Kojima 2018), that have been shown to play important roles in innate immunity (Buttler and

Chuong 2022). Multiple studies suggest that MER41 elements facilitate primate-specific innate

immunity evolution by creating hundreds of interferon (IFN)-stimulated cis-elements bound by

STAT1 and IRF1 (Schmid and Bucher 2010; Chuong et al. 2016). This raises the question of which

TFs mediate the activation of MER41-associated enhancers in placenta. We previously identified

Serum response factor (SRF) as one TF that binds dozens of MER41-associated enhancers (Sun et

al. 2021), including one adjacent to *FBN2*, a human-placenta-expressed gene crucial for cell

invasion (Yu et al. 2020). However, SRF only binds a relatively small percentage (~6%) of

MER41-associated enhancers, indicating the existence of additional upstream TFs. Uncovering

the regulators of ERV-associated enhancers will be crucial for an in-depth understanding of the

gene regulatory networks in human placenta.

In this study, we first determined a list of candidate TFs that potentially regulate MER41-associated enhancers, and then the binding of several crucial trophoblast TFs including GATA2/3 and MSX2 are validated by ChIP-seq data for human TSCs (Krendl et al. 2017; Hornbachner et al. 2021). Importantly, GATA2/3 and MSX2 have prevalent binding on numerous other families of ERV-derived enhancers – indicating their broad impact on ERV-associated enhancers. Overall, this study improves our understanding about the regulatory mechanism and function of ERV-associated enhancers in human placenta.

Results

Tissue-specific activation of MER41-associated enhancers in human placenta and trophoblast cells

The primate-specific MER41 family creates numerous lineage-specific enhancers in human placenta (Sun et al. 2021). To better characterize MER41-associated enhancers (hereafter abbreviated as MER41-enhancer), we examined the epigenetically-annotated enhancers in different human tissues and trophoblast cells. Re-analysis of ENCODE data (**Table S1**) demonstrates that multiple subfamilies of MER41 (A/B/C/D) are specifically enriched in the enhancers of placenta (as well as the chorion, a fetally derived extraembryonic membrane) relative to other human tissues (**Figure 1A, S1**). Furthermore, genes adjacent to MER41-enhancers have increased expression in human placenta relative to other tissues and mouse placenta (**Figure 1B, S2**), and some enriched GO terms (eg. endocytosis, chordae embryonic development) for MER41-enhancers are placenta-related (**Figure S3**). Through integration of published epigenomic data for different types of human trophoblast cells (Okae et al. 2018), we further annotated the enhancers for human TSC, syncytiotrophoblast (STB) and extravillous trophoblast (EVT) cells (**Figure S4**). MER41 elements are enriched in the enhancers for all three trophoblast cell types (**Figure 1C**).

Notably, hundreds of MER41-enhancers are specifically activated in one or two trophoblast cell types (**Figure 1D,E**), and their activity correlates with the transcription of at least some adjacent genes, such as *FBN2* (**Figure 1F**). Together, these results confirm the tissue-specific activation of MER41-associated enhancers in human placenta and indicate their potential regulatory effects on some adjacent genes.

Figure 1. Characterization of MER41-enhancers in different human tissues and trophoblast cells

(A) Enrichment of MER41 subfamilies in the epigenetically-annotated enhancers for different human tissues. **(B)** Relative to distal genes, higher proportion of MER41-enhancer adjacent genes have increased expression in human placenta relative to mouse. **(C)** Enrichment of MER41 subfamilies in the enhancers annotated for human TSC, STB and EVT. **(D)** Overlapping of the MER41-enhancers annotated for human TSC, STB and EVT. **(E)** Heatmap shows the H3K27ac and H3K9me3 intensity for the shared or cell-specific MER41-enhancers for different human trophoblast cells. **(F)** IGV tracks showing the transcriptomic and epigenomic profiles surrounding the representative MER41-enhancer adjacent to *FBN2*.

Identification of GATA2/3 and MSX2 as putative regulators of MER41-enhancers in human TSCs

To screen for candidate TFs that bind MER41-enhancers, we first determined the motif composition of MER41B consensus sequence and one representative MER41-enhancer adjacent to *FBN2*. Apart from several TFs (ie. STAT1, IRF1, SRF) already known to bind MER41 elements (Chuong et al. 2016; Sun et al. 2021), the binding motifs for dozens of other TFs are predicted (**Figure 2A,B**). Importantly, four of them, including GATA2/3, MSX2 and GRHL2, have placenta-enriched expression (**Figure 2C, S5**). Particularly, GATA2/3 are key pioneer TFs for human and mouse TSC specification (Home et al. 2017; Krendl et al. 2017; Paul et al. 2017) and MSX2 is essential in restraining STB gene expression in human TSCs (Hornbachner et al. 2021). Even though GRHL2 has not been analyzed in human placenta, it is known to regulate trophoblast branching morphogenesis in mice (Walentin et al. 2015). Therefore, motif prediction and transcriptomic analysis uncovered GATA2/3, MSX2 and GRHL2 as candidate trophoblast TFs that bind MER41-enhancers in human placenta.

Recent studies have profiled the genome-wide binding of GATA2/3 (together with TFAP2A/C which are collectively coined as the "trophectoderm four") and MSX2 (together with its co-factors ARID1A and SMARCA4) in human TSCs by using ChIP-Seq (Krendl et al. 2017; Hornbachner et al. 2021). Through re-analysis of these data, we demonstrate that GATA2/3 and MSX2 have substantially overlapped binding (**Figure 2D**), and all these TFs and co-factors have enriched binding on MER41-enhancers in human TSCs (**Figure 2E**). Notably, the majority (>60%) of placental MER41-enhancers are bound by GATA3 and MSX2 (and its co-factors ARID1A and SMARCA4), as indicated by both overlapping analysis and heatmap visualization (**Figure 2F,G**). The remaining TFs also have widespread binding on MER41-enhancers, even though of lower

Figure 2. Integrative analysis identified GATA2/3 and MSX2 as candidate regulators of MER41-enhancers in human TSCs

(A,B) Motif configurations of MER41B consensus (A) and one representative MER41-enhancer adjacent to *FBN2* (B) The motifs for several known (STAT1, SRF) and novel (GATA2/3, MSX2, GRHL2) TFs of MER41 are labelled in red color. **(C)** Expression profiles of the four TFs, including *GATA2/3*, *MSX2* and *GRHL2*, that have placenta-enriched expression. The color gradient indicates the column Z-score based on normalized TPM values. **(D)** Venn diagram showing the peak overlapping of GATA2/3 and MSX2. **(E)** Enrichment of MER41 subfamilies in the peaks for GATA2/3, MSX2 and co-factors. **(F)** Bar plots demonstrate the percentages of MER41-enhancers that are bound by GATA2/3, MSX2 and co-factors. **(G)** Heatmaps demonstrate the prevalent binding of GATA2/3, MSX2 and co-factors on MER41-enhancers in human TSCs.

frequency (**Figure 2F,G**). These results were further confirmed by manual inspection of a few

representative loci, such as *FBN2*, and *C1QTNF6* (**Figure S6**). Together, our integrative analyses

identified several crucial trophoblast TFs, including GATA2/3 and MSX2, as putative regulators

of MER41-enhancers in human TSCs.

Direct comparison of MER41-enhancers that are constitutively-active or IFN-stimulated in

human TSCs

Intrigued by previous findings that MER41 elements facilitate the evolution of lineage-specific

enhancers that are either constitutively activated in normal placenta (Sun et al. 2021) or interferon-

stimulated in different human cells (Chuong et al. 2016), we directly compared between placenta-

and immune-related MER41-enhancers using human TSC as model. For this purpose, we

performed transcriptomic and epigenomic (H3K27ac) profiling of human TSCs with or without

IFN-γ stimulation (**Figure 3A, Table S1**). As expected, IFN-γ stimulates hundreds of genes in

human TSCs which are highly associated with immune response (**Figure S7**). We next determined

thousands of IFN-stimulated enhancers (**Figure S8**) and further examined their overlap with

MER41 subfamilies. While MER41A/B/C are enriched with similar fold within constitutively-

active enhancers, MER41B is enriched within IFN-stimulated enhancers to a higher degree

(**Figure 3B**). Impressively, the constitutively-active enhancers – in contrast to IFN-stimulated ones

– are indeed unresponsive to IFN-stimulation (**Figure 3C,D**), and closer inspection of

representative loci adjacent to *FBN2* and *AIM2* confirmed their distinct IFN-response (**Figure**

3E,F). As expected, GATA2/3, MSX2 and co-factors bind the constitutively-active group with

higher frequency and intensity (**Figure 3G,H)**, partly explains why these MER41-enhancers are

activated in human TSCs without IFN-treatment. Together, substantial differences regarding the

subfamilies and TF binding exist between the placenta- and immune-related MER41-enhancers,

suggesting the functional divergence of MER41 elements during evolution.

Figure 3. Characterization and comparison of the MER41-enhancers that are constitutively-active or IFN-stimulated in human TSCs

(A) Diagram shows the IFNγ-stimulation related experiments in human TSCs. **(B)** Enrichment of MER41 subfamilies in the two groups of MER41-enhancers that are constitutively-active or IFN-stimulated in human TSCs. **(C,D)** Heatmaps show the H3K27ac intensity flanking the two groups of MER41-enhancers with or without IFNγ-stimulation. **(E,F)** Representative IGV tracks show the alterations of gene expression and H3K27ac occupancy flanking the MER41-enhancers adjacent to *FBN2* and *AIM2*, respectively. **(G)** Bar plots for the binding frequency of GATA2/3, MSX2 and co-factors on the two groups of MER41-enhancers. **(H)** Heatmaps show the binding intensity of GATA2/3, MSX2 and co-factors on the two groups of MER41-enhancers.

Prevalent binding of GATA2/3 and MSX2 on different families of ERV- enhancers in human TSCs

Given the enriched binding of the aforementioned trophoblast TFs on MER41-enhancers, we are eager to check if other families of ERV-associated enhancers are also bound by these TFs in human TSCs. Globally, GATA2/3, MSX2 and co-factors preferentially occupy ERVs; specifically, 30.0% and 23.8% of the peaks for GATA2 and GATA3 overlap ERV elements, which is remarkably higher than the 8.8% as expected in randomly shuffled peaks across genome (**Figure 4A**). We further examined their binding on each ERV family, and as expected, MER41A/B/C are among the top enriched (**Figure 4B**). Interestingly, dozens of other ERV families, such as LTR8, MER11A, MER4B, LTR5_Hs and MER4A1/D1/D/E, are also significantly enriched (**Figure 4B**). Notably, many of the enriched ERV families are primate- or even human-specific. Importantly, the ERV families enriched in TSC enhancers and in the peaks for GATA2/3 and MSX2 correlate well (**Figure 4C**), and correspondingly, 49.2% (7,637 out of 15,504) of the TSC enhancers that overlap ERVs are bound by GATA2/3 or MSX2 (**Figure 4D**). Indeed, the top enriched ERV families not only have global binding by GATA3 and MSX2, but also possess high intensity of H3K27ac marks (**Figure 4E**) – suggesting these ERV elements also form enhancers. Closer inspection further confirmed the binding of these TFs on one LTR8-associated enhancer adjacent to the imprinted gene *H19* (**Figure 4F**) and one MER11A-associated enhancer adjacent to *FSTL3* (**Figure 4G**) – these two genes are both tightly associated with placenta development and diseases (Fowden et al. 2006; Xie et al. 2018; Gong et al. 2021). Together, these results suggest that apart from MER41 elements, these core trophoblast TFs also have prevalent binding on many other families of ERV-associated enhancers – suggesting the broad involvement of these TFs and the bound ERV-associated enhancers in human TSCs.

Figure 4. Binding of GATA2/3 and co-factors on different families of ERV-associated enhancers in human TSCs

(A) Percentages of the peaks that binding ERV elements for GATA2/3, MSX2 and co-factors. **(B)** Enrichment of the top twenty ERV families that have enriched binding by GATA2/3, MSX2 or co-factors. These ERV families are selected based on the ranking according to the enrichment p-values against the TF peaks. **(C)** Correlation for the ERV enrichment in annotated enhancers vs. GATA2/3 and MSX2 peaks. **(D)** Comparison of the percentages of enhancers (w/wo ERV overlapping) that are bound by at least one TFs among GATA2/3 and MSX2. P-value calculated by Fisher's Exact Test is denoted. **(E)** Averaged profiles show the intensity of H3K27ac, GATA3 and MSX2 occupancy on the top ten ERV families that have enriched binding by GATA2/3, MSX2 and co-factors. **(F,G)** Representative IGV tracks show the epigenetic profiles and trophoblast TF binding near the LTR8- and MER11A-associated enhancers adjacent to *H19* and *FSTL3*, respectively.

MSX2 represses numerous STB-genes in human TSCs through the binding on ERV-associated regulatory elements

Despite the prevalent binding of GATA2/3 and MSX2 on ERV-associated enhancers, it should be noted that these TFs have distinct functions: while GATA2/3 are recognized as pioneer TFs in human TSCs for transcriptional activation (Krendl et al. 2017), MSX2 was recently identified as a transcriptional repressor to restrain the undesired expression of STB-genes in human TSCs (Hornbachner et al. 2021). Given that how ERV elements mediate the function of transcription repressors is rarely reported, in-depth analysis on the binding and function of MSX2 on ERV-associated enhancers is highly desirable. We found that MSX2 has enriched binding on dozens of ERV families, including MER41A/B/C, LTR8, LTR8B, MER21A, and LTR3A (**Figure 5A**). To clarify the function of MSX2 on ERVs, we compared the H3K27ac marks on the top ten enriched ERV families after the knockdown of MSX2. As expected, knockdown of MSX2 causes increased H3K27ac levels on the MSX2-bound ERV elements, yet the degrees of changes differ among ERV families (**Figure 5B**). For example, the H3K27ac level for LTR8B is increased more than three fold, while LTR3A is increased more moderately. These results suggest that MSX2 has a global repressive effect on the bound ERV-enhancers in human TSCs.

MSX2 is known to restrict the expression of STB-genes in human TSCs (Hornbachner et al. 2021). To uncover if ERV-associated cis-elements participate in this process, we determined the loci with significantly altered H3K27ac levels after knockdown of MSX2 (MSX2KD) for further analysis. The majority (2,519 out of 2,706) of these differential loci have increased H3K27ac levels (**Figure 5C**), and MSX2 peaks overlap 54.4% of those with increased H3K27ac – significantly higher than those with decreased H3K27ac (**Figure 5D**). Several ERV families are also significantly overrepresented within the MSX2-regulated cis-elements (defined as genomic

Figure 5. MSX2 restricts the expression of some STB-genes in human TSCs through the binding of ERV-derived enhancers

(A) Enrichment of ERV families within MSX2 peaks. The top 20 families as ranked by p-values are presented. **(B)** Averaged curves show the ChIP intensity of MSX2 and H3K27ac (WT vs. MSX2KD) flanking the MSX2-bound elements from the top ten ERV families. **(C)** MA-plot shows the differential H3K27ac peaks between WT and MSX2KD human TSCs. **(D)** Comparison of the MSX2-bound percentages between genomic loci with increased or decreased H3K27ac levels after MSX2KD. P-value calculated with Fisher's Exact Test is denoted. **(E)** Enrichment of ERV families within MSX2-bound loci that have increased H3K27ac levels after MSX2KD. **(F)** Comparison of the altered expression (MSX2KD vs. WT) across different groups of genes defined based on their association with MSX2-regulated enhancers. A threshold of less than 10 kb from TSSs was used to group genes. MSX2-regulated enhancers are further classified as two groups (ERV-derived or non-ERV-derived) based on their overlapping with ERV elements. P-values calculated from Two-sided Student's t-test are denoted. **(G,H)** Representative IGV tracks showing several LTR8B- or LTR8-derived enhancers that are likely mediating the MSX2-dependent repression of STB-genes, including *PSG1/3/4*, *DPEP2NB*, *DDX28* and *DYSF*.

loci that overlap MSX2 peaks and have increased H3K27ac levels in MSX2KD), including LTR8B,

HERVK3-int and LTR8 (**Figure 5E**). We further examined the genes adjacent to MSX2-regulated

cis-elements which are further classified as ERV-derived or non-ERV-derived, and as expected,

they both have increased expression after MSX2KD (**Figure 5F**). Manual inspection of the

canonical STB-genes repressed by MSX2 indicates that some are likely to be regulated through

ERV-derived cis-elements. For example, multiple *PSG* genes (PSG1/3/4/6/8/9) that get

derepressed in MSX2KD harbor LTR8B-derived cis-elements that underlie the regulation of

MSX2 (**Figure 5G, S9**). In addition, one LTR8-derived cis-elements between *DPEP2NB* and

DDX28, and another within *DYSF* are also likely regulated by MSX2 (**Figure 5H**). Together, these

results suggest that MSX2 restricts the undesired expression of many STB-genes in human TSCs

through ERV-associated regulatory elements.

Discussion

In eutherian mammals, the placenta is a transient organ characterized with extraordinary

phenotypic diversity (Gerri et al. 2020; Hemberger et al. 2020). At the molecular level, hundreds

of placental genes have lineage-specific expression (Dunn-Fletcher et al. 2018; Soncin et al. 2018;

Rosenkrantz et al. 2021; Sun et al. 2021), and many are driven by the fast-evolving enhancers

(Chuong et al. 2013; Sun et al. 2021). This study focused on endogenous retroviruses, a class of

transposons that are known to facilitate the lineage-specific evolution of placental enhancers in

both rodents and humans (Chuong et al. 2013; Sun et al. 2021). We recently demonstrated that

dozens of ERV families – many are primate-specific – create numerous human placental enhancers

(Sun et al. 2021), yet the underlying regulatory mechanism remains to be explored. Furthermore,

it is also highly desirable to delineate how ERV-associated enhancers participate in the trophoblast

gene network, which is under the cooperative regulation of many TFs – including some with

lineage-specific expression (Papuchova and Latos 2022). Starting with in-depth inspection of the primate-specific MER41 family followed by comprehensive analysis on candidate TFs and the entire ERVome, this study aims to better understand the regulation and function of ERV-associated enhancers in the human trophoblast regulatory network.

Our study was initiated by focusing on the primate-specific MER41 family, which is among the top enriched in human placental enhancers (Sun et al. 2021). MER41 elements also known to create thousands of interferon-stimulated enhancers to drive innate immunity evolution (Schmid and Bucher 2010; Chuong et al. 2016). Yet unlike immune-related MER41 elements which have already been well characterized, how MER41-associated enhancers are regulated in human placenta is still mystery. Interestingly, motif scanning indicates that MER41 harbors the binding motifs for multiple trophoblast TFs, including GATA2/3, MSX2 and GRHL2 which are important regulators for trophoblast lineage maintenance and development in human and/or mice (Ralston et al. 2010; Walentin et al. 2015; Home et al. 2017; Krendl et al. 2017; Rhee et al. 2017; Hornbachner et al. 2021). Impressively, integration of public data (Krendl et al. 2017; Hornbachner et al. 2021) verified that the majority (>60%) of MER41-enhancers are bound by GATA3 and MSX2 (and its co-factors ARID1A and SMARCA4), much more frequent than SRF which also binds dozens of MER41-enhancers (Sun et al. 2021). Therefore, the trophoblast TFs, particularly GATA2/3 and MSX2, are identified as promising regulators of MER41-enhancers in human TSCs. Functionally, it is tempting to speculate that, through the binding of GATA2/3, MSX2 and co-factors, MER41-enhancers particulate in the human trophoblast regulatory network.

While MER41 is among the top enriched in human placental enhancers, dozens of other ERV families are also highly enriched – therefore it is eager to see if they are regulated through the same set of TFs. Strikingly, we found that GATA2/3 and MSX2 have prevalent binding on

dozens of other families of ERV-associated enhancers, many are primate-specific (eg. LTR8,

MER4 and MER11) or even human-specific (eg. LTR5_Hs). Indeed, the ERV families frequently

bound by these TFs are well correlated with those enriched in TSC enhancers, suggesting

GATA2/3 and MSX2 have broad effect on ERV-associated TSC enhancers. Notably, GATA2/3

are generally recognized as transcriptional activators (Takaku et al. 2016; Krendl et al. 2017),

while MSX2 as a transcriptional repressor for STB genes (Hornbachner et al. 2021). In addition,

GATA2 and GATA3 are known to have functional redundancy in mouse placenta (Home et al.

2017). Therefore, the cooperation or even competition of these TFs in regulating ERV-associated

enhancers is expected. Currently, the molecular functions of these TFs have still not been

systematically compared. We expect that the combinatorial function of these TFs on the co-binding

loci – including ERV-derived ones – will be clarified through the knockout of each TF and the

manipulation of their binding motifs in representative cis-elements.

Even though GATA2/3 and MSX2 are most abundant in placenta, they also express and

function in a few other tissues or cell types. For example, GATA3 is also expressed in T cells (Wei

et al. 2011; Van de Walle et al. 2016) and mammary gland (Theodorou et al. 2013). So, why the

ERV-associated enhancers – which are frequently bound by these TFs – are preferably active in

placenta instead of other tissues? One possible reason is the unique epigenetic and chromatin

signatures owned by placenta. Unlike most other tissues which have global hyper-methylation,

placenta is abundant with partially methylated domains (Schroeder et al. 2013; Decato et al. 2017)

which are also featured by many tumors (Hansen et al. 2011). Mechanistically, it is speculated that

placenta and tumor share converged DNA methylation pathways that mediate the establishment of

such epigenetic features (Lorincz and Schubeler 2017). Given the well-recognized function of

DNA methylation for epigenetic repression, it is possible that many genomic loci (particularly

ERV-derived ones) are more accessible in the placenta relative to other tissues – thus could be

bound and activated easier in placenta. The derepression of ERVs has also been observed in

numerous types of tumors, presumably due to the attenuation of the epigenetic silencing (Chuong

et al. 2017; Ito et al. 2020). Therefore, it is possible that the prevalent binding of trophoblast TFs

on ERV-associated enhancers may also reply on the relatively relaxed epigenetic environment in

trophoblast cells. Apart from the epigenetic/chromatin environment, additional mechanisms, such

as the existence of specific co-factors, may also contribute to the tissue-specific binding and

regulation of ERV-associated enhancers by these TFs in placenta.

Most previous studies about ERV-derived enhancers focused on their activation, yet how

they mediate the function of transcription repressors is rarely reported. Aiming at mechanistic

insights into the involvement of ERVs for transcriptional repression, we performed in-depth

analysis on MSX2, which is known to be crucial in restraining the undesired expression of STB-

genes in human TSCs (Hornbachner et al. 2021). Interestingly, the knockdown of MSX2 resulted

in globally increased H3K27ac levels on the ERV-associated enhancers it bound, which suggests

that it has global repressive effect on the bound ERV-enhancers. Importantly, for the genomic loci

under the repression of MSX2, several ERV families are also significantly overrepresented. Genes

adjacent to MSX2-bound enhancers – no matter they are ERV-derived or not - usually have

increased expression after MSX2KD. Furthermore, some STB-genes are likely to be regulated

through ERV-derived enhancers, such as LTR8B-derived enhancers for multiple *PSG* genes, an

LTR8-derived adjacent to *DPEP2NB*, *DDX28* and *DYSF*. Therefore, MSX2 restricts the undesired

expression of many STB-genes in human TSCs through ERV-associated enhancers. These results

further suggest that through the recruiting of different transcriptional activators and repressors,

ERVs can be co-opted as a cis-regulatory module to mediate the accurate expression of associated

genes in the host.

Taken together, this study uncovered the prevalent binding of multiple trophoblast TFs,

particularly GATA2/3, MSX2 and their co-factors, on numerous ERV-derived enhancers in human

TSCs. Through comprehensive analysis on the links between ERV-derived enhancers, upstream

regulators and downstream targets, this study provides novel mechanistic insights into the

functional involvement of ERVs in the human trophoblast regulatory network.

Materials and methods

Human TSC culture and treatment

374 Human TSCs derived from human cytotrophoblast cells (Okae et al. 2018) were a gift from the

375 Okae lab. They were cultured in trophoblast stem cell medium (TSM), as described previously

376 (Sun et al. 2021). Interferon stimulation was performed by adding 1000U/mL of IFN-γ (PBL,

377 11500-2) into the culturing medium of human TSCs. After 24 hours, untreated and IFN-γ treated

378 samples were both collected for subsequent experiments.

RNA-Seq

Total RNA for human TSCs was extracted using RNeasy Micro kit (Qiagen, 74004) with on-

column DNase digestion, and then submitted for library construction by TruSeq stranded mRNA

sample preparation kit (Illumina). RNA-Seq libraries were sequenced as 75 bp paired-end reads

with HiSeq2500 (Illumina) platform.

Raw reads were trimmed with Trim Galore v0.6.4

(https://github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore). Transcript Per Million (TPM) values were

calculated with RSEM v1.3.2 (Li and Dewey 2011). To perform differential expression analysis,

we aligned trimmed reads to the reference genome (GRCh38 for human) using STAR v2.7.3

(Dobin et al. 2013), and then obtained gene-level read counts using the *featureCount* function from

subread v2.0.0 (Liao et al. 2013). At last, differentially expressed genes were identified using

DESeq2 v1.30.1 (Love et al. 2014) with the cutoff: FDR<0.05 and |log2Foldchange|>1.

ChIP-Seq

ChIP-Seq for human TSCs was performed following our previous study (Sun et al. 2021).

Chromatin fragmentation was performed using Diagenode Bioruptor Plus Sonicator. The antibody

for H3K27ac (Abcam, ab4729) is used. The amount of chromatin is 20 μg per reaction. ChIP-Seq

libraries were constructed using Takara SMARTer ThruPLEX DNA-Seq Kit (Takara, R400674),

and sequenced as 50 bp paired-end reads with HiSeq2500 (Illumina) platform.

Reads were trimmed with TrimGalore v0.6.4 and then aligned to the corresponding reference

genome (GRCh38 for human) using Bowtie v2.3.5 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012) with default

settings. PCR duplicates were removed using the *rmdup* function of samtools v1.13 (Li et al. 2009).

After confirming the data reproducibility, reads from biological replicates were pooled together

for further analysis. Peak calling was performed with MACS v2.2.6 (Zhang et al. 2008). The peaks

were further cleaned by removing those that overlap ENCODE Blacklist V2 regions (Amemiya et

al. 2019). Differential binding analysis was performed using DiffBind v3.4.11 (Ross-Innes et al.

2012) with settings: minOverlap = 1, summits = 400, method = DBA_EDGER.

Reference genome and annotation

Reference genome and gene annotation for human (GRCh38) were downloaded from the

ENSEMBL database (release 102) (Yates et al. 2020). Transposable element annotations were

downloaded from the RepeatMasker website (http://www.repeatmasker.org/) on May 27, 2016.

The clades for ERV families were obtained from the Dfam database (Hubley et al. 2016). Genome

mappability along the reference genome was calculated using the GEM-mappability program from

GEM (GEnome Multitool) suite (Derrien et al. 2012).

Gene ontology enrichment analysis

413 Gene ontology enrichment analyses for differentially expressed genes were performed using

414 Metascape (Zhou et al. 2019). Gene Ontology enrichment analyses for genomic regions (eg. peaks

415 and putative enhancers) were performed with GREAT (McLean et al. 2010).

Motif analysis

417 Motif scanning on MER41 consensus was performed using FIMO (Grant et al. 2011). Motif

418 occurrence on representative MER41 elements was retrieved directly from UCSC Genome

419 Browser (Lee et al. 2020).

Epigenetic-annotation of regulatory elements

421 Putative regulatory elements are defined based on histone modifications and genomic distribution.

422 Promoters are defined as H3K4me3 occupied regions, and enhancers as H3K27ac peaks that are

423 more than 500 bp from TSSs.

ERV enrichment analysis

425 To determine if certain ERV families are overrepresented within given genomic regions (eg.

426 enhancers or peaks), we adopted the *window* function of BEDtools v2.29.2 (Quinlan and Hall 2010)

427 to determine the enrichment fold and p-values by using Fisher's Exact Test. To control for Family-

428 Wise Error Rate, the calculated p-values were further adjusted with Bonferroni method.

Statistical analysis and data visualization

All statistical analyses were performed with R statistical programming language (Team 2020). Heatmaps for ChIP-Seq data were generated using DeepTools v3.5.1 (Ramirez et al. 2014). Heatmaps from gene expression clustering analysis were generated using pheatmap (https://github.com/raivokolde/pheatmap). RNA-Seq and ChIP-Seq tracks were visualized using IGV v2.11.1 (Thorvaldsdottir et al. 2013).

Data access

All raw and processed sequencing data generated in this study have been submitted to the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO; https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/) under accession number GSE209541.

Competing interest statement

The authors declare no competing interests.

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