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<u>Full Title:</u> Epigenetic reprogramming of a distal developmental enhancer cluster drives

SOX2 overexpression in breast and lung cancer

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ABSTRACT

Enhancer reprogramming has been proposed as a key source of transcriptional

dysregulation during tumorigenesis, but the molecular mechanisms underlying this

process remain unclear. Here, we identify an enhancer cluster required for normal

development that is aberrantly activated in breast and lung carcinoma. Deletion of the

SRR124–134 cluster disrupts transcription of the *SOX2* oncogene and dysregulates

genome-wide chromatin accessibility in cancer cells. Analysis of primary tumors reveals

a correlation between chromatin accessibility at this cluster and *SOX2* overexpression in

breast and lung cancer patients. We demonstrate that FOXA1 is an activator and NFIB is

a repressor of SRR124–134 activity and *SOX2* transcription in cancer cells, revealing a

co-opting of the regulatory mechanisms involved in early development. Notably, we show

that the conserved SRR124 and SRR134 regions are essential during mouse

development, where homozygous deletion results in the lethal failure of esophageal-

tracheal separation. These findings provide insights into how developmental enhancers

can be reprogrammed during tumorigenesis and underscore the importance of

understanding enhancer dynamics during development and disease.

INTRODUCTION

Developmental enhancers are commissioned during early embryogenesis, as transcription factors progressively restrict the epigenome through the repression of regulatory regions associated with pluripotency (Zhu et al. 2013; Hawkins et al. 2010) and the activation of enhancers that control the expression of lineage-specific developmental genes (Rada-Iglesias et al. 2011; Creyghton et al. 2010; Rubin et al. 2017). This establishes a cell type-specific epigenetic regulatory "memory" that maintains cell lineage commitment and reinforces transcriptional programs (Stergachis et al. 2013). As cells mature and development ends, developmental-associated enhancers are decommissioned, and the enhancer landscape becomes highly restrictive and developmentally stable (Stergachis et al. 2013). This landscape, however, becomes profoundly disturbed during tumorigenesis, as cancer cells aberrantly acquire euchromatin features at regions near oncogenes (Hnisz et al. 2013; Lovén et al. 2013) that are often associated with earlier stages of cell lineage specification (Stergachis et al. 2013). This "enhancer reprogramming" has been proposed to result in a dysfunctional state that causes widespread abnormal gene expression and cellular plasticity (Fu et al. 2019; Roe et al. 2017; Bi et al. 2020; Pomerantz et al. 2015; Lupien et al. 2008). Although the misactivation of enhancers has been suggested as a major source of transcriptional dysregulation (reviewed in Richart et al. 2021; Okabe and Kaneda 2021), it remains largely unclear how this mechanism unfolds during the progression of cancer. To study this process, we evaluated cis-regulatory elements involved in driving transcription during normal development and disease.

SRY-box transcription factor 2 (SOX2) is a pioneer transcription factor required for

pluripotency maintenance in embryonic stem cells (Avilion 2003; Chew et al. 2005),

involved in reprogramming differentiated cells to induced pluripotent stem cells in

mammals (Takahashi and Yamanaka 2006; Takahashi et al. 2007; Yu et al. 2007), and

acts as an oncogene in several different types of cancer (reviewed in Wuebben and

Rizzino 2017; Novak et al. 2019). During later development, SOX2 is also required for

tissue morphogenesis and homeostasis of the brain (Graham et al. 2003), eyes

(Taranova et al. 2006), esophagus (Que et al. 2007), inner ear (Kiernan et al. 2005), lungs

(Gontan et al. 2008), skin (Driskell et al. 2009), stomach (Francis et al. 2019), taste buds

(Okubo et al. 2006) and trachea (Que et al. 2009) in both human and mouse. In these

tissues, *SOX2* expression is regulated precisely in space and time at critical stages of

development, although in most cases the cis-regulatory regions that mediate this

precision remain unknown. For example, proper levels of *Sox2* expression are required

for the complete separation of the anterior foregut into the esophagus and trachea in mice

(Que et al. 2007; Teramoto et al. 2020; Chakraborty et al. 2023) and in humans (Zenteno

et al. 2006; Williamson et al. 2006; Chassaing et al. 2007), as the disruption of *Sox2*

expression leads to an abnormal developmental condition known as esophageal atresia

with distal tracheoesophageal fistula (EA/TEF) (reviewed in Brunner and van Bokhoven

2005; Que et al. 2006). After the anterior foregut is properly separated, *Sox2* expression

ranges from the esophagus to the stomach in the gut (Que et al. 2007; Francis et al.

2019), and throughout the trachea, bronchi, and upper portion of the lungs in the

developing airways (Que et al. 2009). Proper branching morphogenesis at the tip of the

lungs, however, requires temporary downregulation of *Sox2*, followed by reactivation after

lung bud establishment (Gontan et al. 2008). *Sox2* also retains an essential function in

multiple mature epithelial tissues, where it is highly expressed in proliferative and self-

renewing adult stem cells necessary for maintaining and replacing terminally

differentiated cells within the epithelium of the brain, bronchi, esophagus, stomach, and

trachea (Arnold et al. 2011; Que et al. 2009; Tompkins et al. 2009; Francis et al. 2019).

However, the expression of *SOX2* becomes repressed within terminally differentiated

epithelial cells in these tissues (Arnold et al. 2011).

As an oncogene, overexpression of *SOX2* is linked to increased cellular replication

rates, aggressive tumor grades, and poor patient outcomes in breast carcinoma (BRCA)

(Chen et al. 2008; Leis et al. 2012; Liu et al. 2018b; Meng et al. 2020; Piva et al. 2014);

colon adenocarcinoma (COAD) (Takeda et al. 2018; Talebi et al. 2015; Zhang et al.

2020b; Zhu et al. 2021); glioblastoma (GBM) (Alonso et al. 2011; Cox et al. 2012;

Gangemi et al. 2009; Hägerstrand et al. 2011); liver hepatocellular carcinoma (LIHC) (Sun

et al. 2013); lung adenocarcinoma (LUAD) (Chou et al. 2013; Sholl et al. 2010;

Nakatsugawa et al. 2011); and lung squamous cell carcinoma (LUSC) (Bass et al. 2009;

Hussenet et al. 2010). These clinical and molecular characteristics arise from the

participation of *SOX2* in the formation and maintenance of tumor-initiating cells that

resemble tissue progenitor cells, as evidenced by BRCA (Domenici et al. 2019; Piva et

al. 2014; Simões et al. 2011), GBM (Bulstrode et al. 2017; Gangemi et al. 2009; Jeon et

al. 2011; Zhang et al. 2020a, 24), LUAD (Singh et al. 2012), and LUSC (Boumahdi et al.

2014) studies. *SOX2* knockdown, on the other hand, often results in diminished levels of

cell replication, invasion, and treatment resistance in these tumor types (Bass et al. 2009;

Berezovsky et al. 2014; Chen et al. 2008; Chou et al. 2013; Fang et al. 2011;

Nakatsugawa et al. 2011; Piva et al. 2014; Stolzenburg et al. 2012). Despite the

involvement of *SOX2* in the progression of multiple types of cancer, little is known about

the mechanisms that cause *SOX2* overexpression during tumorigenesis. Two proximal

enhancers were once deemed crucial for driving *Sox2* expression during early

development: *Sox2* Regulatory Region 1 (SRR1) and SRR2 (Ferri et al. 2004; Tomioka

et al. 2002; Zappone et al. 2000). Deletion of SRR1 and SRR2, however, has no effect

on *Sox2* expression in mouse embryonic stem cells (Zhou et al. 2014a). In contrast,

deletion of a distal *Sox2* Control Region (SCR), 106 kb downstream of the *Sox2* promoter,

causes a profound loss of *Sox2* expression in mouse embryonic stem cells (Li et al. 2014;

Zhou et al. 2014a) and in blastocysts, where SCR deletion causes peri-implantation

lethality (Chakraborty et al. 2023). The contribution of these regulatory regions in driving

SOX2 expression during tumorigenesis, however, remains poorly defined.

Here, we investigated the mechanisms underlying *SOX2* overexpression in cancer.

We found that, in breast and lung cancer, *SOX2* is driven by a novel developmental

enhancer cluster we termed SRR124–134, rather than the previously identified SRR1,

SRR2, or the SCR. This novel distal cluster contains two regions located 124 and 134 kb

downstream of the *SOX2* promoter that drive transcription in breast and lung cancer cells.

Deletion of this cluster results in significant *SOX2* downregulation, leading to genome-

wide changes in chromatin accessibility and a globally disrupted transcriptome. The

SRR124–134 cluster is highly accessible in most breast and lung patient tumors, where

chromatin accessibility at these regions is correlated with *SOX2* overexpression and is

regulated positively by FOXA1 and negatively by NFIB. Finally, we found that both

SRR124 and SRR134 are highly conserved in the mouse and are essential for postnatal

survival, as homozygous deletion of their homologous regions results in lethal EA/TEF.

These findings serve as a prime example of how different types of cancer cells reprogram

enhancers that were decommissioned during development to drive the expression of

oncogenes during tumorigenesis.

RESULTS

Two regions downstream of *SOX2* gain enhancer features in cancer cells

SOX2 overexpression occurs in multiple types of cancer (reviewed in Wuebben and

Rizzino 2017; Novak et al. 2019). To examine which cancer types have the highest levels

of *SOX2* upregulation, we performed differential expression analysis by calculating the

$\log_2$ fold change ($\log_2$ FC) of *SOX2* transcription from 21 TCGA primary solid tumors (see

Supplementary Table S1 for cancer type abbreviations) compared to normal tissue

samples (Hoadley et al. 2014). We found that BRCA ($\log_2$ FC = 3.31), COAD ($\log_2$ FC =

1.38), GBM ($\log_2$ FC = 2.05), LIHC ($\log_2$ FC = 3.22), LUAD ($\log_2$ FC = 1.36), and LUSC

($\log_2$ FC = 4.91) tumors had the greatest *SOX2* upregulation ($\log_2$ FC > 1; FDR-adjusted

Q < 0.01; Figure 1A, Supplementary Table S2). As a negative control, we ran this same

analysis using the housekeeping gene *PUM1* (Krasnov et al. 2019) and found no cancer

types with significant upregulation of this gene (Supplementary Figure S1A,

Supplementary Table S3).

Next, we divided BRCA, COAD, GBM, LIHC, LUAD, and LUSC patients (n = 3,064)

into four groups according to their *SOX2* expression. Gene expression levels were

measured by RNA-seq counts normalized by library size and transformed to a $\log_2$ scale,

hereinafter referred to as $\log_2$ counts. Cancer patients within the top group (25% highest

SOX2 expression; $\log_2$ counts > 10.06) have a significantly ($P = 1.27 \times 10^{-23}$, log-rank test)

lower overall probability of survival compared to cancer patients within the bottom group

(25% lowest *SOX2* expression; $\log_2$ counts < 1.68) (Supplementary Figure S1B,

Supplementary Table S4). We also examined the relationship between *SOX2* copy

number and *SOX2* overexpression within these six tumor types. Although previous

studies have shown that *SOX2* is frequently amplified in squamous cell carcinoma (Bass

et al. 2009; Hussenet et al. 2010; Maier et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2021), we found that most

BRCA (88%), COAD (98%), GBM (91%), LIHC (94%), and LUAD (92%) tumors were

diploid for *SOX2*. In addition, BRCA (P = 0.011, Holm-adjusted Dunn's test), GBM (P =

$1.18×10^{-3}$), LIHC (P = 0.016), LUAD (P = 0.012), and LUSC (P = $2.72×10^{-11}$) diploid

tumors significantly overexpressed *SOX2* compared to normal tissue (Figure 1B,

Supplementary Table S5). This indicates that gene amplification is dispensable for driving

SOX2 overexpression in most cancer types.

We investigated whether the *SOX2* locus gains epigenetic features associated with

active enhancers in cancer cells. Enhancer features commonly include accessible

chromatin determined by either Assay for Transposase Accessible Chromatin with high-

throughput sequencing (ATAC-seq) (Buenrostro et al. 2013) or DNase I hypersensitive

sites sequencing (DNase-seq) (Boyle et al. 2008), and histone modifications including

histone H3 lysine 4 monomethylation (H3K4me1) and histone H3 lysine 27 acetylation

(H3K27ac) (Heintzman et al. 2007, 2009). To study gains in enhancer features within the

SOX2 locus, we initially focused our analyses on luminal A breast cancer, the most

common subtype of BRCA to significantly (P = 0.021, Tukey's test) overexpress *SOX2*

(Supplementary Figure S1C) (Hoadley et al. 2014; Berger et al. 2018). MCF-7 cells are a

widely used $ER^+/PR^+/HER2^-$ luminal A breast adenocarcinoma model (Soule et al. 1973),

which have been previously described to overexpress *SOX2* (Chen et al. 2008; Liang et

al. 2013; Ling et al. 2012; Stolzenburg et al. 2012). After confirming that *SOX2* is one of

the most upregulated genes in MCF-7 cells ($\log_2$ FC = 10.75; FDR-adjusted Q = $2.20×10^{-36}$

[36]; Supplementary Figure S1D, Supplementary Table S6) compared to normal breast

epithelium (Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium et al. 2015), we contrasted their

chromatin accessibility and histone modifications (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012).

By intersecting 1,500 bp regions that contain at least 500 bp overlap between H3K27ac

and ATAC-seq peaks, we found that 19 putative enhancers gained ($\log_2$ FC > 1) both

these features within ± 1 Mb from the *SOX2* transcription start site (TSS) in MCF-7 cells

(Figure 1C, Supplementary Table S7). Besides the *SOX2* promoter (pSOX2), we

identified a downstream cluster containing two regions that have gained the highest

ATAC-seq and H3K27ac signal in MCF-7 cells: SRR124 (124 kb downstream of pSOX2)

and SRR134 (134 kb downstream of pSOX2). The previously described SRR1, SRR2

(Ferri et al. 2004; Tomioka et al. 2002; Zappone et al. 2000), and the human ortholog of

the mouse SCR (hSCR) (Li et al. 2014; Zhou et al. 2014a), however, lacked substantial

gains in enhancer features within MCF-7 cells.

Alongside gains in chromatin features, another characteristic of active enhancers is

the binding of numerous (> 10) transcription factors (Chen et al. 2012; Mitchell et al. 2012;

Singh et al. 2021). Chromatin Immunoprecipitation Sequencing (ChIP-seq) data from

ENCODE (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012) on 117 transcription factors revealed 48

different factors present at the SRR124–134 cluster in MCF-7 cells, with the majority (47)

of these factors present at SRR134 (Figure 1D). Transcription factors bound at both

SRR124 and SRR134 include CEBPB, CREB1, FOXA1, FOXM1, NFIB, NR2F2, TCF12,

and ZNF217. An additional feature of distal enhancers is that they contact their target

genes through long-range chromatin interactions (Tolhuis et al. 2002; Carter et al. 2002).

Chromatin Interaction Analysis by Paired-End-Tag sequencing (ChIA-PET) (Fullwood et

al. 2009) showed two interesting RNA Polymerase II (RNAPII)-mediated chromatin

interactions in MCF-7 cells: one between the *SOX2* gene and SRR134, and one between

SRR124 and SRR134 (Figure 1E). Beyond MCF-7 cells, we found that H520 (LUSC),

PC-9 (LUAD), and T47D (luminal A BRCA) cancer cell lines, which display varying levels

of *SOX2* expression (Supplementary Figure S1E), also gained substantial enhancer

features at SRR124 and SRR134 when compared to normal tissue (Figure 1E) (ENCODE

Project Consortium 2012; Chan et al. 2018; Sato et al. 2019; Gopi and Kidder 2021).

Together, these data suggest SRR124 and SRR134 could be active enhancers driving

SOX2 transcription in BRCA, LUAD, and LUSC.

Figure 1: A cluster 124–134 kilobases downstream of *SOX2* gains enhancer

features in cancer cells. (A) Super-logarithmic RNA-seq volcano plot of *SOX2*

expression from 21 cancer types compared to normal tissue (Hoadley et al. 2014). Cancer

types with $\log_2$ FC > 1 and FDR-adjusted *Q* < 0.01 were considered to significantly

overexpress *SOX2*. Error bars: standard deviation. **(B)** *SOX2* $\log_2$-normalized expression

($\log_2$ counts) associated with the *SOX2* copy number from BRCA (n = 1174), COAD (n =

483), GBM (n = 155), LIHC (n = 414), LUAD (n = 552), and LUSC (n = 546) patient tumors

(Hoadley et al. 2014). RNA-seq reads were normalized to library size using DESeq2

(Love et al. 2014). Error bars: standard deviation. Significance analysis by Dunn's test

(Dunn 1964) with Holm correction (Holm 1979). **(C)** 1,500 bp genomic regions within ± 1

Mb from the *SOX2* transcription start site (TSS) that gained enhancer features in MCF-7

cells (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012) compared to normal breast epithelium

(Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium et al. 2015). Regions that gained both ATAC-seq

and H3K27ac ChIP-seq signal above our threshold ($\log_2$ FC > 1, dashed line) are

highlighted in pink. Each region was labelled according to their distance in kilobases (kb)

to the *SOX2* promoter (pSOX2, bolded). **(D)** ChIP-seq signal for H3K4me1 and H3K27ac,

ATAC-seq signal, and transcription factor ChIP-seq peaks at the SRR124–134 cluster in

MCF-7 cells. Datasets from ENCODE (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012)**. (E)** UCSC

Genome Browser (Kent et al. 2002) display of H3K4me1 and H3K27ac ChIP-seq signal,

DNAse-seq and ATAC-seq chromatin accessibility signal, and ChIA-PET RNA

Polymerase II (RNAPII) interactions around the *SOX2* gene within breast (normal tissue

and 2 BRCA cancer cell lines) and lung (normal tissue, one LUAD, and one LUSC cancer

cell lines) samples (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012; Chan et al. 2018; Sato et al.

2019; Gopi and Kidder 2021). Relevant RNAPII interactions (between SRR124 and

SRR134, and between SRR134 and pSOX2) are highlighted in maroon.

The SRR124–134 cluster is essential for *SOX2* expression in BRCA and LUAD cells

To assess SRR124 and SRR134 enhancer activity alongside the embryonic-

associated SRR1, SRR2, and hSCR regions, we used a reporter vector containing the

firefly luciferase gene under the control of a minimal promoter (minP, pGL4.23). We

transfected each enhancer construct into the BRCA (MCF-7, T47D), LUAD (PC-9), and

LUSC (H520) cell lines and measured luciferase activity as a relative fold change (FC)

compared to the empty minP vector. SRR134 demonstrated the strongest enhancer

activity, with the MCF-7 (FC = 6.42; $P < 2 \times 10^{-16}$, Dunnett's test), T47D (FC = 3.36; $P =$

9.34×10^{-10}), H520 (FC = 2.37; $P = 1.22 \times 10^{-6}$), and PC-9 (FC = 2.03; $P = 9.79 \times 10^{-5}$) cell

lines displaying a significant increase in luciferase activity compared to minP (Figure 2A).

SRR124 also showed a modest, significant increase in luciferase activity compared to

minP in the MCF-7 (FC = 1.53; P = 4.27×10^{-2}), T47D (FC = 1.80; P = 4.57×10^{-2}), and PC-

9 (FC = 1.60; P = 4.27×10^{-2}) cell lines. The SRR1, SRR2, and hSCR enhancers, however,

showed no significant enhancer activity (P > 0.05) in all four cell lines.

Although reporter assays can be used to assess enhancer activity, enhancer

knockout approaches remain the current gold standard method for enhancer validation

(Moorthy et al. 2017; Tobias et al. 2021). To investigate whether the SRR124–134 cluster

drives *SOX2* expression in cancer cells, we used CRISPR/Cas9 to delete this cluster from

breast (MCF-7, T47D) and lung (H520, PC-9) cancer cell lines. RT-qPCR showed that

homozygous SRR124–134 deletion (ΔENH$^{-/-}$) causes a profound (> 99.5%) and

significant (P < 0.001, Dunnett's test) loss of *SOX2* expression in both the MCF-7 and

PC-9 cell lines (Figure 2B). Immunoblot analysis confirmed the depletion of the SOX2

protein in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells (Supplementary Figure S2A). Heterozygous SRR124–

134 deletion (ΔENH$^{+/-}$) also significantly (P < 0.001) reduced *SOX2* expression by ~60%

in both MCF-7 and PC-9 cells (Figure 2B). Although we were unable to isolate a

homozygous deletion clone from T47D cells, multiple independent heterozygous ΔENH$^{+/-}$

T47D clonal isolates also showed a significant downregulation (>50%; P < 0.001) in *SOX2*

expression (Figure 2C). Interestingly, we did not find a significant (P > 0.05) impact on

SOX2 expression in ΔENH$^{+/-}$ or ΔENH$^{-/-}$ H520 cells (Supplementary Figure S2B), which

indicates that *SOX2* transcription is sustained by a different mechanism in these cells. To

assess the impact of the loss of *SOX2* expression in the tumor initiation capacity of

enhancer-deleted cells, we performed a colony formation assay with MCF-7 and PC-9

ΔENH$^{-/-}$ cells. We found that both MCF-7 (P = 3.53×10^{-4}, t-test) and PC-9 (P = 1.26×10^{-}

^{5}) ΔENH$^{-/-}$ cells showed a significant decrease (> 50%) in their ability to form colonies

compared to WT cells (Figure 2D), further indicating that SRR124–134-driven *SOX2*

overexpression is required to sustain high tumor initiation capacity in BRCA and LUAD.

Next, we performed total RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) to measure changes in the

transcriptome of ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells compared to WT MCF-7 cells. As expected, all

three replicates of each genotype clustered together (Supplementary Figure S2C). In

addition to *SOX2* downregulation (Figure 2E), differential expression analysis showed a

total of 529 genes differentially ($|\log_2 FC| > 1$; FDR-adjusted $Q < 0.01$) expressed in

ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells (Figure 2F, Supplementary Table S8). From these, 312 genes

significantly lost expression (59%), whereas 217 (41%) genes significantly gained

expression in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells compared to WT MCF-7 cells (Supplementary Figure

S2D). *SOX2* was the gene with the highest loss in expression ($\log_2 FC = -10.24$; $Q =$

1.23×10^{-43}) in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells, followed by *CT83* ($\log_2 FC = -8.43$; $Q = 1.07 \times 10^{-8}$),

and *GUCY1A1* ($\log_2 FC = -6.96$; $Q = 5.09 \times 10^{-15}$). On the other hand, genes with the most

significant gain in expression within ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells included the protocadherins

PCDH7 ($\log_2 FC = 5.34$; $Q < 1 \times 10^{-200}$), *PCDH10* ($\log_2 FC = 5.29$; $Q < 1 \times 10^{-200}$), and

PCDH11X ($\log_2 FC = 4.73$; $Q = 9.29 \times 10^{-110}$). In addition, deletion of the SRR124–134

cluster reduced *SOX2* expression back to the levels found in normal breast epithelium (*P*

$= 0.48$, Tukey's test) (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012; Roadmap Epigenomics

Consortium et al. 2015) (Figure 2G). Together, these data confirm that the SRR124–134

cluster drives *SOX2* overexpression in BRCA and LUAD.

Figure 2: The SRR124–134 cluster drives *SOX2* overexpression in MCF-7, PC-9, and

T47D cells. (A) Enhancer reporter assay comparing luciferase activity driven by the

SRR1, SRR2, SRR124, SRR134, and hSCR regions to an empty vector containing only

a minimal promoter (minP). Enhancer constructs were assayed in the BRCA (MCF-7,

T47D), LUAD (PC-9), and LUSC (H520) cell lines. Dashed line: average activity of minP.

Error bars: standard deviation. Significance analysis by Dunnett's test (n = 5; * P < 0.05,

*** P < 0.001, ns: not significant) (Dunnett 1955). **(B)** RT-qPCR analysis of *SOX2*

transcript levels in SRR124–134 heterozygous- (ΔENH$^{+/-}$) and homozygous- (ΔENH$^{-/-}$)

deleted MCF-7 (BRCA) and PC-9 (LUAD) clones compared to WT cells. Error bars:

standard deviation. Significance analysis by Dunnett's test (n = 3; *** P < 0.001). **(C)** RT-

qPCR analysis of *SOX2* transcript levels in three independent SRR124–134

heterozygous-deleted (ΔENH$^{+/-}$) T47D clonal isolates compared to WT cells. Error bars:

standard deviation. Significance analysis by Dunnett's test (n = 4; *** P < 0.001). **(D)**

Crystal violet absorbance (570 nm) from a colony formation assay with WT and ΔENH$^{-/-}$

MCF-7 and PC-9 cells. Total absorbance was normalized to the average absorbance from

WT cells within each cell line. Significance analysis by t-test with Holm correction (n = 5;

*** P < 0.001). **(E)** UCSC Genome Browser (Kent et al. 2002) view of the SRR124–134

cluster deletion in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells with RNA-seq tracks from normal breast

epithelium (Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium et al. 2015), WT and ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7

cells. Arrow: reduction in RNA-seq signal at the *SOX2* gene in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells. **(F)**

Volcano plot with DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014, 2) differential expression analysis between

ΔENH$^{-/-}$ and WT MCF-7 cells. Blue: 312 genes that significantly lost expression (log$_2$ FC

< -1; FDR-adjusted Q < 0.01) in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells. Pink: 217 genes that significantly

gained expression (log$_2$ FC > 1; Q < 0.01) in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells. Grey: 35,891 genes

that maintained similar (-1 ≤ log$_2$ FC ≤ 1) expression between ΔENH$^{-/-}$ and WT MCF-7

cells. **(G)** Comparison of *SOX2* transcript levels between WT MCF-7 and either ΔENH⁻/⁻

MCF-7 or normal breast epithelium cells (Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium et al. 2015),

and between ΔENH⁻/⁻ MCF-7 and normal breast epithelium cells. RNA-seq reads were

normalized to library size using DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014). Error bars: standard deviation.

Significance analysis by Tukey's test (*** $P < 0.001$, ns: not significant) (Tukey 1949).

SOX2 regulates pathways associated with epithelium development in luminal A

BRCA

Because SOX2 regulates cell proliferation and differentiation pathways in other

epithelial cells (Tompkins et al. 2009, 2011), we decided to further investigate the

molecular function of SOX2 in luminal A BRCA cells by utilizing our *SOX2*-depleted

ΔENH⁻/⁻ MCF-7 cell model. Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) showed a significant

(FDR-adjusted $Q < 0.05$) depletion of multiple epithelium-associated processes within the

transcriptome of ΔENH⁻/⁻ MCF-7 cells, as indicated by the normalized enrichment score

[NES] < 1 (Supplementary Table S9). These processes included epidermis development

(NES = -1.93; $Q = 0.001$; Figure 3A), epithelial cell differentiation (NES = -1.67; $Q = 0.007$;

Figure 3B), and cornification (NES = -2.11; $Q = 0.006$; Figure 3C). This suggests that

SOX2 regulates epithelial development and differentiation in luminal A BRCA cells.

SOX2 is a pioneer transcription factor that associates with its motif in

heterochromatin (Soufi et al. 2012) and recruits chromatin-modifying complexes (Soufi et

al. 2015) in embryonic and reprogrammed stem cells. We performed ATAC-seq in ΔENH⁻

/⁻ MCF-7 cells and compared chromatin accessibility to WT MCF-7 cells to identify

genome-wide loci that are dependent on SOX2 to remain accessible in luminal A BRCA.

As expected, the ATAC-seq signal from all replicates was highly enriched around gene

TSS (Supplementary Figure S3A), with both WT and ΔENH$^{-/-}$ samples having higher

chromatin accessibility at the TSS of highly expressed genes (Supplementary Figure S3B

and Supplementary Figure S3C). Correlation analysis also confirmed the clustering of all

three replicates from each genotype (Supplementary Figure S3D). Including the

SRR124–134 cluster and pSOX2 (Figure 3D), a total of 3,076 500-bp regions had

significant ($|\log_2 FC| > 1$; FDR-adjusted $Q < 0.01$) changes in chromatin accessibility in

ΔENH$^{-/-}$ compared to WT MCF-7 cells (Figure 3E, Supplementary Table S10). Most

regions (86%, 2,636 regions) significantly lost chromatin accessibility in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7

cells and 76% (2,024 regions) of these regions also gained chromatin accessibility in WT

MCF-7 compared to normal breast epithelium (Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium et al.

2015) (Supplementary Table S11). Together, this indicates that SOX2 has an important

role in regulating the chromatin accessibility changes acquired in luminal A BRCA.

We used TOBIAS (Bentsen et al. 2020) to analyze changes in transcription factor

footprints within ATAC-seq peaks in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ compared to WT MCF-7 cells. From 841

vertebrate motifs (Castro-Mondragon et al. 2022), we found a total of 281 motifs with a

significant ($|\log_2 FC| > 0.1$; FDR-adjusted $Q < 0.01$) differential binding score (Figure 3F,

Supplementary Table S12). Most of these motifs (97%, 272 motifs) were

underrepresented within ATAC-seq peaks in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ compared to WT MCF-7 cells,

indicating that reduced *SOX2* expression affects the binding of multiple other transcription

factors. Among them, the GRHL1 ($\log_2 FC = -0.519$; $Q = 3\times10^{-179}$), TFCP2 ($\log_2 FC = -$

0.462; $Q = 1.03\times10^{-172}$), RUNX2 ($\log_2 FC = -0.352$; $Q = 8.02\times10^{-164}$), GRHL2 ($\log_2 FC = -$

0.343; $Q = 4.43\times10^{-174}$), TEAD3 ($\log_2 FC = -0.235$; $Q = 9.74\times10^{-155}$), and SOX4 ($\log_2 FC$

= -0.232; Q = 5.33×10^{-167}) motifs (Figure 3G) had the most reduced binding score in

ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells compared to WT MCF-7 cells. These factors belong to three main

JASPAR (Castro-Mondragon et al. 2022) motif clusters: GRHL/TFCP (cluster 33;

aaAACAGGTTtcAgtt), RUNX (cluster 60; ttctTGtGGTTttt), TEAD (cluster 2;

tccAcATTCCAggcCTTta), and SOX (cluster 8; acggaACAATGgaagTGTT). The SOX

cluster also included the SOX2 (log$_2$ FC = -0.175; Q = 6.61×10^{-139}) motif.

Next, we aimed to analyze ChIP-seq data from transcription factors within these

motif clusters in MCF-7 cells. We utilized two published datasets: GRHL2 (Cocce et al.

2019) and RUNX2 (Jeselsohn et al. 2017). Regions that lost (log$_2$ FC < -1; Q < 0.01)

chromatin accessibility in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells significantly (P < 2×10^{-16}, hypergeometric

test) overlapped regions with binding of either of these transcription factors. Among the

2,636 regions that lost chromatin accessibility, 40% (750 regions) also show GRHL2

binding (Supplementary Figure S3E), whereas 21% (552 regions) share RUNX2 binding

(Supplementary Figure S3F). In addition, we found multiple SOX motifs significantly

(FDR-adjusted Q < 0.001) enriched within peaks from both GRHL2 (Supplementary Table

S13) and RUNX2 (Supplementary Table S14) ChIP-seq datasets, further suggesting that

SOX2 collaborates with GRHL2 and RUNX2 to maintain chromatin accessibility in luminal

A BRCA. Expression levels of either *GRHL2* or *RUNX2*, however, were not significantly

affected by *SOX2* downregulation in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells (-1 ≤ log$_2$ FC ≤ 1;

Supplementary Table S8), indicating that they are not directly regulated by SOX2 at the

transcriptional level but may interact at the protein level.

Figure 3: *SOX2* downregulation impacts chromatin accessibility in luminal A BRCA.

(A – C) Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) in the transcriptome of ΔENH$^{-/-}$ compared to WT MCF-7 cells. Genes were ranked according to their change in expression (log$_2$ FC). A subset of GO terms significantly enriched among downregulated genes in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells are displayed, indicated by the normalized enrichment score (NES) < 1: **(A)** epidermis development, **(B)** epithelial cell differentiation, and **(C)** cornification. GSEA was performed using clusterProfiler (Yu et al. 2012) with an FDR-adjusted *Q* < 0.05 threshold. Green line: running enrichment score. **(D)** UCSC Genome Browser (Kent et al. 2002) view of the SRR124–134 deletion in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells with ATAC-seq tracks from breast epithelium (Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium et al. 2015), WT, and ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells. **(E)** Volcano plot with differential ATAC-seq analysis of ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells compared to WT. Blue: 2,638 regions that lost (log$_2$ FC < -1; FDR-adjusted *Q* < 0.01) chromatin accessibility in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells. Pink: 440 regions that gained (log$_2$ FC > 1; *Q* < 0.01) chromatin accessibility in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells. Grey: 132,726 regions that retained chromatin accessibility in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells (-1 ≤ log$_2$ FC ≤ 1). Regions were labelled with their closest gene within a ± 1 Mb distance threshold. Differential chromatin accessibility analysis was performed using diffBind (Stark R, Brown G 2011). **(F)** Volcano plot with ATAC-seq footprint analysis of differential transcription factor binding in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells compared to WT. Blue: 272 underrepresented (log$_2$ FC < -0.1; FDR-adjusted *Q* < 0.01) motifs in ATAC-seq peaks from ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells. Pink: 9 overrepresented (log$_2$ FC > 0.1; *Q* < 0.01) motifs in ATAC-seq peaks from ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells. Grey: 560 motifs with no representative change (-0.1 ≤ log$_2$ FC ≤ 0.1) within ATAC-seq peaks from ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells. **(G)** Sequence motifs of the top 6 transcription

factors with the lowest binding score in $\Delta ENH^{-/-}$ compared to WT MCF-7 cells: GRHL1,

TFCP2, RUNX2, GRHL2, TEAD3, SOX4. Footprint analysis was performed using

TOBIAS (Bentsen et al. 2020) utilizing the JASPAR 2022 motif database (Castro-

Mondragon et al. 2022).

The SRR124–134 cluster is associated with *SOX2* overexpression in primary

tumors

With the confirmation that the SRR124–134 cluster drives *SOX2* overexpression in

the BRCA and LUAD cell lines, we investigated chromatin accessibility at this enhancer

cluster within primary tumors isolated from cancer patients. By analyzing the pan-cancer

ATAC-seq dataset from TCGA (Corces et al. 2018), we found that SRR124 and SRR134

are most accessible within LUSC, LUAD, BRCA, bladder carcinoma (BLCA), stomach

adenocarcinoma (STAD), and uterine endometrial carcinoma (UCEC) patient tumors

(Figure 4A). We also quantified the ATAC-seq signal at six other regions (genomic

coordinates in Supplementary Table S15): the *SOX2* embryonic-associated enhancers

(SRR1, SRR2, hSCR), the *SOX2* promoter (pSOX2), a gene regulatory desert with no

enhancer features located between the *SOX2* gene and the SRR124–134 cluster

(desert), and the promoter of the housekeeping gene *RAB7A* (pRAB7A, positive control).

We then compared the chromatin accessibility levels at each of these regions to the

promoter of the repressed olfactory gene *OR5K1* (pOR5K1, negative control). Both

SRR124 and SRR134 showed significantly increased ($P < 0.05$, Holm-adjusted Dunn's

test) chromatin accessibility when compared to pOR5K1 in BLCA (SRR124 $P = 0.014$;

SRR134 $P = 1.52 \times 10^{-3}$; Holm-adjusted Dunn's test), BRCA (SRR124 $P = 1.70 \times 10^{-20}$;

SRR134 P = 1.03×10^{-16}), LUAD (SRR124 P = 6.76×10^{-7}; SRR134 P = 3.26×10^{-6}), LUSC

(SRR124 P = 1.62×10^{-6}; SRR134 P = 7.08×10^{-4}), STAD (SRR124 P = 1.15×10^{-4}; SRR134

P = 1.96×10^{-7}), and UCEC (SRR124 P = 3.15×10^{-5}; SRR134 P = 0.025) patient tumors

(Figure 4B).

One explanation for increased chromatin accessibility is locus amplification. While

LUSC had high levels of chromatin accessibility likely related to previously described

SOX2 amplifications (Bass et al. 2009; Hussenet et al. 2010; Maier et al. 2011; Liu et al.

2021), most patient tumors showed no evidence of locus amplifications extending to the

SRR124–134 cluster, as evidenced by the lack of significant (P > 0.05) accessibility at

the intermediate desert region. In contrast, the SRR124–134 cluster displayed a

consistent pattern of accessible chromatin across multiple cancer types: BLCA, BRCA,

LUAD, LUSC, STAD, and UCEC (Figure 4C). GBM and LGG tumors lacked accessible

chromatin at this cluster but displayed increased chromatin accessibility at the SRR1 and

SRR2 enhancers (Supplementary Figure S4A, Supplementary Table S16), which is

consistent with the evidence that SRR1 and SRR2 drive *SOX2* expression in the neural

lineage (Ferri et al. 2004; Miyagi et al. 2006; Zappone et al. 2000).

Next, we reasoned that an accessible SRR124–134 cluster drives subsequent

SOX2 transcription within patient tumors. If this is the case, we expect to find positive and

significantly correlated chromatin accessibility between this enhancer cluster and pSOX2.

Indeed, we found that the majority of BRCA (58%), LUAD (82%), and LUSC (69%) tumors

have concurrent accessibility (log$_2$ RPM > 0) at pSOX2, SRR124 and SRR134. Patient

tumors also showed a significant (P < 0.05) correlation (Pearson, R) between accessible

chromatin signal at pSOX2 and at both SRR124 and SRR134 in BRCA and LUAD (Figure

4D). LUSC tumors showed a significant correlation between accessible chromatin at

pSOX2 and SRR124, but not at SRR134 (Figure 4D). As a negative control, we measured

the correlation between chromatin accessibility at pSOX2 and at the *SOX2* desert region

and found no significant ($P > 0.05$) correlation in any of these cancer types

(Supplementary Figure S4B). We also conducted a similar analysis after segregating

BRCA tumors into luminal A, luminal B, HER2^{+}, and basal-like subtypes (Berger et al.

2018; Corces et al. 2018). Interestingly, we found that both luminal A and luminal B tumors

possess a significant ($P < 0.05$) correlation between enhancer accessibility and pSOX2

accessibility, whereas for HER2^{+} tumors the correlation was weaker (Supplementary

Figure S4C). Basal-like tumors, on the other hand, display no accessible chromatin at

either SRR124 or SRR134. In summary, a luminal-like BRCA phenotype correlates with

increased accessibility at the SRR124–134 cluster.

Finally, by separating BRCA, LUAD, and LUSC patient tumors according to their

chromatin accessibility at SRR124 and SRR134, we found that tumors with the most

accessible chromatin at each of these regions also significantly ($P < 0.05$, t-test)

overexpress *SOX2* compared to tumors with low chromatin accessibility at these regions

(Figure 4E, Supplementary Table S17). Together, these data are consistent with a model

in which increased chromatin accessibility at the SRR124–134 cluster drives *SOX2*

overexpression in breast and lung patient tumors.

Figure 4: The SRR124–134 cluster is associated with *SOX2* overexpression in

cancer patient tumors. (A) ATAC-seq signal ($\log_2$ RPM) at SRR124 and SRR134 for

294 patient tumors from 14 cancer types (Corces et al. 2018). Cancer types are sorted in

descending order by the median signal between all three regions. Dashed line: regions

with a sum of reads above our threshold ($\log_2$ RPM > 0) were considered "accessible".

Error bars: standard deviation. Underscore: top 6 cancer types with the highest ATAC-

seq median signal. **(B)** ATAC-seq signal ($\log_2$ RPM) at the *RAB7A* promoter (pRAB7A),

SOX2 promoter (pSOX2), SRR1, SRR2, SRR124, SRR134, hSCR, and a desert region

within the *SOX2* locus (desert) compared to the background signal at the repressed

OR5K1 promoter (pOR5K1) in BLCA (n = 10), BRCA (n = 74), LUAD (n = 22), LUSC (n

= 16), STAD (n = 21), and UCEC (n = 13) patient tumors. Dashed line: regions with a sum

of reads above our threshold ($\log_2$ RPM > 0) were considered "accessible". Error bars:

standard deviation. Significance analysis by Dunn's test with Holm correction (* *P* < 0.05,

** *P* < 0.01, *** *P* < 0.001, ns: not significant). **(C)** UCSC Genome Browser (Kent et al.

2002) visualization of the *SOX2* region with ATAC-seq data from BLCA, BRCA, LUAD,

LUSC, STAD, and UCEC patient tumors (n = 5 in each cancer type) (Corces et al. 2018).

ATAC-seq reads were normalized by library size (RPM). Scale: 0 – 250 RPM. **(D)** ATAC-

seq signal at SRR124 and SRR134 regions against ATAC-seq signal for the *SOX2*

promoter (pSOX2) from 74 BRCA, 22 LUAD, and 16 LUSC patient tumors. Correlation is

shown for accessible chromatin ($\log_2$ RPM > 0). Grey: tumors with closed chromatin ($\log_2$

RPM < 0) at either region, not included in the correlation analysis. Significance analysis

by Pearson correlation. Bolded line: fitted linear regression model. Shaded area: 95%

confidence region for the regression fit. **(E)** Comparison of $\log_2$-normalized *SOX2*

transcript levels ($\log_2$ counts) between BRCA, LUAD, and LUSC patient tumors according

to the chromatin accessibility at SRR124 and SRR134 regions. Chromatin accessibility

at each region was considered "low" if $\log_2$ RPM < -1, or "high" if $\log_2$ RPM > 1. RNA-seq

reads were normalized to library size using DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014). Error bars:

standard deviation. Significance analysis by a two-sided t-test with Holm correction.

FOXA1 and _NFIB_ are upstream regulators of the SRR124–134 cluster

With the indication that the SRR124–134 cluster is driving _SOX2_ overexpression in

cancer patient tumors, we investigated which transcription factors regulate this cluster in

BRCA, LUAD, and LUSC tumors from TCGA (Corces et al. 2018; Hoadley et al. 2014).

From a list of 1622 human transcription factors (Lambert et al. 2018), we found that the

expression of 115 transcription factors was significantly (FDR-adjusted _Q_ < 0.05)

associated with chromatin accessibility levels at SRR124, whereas accessibility at

SRR134 was associated with the expression of 90 transcription factors (Figure 5A,

Supplementary Table S18). From this list, we focused our investigation on FOXA1 and

NFIB, which show binding at both SRR124 and SRR134 in ChIP-seq data from MCF-7

cells (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012).

The expression of _FOXA1_ is positively (Pearson correlation _R_ > 0) and significantly

correlated to accessible chromatin at both SRR124 ($R = 0.39$; FDR-adjusted $Q = 1.97×10^{-3}$

) and SRR134 ($R = 0.46$; $Q = 1.41×10^{-4}$) (Figure 5B). By separating BRCA, LUAD, and

LUSC patient tumors according to the chromatin accessibility levels at each region, we

found that tumors with the most accessible chromatin within SRR124 ($P = 2.38×10^{-4}$, t-

test) and SRR134 ($P = 1.53×10^{-4}$) also significantly overexpress _FOXA1_ compared to

tumors with low accessibility at these regions (Figure 5C, Supplementary Table S19). On

the other hand, we found the expression of _NFIB_ to be negatively ($R < 0$) and significantly

correlated with chromatin accessibility at both SRR124 ($R = -0.49$; $Q = 4.12×10^{-5}$) and

SRR134 (R = -0.51; Q = 1.32×10^{-5}) (Figure 5D). Patient tumors with highly accessible

chromatin within SRR124 (P = 1.46×10^{-6}) and SRR134 (P = 1.24×10^{-5}) also display

significantly downregulated *NFIB* expression (Figure 5E, Supplementary Table S20).

These data suggest that whereas FOXA1 could be inducing increased accessibility at the

SRR124–134 cluster, NFIB expression could counteract FOXA1 by acting as a repressor.

To assess the contribution of these transcription factors to enhancer activity, we

overexpressed either *FOXA1* or *NFIB* in H520, MCF-7, PC-9, and T47D cells and

compared SRR124 and SRR134 enhancer activity to cells transfected with an empty

vector (mock) containing only a fluorescent marker. Although endogenous *FOXA1* and

NFIB expression levels are already high in both MCF-7 and T47D cells (Supplementary

Figure S5A), we found that overexpression of *FOXA1* significantly increased (log$_2$ FC >

1; P < 0.05, Tukey's test) the enhancer activity of both SRR124 and SRR134 in the H520,

MCF-7, PC-9, and T47D cell lines, whereas *NFIB* overexpression led to a significant

decrease (log$_2$ FC < 1; P < 0.05) in SRR124 and SRR134 enhancer activity in the H520,

MCF-7, and T47D cell lines (Figure 5F). This further indicates that *FOXA1* overexpression

increases SRR124–134 activity, whereas NFIB represses the enhancer activity of this

cluster.

To assess the importance of FOXA1 and NFIB motifs in modulating enhancer

activity, we analyzed the SRR134 sequence using the JASPAR2022 motif database

(Castro-Mondragon et al. 2022) and mutated FOXA1 (GTAAACA) or NFIB

(TGGCAnnnnGCCAA) motifs (mutated SRR134 sequences in Supplementary Table

S21). We found that mutation of the FOXA1 motif abolished SRR134 enhancer activity

compared to the WT SRR134 sequence within MCF-7 (P = 1.53×10^{-5}, Tukey's test), PC-

9 (P = 1×10^{-2}), and T47D (P = 4.48×10^{-6}) cells, whereas no significant change (P > 0.05)

in enhancer activity was found for the NFIB-mutated construct (Figure 5G). These data

indicate that the FOXA1 motif is crucial for sustaining SRR134 activity, whereas the NFIB

motif is dispensable in this context, as would be expected for a negative regulator under

conditions where the activity of the target is high.

With the evidence that these transcription factors are modulating SRR124–134

activity, we investigated their transcriptional effects over *SOX2* expression. We used

CRISPR homology-directed repair (HDR) to create an MCF-7 cell line in which the *SOX2*

gene is tagged with a 2A self-cleaving peptide (P2A) followed by a blue fluorescent protein

(tagBFP). This cell line, MCF-7 *SOX2*-P2A-tagBFP, allows rapid visualization of *SOX2*

transcriptional changes by measuring tagBFP signal through fluorescence-activated cell

sorting (FACS). To validate this model, we sorted cells within the top 10% (BFP^{+ve}) and

bottom 10% (BFP^{-ve}) tagBFP signal (Supplementary Figure S5B). We found that BFP^{+ve}

cells showed a significant (P = 4.25×10^{-5}, paired t-test) increase in *SOX2* expression, and

displayed significantly upregulated transcription of enhancer RNA (eRNA) at SRR124 (P

= 1.54×10^{-4}) and SRR134 (P = 5.13×10^{-5}) compared to BFP^{-ve} cells (Figure 5H). This

confirms that the tagBFP signal is directly correlated to *SOX2* transcription levels and

enhancer output in MCF-7 *SOX2*-P2A-tagBFP cells.

Finally, we overexpressed *FOXA1* or *NFIB* in MCF-7 SOX2-P2A-tagBFP to assess

changes in *SOX2* transcription. Although overexpression of *FOXA1* did not significantly

(chi-squared T(x)=63.70) change tagBFP signal, we found that overexpression of *NFIB*

significantly (chi-squared T(x)=1168.88) reduced tagBFP signal compared to transfection

of an empty vector (mock) (Figure 5I). This confirms the repressive effect of NFIB over

SOX2 expression and illustrates a potential mechanism upstream of *SOX2* that

modulates chromatin accessibility at the SRR124–134 cluster and subsequent control of

SOX2 transcription in cancer cells.

Figure 5: FOXA1 and NFIB are upstream regulators of SRR124 and SRR134. (A)

Heatmap of the Pearson correlation between transcription factor expression (Hoadley et

al. 2014) and chromatin accessibility (Corces et al. 2018) at SRR124 and SRR134 in

BRCA, LUAD, and LUSC patient tumors (n = 111). Transcription factors are ordered

according to their correlation to chromatin accessibility at each region. Red: transcription

factors with a positive correlation ($R > 0$; FDR-adjusted $Q < 0.05$) to chromatin

accessibility. Blue: transcription factors with a negative correlation ($R < 0$; $Q < 0.05$) to

chromatin accessibility. Asterisk: transcription factors that show binding at SRR124 or

SRR134 by ChIP-seq (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012). **(B)** Correlation analysis

between *FOXA1* expression ($\log_2$ counts) and chromatin accessibility ($\log_2$ RPM) at

SRR124 and SRR134 regions in BRCA (n = 74), LUAD (n = 21), and LUSC (n = 16)

tumors. RNA-seq reads were normalized to library size using DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014).

Significance analysis by Pearson correlation (n = 111). Bolded line: fitted linear regression

model. Shaded area: 95% confidence region for the regression fit. **(C)** Comparison of

FOXA1 expression ($\log_2$ counts) from BRCA, LUAD, and LUSC patient tumors according

to their chromatin accessibility at the SRR124 and SRR134 regions. Chromatin

accessibility at each region was considered "low" if $\log_2$ RPM < 1, or "high" if $\log_2$ RPM $>$

1. RNA-seq reads were normalized to library size using DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014). Error

bars: standard deviation. Significance analysis by a two-sided t-test with Holm correction.

(D) Correlation analysis between *NFIB* expression (log$_2$ counts) and chromatin

accessibility (log$_2$ RPM) at SRR124 and SRR134 regions in BRCA (n = 74), LUAD (n =

21), and LUSC (n = 16) tumors. RNA-seq reads were normalized to library size using

DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014). Significance analysis by Pearson correlation (n = 111). Bolded

line: fitted linear regression model. Shaded area: 95% confidence region for the

regression fit. **(E)** Comparison of *NFIB* expression (log$_2$ counts) from BRCA, LUAD, and

LUSC patient tumors according to their chromatin accessibility at the SRR124 and

SRR134 regions. Chromatin accessibility at each region was considered "low" if log$_2$ RPM

< 1, or "high" if log$_2$ RPM > 1. RNA-seq reads were normalized to library size using

DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014). Error bars: standard deviation. Significance analysis by a two-

sided t-test with Holm correction. **(F)** Relative fold change (log$_2$ FC) in luciferase activity

driven by SRR124 and SRR134 after overexpression of either *FOXA1* or *NFIB* compared

to an empty vector containing (mock negative control, miRFP670). Dashed line: average

activity of the mock control. Error bars: standard deviation. Significance analysis by

Tukey's test (n = 5; * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, ns: not significant). **(G)** Relative

luciferase activity driven by WT, FOXA1-mutated, and NFIB-mutated SRR134 constructs

compared to a minimal promoter (minP) vector in the MCF-7, PC-9, and T47D cell lines.

Dashed line: average activity of minP. Error bars: standard deviation. Significance

analysis by Tukey's test (n = 5; * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, ns: not significant).

(H) RT-qPCR comparison of transcripts at *SOX2*, SRR124, and SRR134 between sorted

BFP^{-ve} and BFP^{+ve} MCF-7 cells normalized to unsorted population. Error bars: standard

deviation. Significance analysis by paired t-test with Holm correction (n = 6; *** P < 0.001).

(I) FACS density plot comparing tagBFP signal between *SOX2*-P2A-tagBFP MCF-7 cells

transfected with an empty vector (mock negative control, miRFP670), FOXA1-T2A-

miRFP670, or NFIB-T2A-miRFP670. tagBFP signal was acquired from successfully

transfected live cells (miRFP$^+$/PI$^-$) after 5 days post-transfection. Significance analysis by

FlowJo's chi-squared T(x) test. T(x) scores above 1000 were considered "strongly

significant" (*** P < 0.001), whereas T(x) scores under 100 were considered "non-

significant".

SRR124 and SRR134 are conserved enhancers across mammals and are required

for the separation of the anterior foregut

SOX2 is required for the proper development of multiple tissues (Arnold et al. 2011),

including the digestive and respiratory systems in the mouse (Francis et al. 2019; Gontan

et al. 2008; Que et al. 2007, 2009; Teramoto et al. 2020; Tompkins et al. 2009) and in

humans (Zenteno et al. 2006; Williamson et al. 2006; Chassaing et al. 2007). Therefore,

we questioned whether the SRR124–134 cluster drives *SOX2* expression in additional

contexts other than cancer. A compilation of chromatin accessibility data from cardiac,

digestive, embryonic, lymphoid, musculoskeletal, myeloid, neural, placental, pulmonary,

renal, skin, and vascular tissues (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012; Meuleman et al.

2020; Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium et al. 2015) showed that both SRR124 and

SRR134 display increased chromatin accessibility in digestive and respiratory tissues

alongside cancer samples (Figure 6A). By comparing DNase-seq signal from fetal lung

and stomach tissues (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012), we found that both SRR124

(lung P = 1.25×10^{-6}; stomach P = 9.64×10^{-4}; Holm-adjusted Dunn's test) and SRR134

(lung P = 1.14×10^{-3}; stomach P = 0.045), together with SRR2 (lung P = 1.55×10^{-3};

stomach P = 5.74×10^{-5}), are significantly more accessible than pOR5K1 (Figure 6B,

Supplementary Table S22). This suggests that SRR124 and SRR134 are contributing to

SOX2 expression during the development of the digestive and respiratory systems.

Since critical developmental genes are often controlled by highly conserved

enhancers across species (Pennacchio et al. 2006; Woolfe et al. 2005), we hypothesized

that the SRR124–134 cluster might regulate *SOX2* expression during the development of

other species. By analyzing PhyloP conservation scores (Pollard et al. 2010; Kent et al.

2002), we discovered that both SRR124 and SRR134 contain a highly conserved core

sequence that is preserved across mammals, birds, reptiles, and amphibians (Figure 6C).

After aligning and comparing enhancer sequences between humans and mice, we found

the core sequence at both SRR124 and SRR134 are highly conserved (> 80%) in the

mouse genome (Supplementary Figure S6A). We termed these homologous regions as

mSRR96 (96 kb downstream of the mouse *Sox2* promoter; homologous to the human

SRR124) and mSRR102 (102 kb downstream of the mouse *Sox2* promoter; homologous

to the human SRR134). Enhancer feature analysis in the developing lung and stomach

tissues in the mouse (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012; Liu et al. 2019) showed that

both mSRR96 and mSRR102 display increased chromatin accessibility and H3K27ac

signal throughout developmental days E14.5 to the 8th post-natal week (Figure 6D).

Interestingly, mSRR96 and mSRR102 display higher ATAC-seq and H3K27ac signal

towards the later stages of development in the lungs, but at early stages of development

in the stomach. This suggests a distinct spatiotemporal contribution of this homologous

cluster to *Sox2* expression during the development of these tissues in the mouse. ATAC-

seq quantification (genomic coordinates in Supplementary Table S23) showed that both

mSRR96 (lung P = 5.54×10^{-5}; stomach P = 2.37×10^{-4}; Holm-adjusted Dunn's test) and

mSRR102 (lung P = 1.27×10^{-3}; stomach P = 0.046) are significantly more accessible than

the repressed promoter of the olfactory gene *Olfr266* (pOlfr266, negative control) during

the development of the lungs and stomach in the mouse (Supplementary Figure S6B,

Supplementary Table S24). Together, these results suggest a conserved *SOX2*

regulatory mechanism across multiple species and support a model in which the SRR124

and SRR134 enhancers and their homologs regulate *SOX2* expression during the

development of the digestive and respiratory systems.

To assess the contribution of the mSRR96 and mSRR102 regions to the

development of the mouse, we generated a knockout containing a deletion spanning the

mSRR96–102 enhancer cluster (ΔmENH) (Figure 6E). We crossed animals carrying a

heterozygous mSRR96–102 deletion (ΔmENH$^{+/-}$) and determined the number of pups

alive at weaning (P21) from each genotype. We found a significant (P = 1.13×10^{-4}, Chi-

squared test) deviation from the expected mendelian ratio with no homozygous mice

(ΔmENH$^{-/-}$) alive at weaning (Figure 6F), demonstrating that the mSRR96–102 enhancer

cluster is crucial for survival in the mouse. To investigate the resulting phenotype in a

homozygous mSRR96–102 enhancer deletion, we collected E18.5 embryos and

prepared cross-sections at the thymus level from five animals of each genotype (WT,

ΔmENH$^{+/-}$, and ΔmENH$^{-/-}$) (Figure 6G). Similar to other studies that interfered with *Sox2*

expression during development (Que et al. 2007; Teramoto et al. 2020; Chakraborty et

al. 2023), we found that all five ΔmENH$^{-/-}$ embryos developed EA/TEF, where the

esophagus and trachea fail to separate during embryonic development (Figure 6H). WT

and ΔmENH$^{+/-}$ embryos, on the other hand, showed normal development of the

esophageal and tracheal tissues. Immunohistochemistry showed the complete absence

of the SOX2 protein within the EA/TEF tissue in ΔmENH$^{-/-}$ embryos, whereas WT and

ΔmENH$^{+/-}$ embryos showed high levels of SOX2 protein within both the esophagus and

tracheal tubes (Figure 6I). Finally, immunofluorescence staining for NKX2.1, a

transcription factor associated with the inner epithelium of the respiratory tract (Minoo et

al. 1999), showed high protein levels within the inner layer of the EA/TEF tissue in

ΔmENH$^{-/-}$ embryos, indicating that this aberrant tissue resembles a tracheal-like structure

lacking SOX2 (Supplementary Figure S6C). Together, these results demonstrate that

mSRR96 and mSRR102 are required to drive *Sox2* expression during the development

and separation of the esophagus and trachea.

Figure 6: The SRR124 and SRR134 enhancers are conserved across species and

are required for the separation of the esophagus and trachea in the mouse. (A)

UCSC Genome Browser (Kent et al. 2002) view of the *SOX2* region containing a

compilation of chromatin accessibility tracks of multiple human tissues (ENCODE Project

Consortium 2012; Meuleman et al. 2020; Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium et al. 2015).

Arrow: increased chromatin accessibility at the SRR124–134 cluster in cancer, digestive,

and respiratory tissues. **(B)** DNAse-seq quantification (log$_2$ RPM) at the *RAB7A* promoter

(pRAB7A), *SOX2* promoter (pSOX2), SRR1, SRR2, SRR124, SRR134, human SCR

(hSCR), and a desert region within the *SOX2* locus (desert) compared to the background

signal at the repressed *OR5K1* promoter (pOR5K1) in lung and stomach embryonic

tissues (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012). Dashed line: Regions with a sum of reads

above our threshold (log$_2$ RPM > 0) were considered "accessible". Error bars: standard

deviation. Significance analysis by Dunn's test with Holm correction (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P <$

0.01, *** $P < 0.001$, ns: not significant). **(C)** UCSC Genome Browser (Kent et al. 2002)

with PhyloP conservation scores (Pollard et al. 2010) at the SRR124 and SRR134

enhancers across mammals, birds, reptiles, and amphibians species. Black lines: highly

conserved sequences. Empty lines: variant sequences. **(D)** UCSC Genome Browser

(Kent et al. 2002) view of the *Sox2* region in the mouse. ATAC-seq and H3K27ac ChIP-

seq data from lung and stomach tissues throughout developmental days E14.5 to the 8th

post-natal week (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012; Liu et al. 2019). mSRR96:

homologous to SRR124. mSRR102: homologous to SRR134. Reads were normalized to

library size (RPM). **(E)** Illustration demonstrating the mSRR96–102 enhancer cluster

CRISPR deletion (ΔmENH) in C57BL/6J mouse embryos. **(F)** Quantification and

genotype of the C57BL/6J progeny from mSRR96–102-deleted crossings (ΔmENH$^{+/-}$).

Pups were counted and genotyped at weaning (P21). Significance analysis by chi-

squared test to measure the deviation in the number of obtained pups from the expected

mendelian ratio of 1:2:1 (WT : ΔmENH$^{+/-}$: ΔmENH$^{-/-}$). **(G)** Transverse cross-section of

fixed E18.5 embryos at the start of the thymus. **(H)** Embryo sections stained with

Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E). Scale bar: 500μm. Es: esophagus; Tr: trachea; EA/TEF:

esophageal atresia with distal tracheoesophageal fistula. **(I)** Embryo cross-sections

stained for SOX2. Scale bar: 500μm. Es: esophagus; Tr: trachea; EA/TEF: esophageal

atresia with distal tracheoesophageal fistula.

DISCUSSION

Our findings reveal that the SRR124–134 enhancer cluster is essential for *Sox2*

expression in the developing digestive and respiratory systems as it is required for the

separation of the esophagus and trachea during mouse development. When

embryogenesis is complete, *Sox2* expression is downregulated in most differentiated cell

types as its developmental enhancers are decommissioned. We propose that aberrant

upregulation of the pioneer factor *FOXA1* recommissions both SRR124 and SRR134 in

tumor cells, driving *SOX2* overexpression in breast and lung cancer. As SOX2 is also a

pioneer transcription factor, increased levels of this protein further reprogram the

chromatin landscape of cancer cells, binding at multiple downstream regulatory regions,

increasing chromatin accessibility, and driving subsequent upregulation of genes

associated with epithelium development, ultimately supporting a tumor-initiating

phenotype.

The observation that enhancers involved in the development of the digestive and

respiratory systems are reprogrammed to support *SOX2* upregulation during

tumorigenesis is in line with previous observations that tumor-initiating cells acquire a less

differentiated phenotype (Bonnet and Dick 1997; Chaffer et al. 2011; Lapidot et al. 1994,

199; Gupta et al. 2011). It is more surprising, however, that the *SOX2* gene is regulated

by common enhancers in both breast and lung cancer cells as enhancers are usually

highly tissue-specific (Pennacchio et al. 2006; Woolfe et al. 2005; Thurman et al. 2012;

Stergachis et al. 2013). Our observation that *FOXA1* expression is significantly correlated

to chromatin accessibility at the SRR124–134 cluster and increases the transcriptional

output of the SRR124 and SRR134 enhancers provides a mechanistic link between

breast and lung developmental programs and cancer progression. FOXA1 is directly

involved in the branching morphogenesis of the epithelium in breast (Bernardo et al. 2010;

Liu et al. 2016) and lung (Besnard et al. 2005, 1; Paranjapye et al. 2020) tissues, where

SOX2 also plays an important role (Domenici et al. 2019; Gontan et al. 2008).

Overexpression of both *FOXA1* (Camolotto et al. 2018; Fu et al. 2016, 2019; Lupien et

al. 2008; Orstad et al. 2022; Roe et al. 2017; Stergachis et al. 2013) and *SOX2* (Boumahdi

et al. 2014; Chou et al. 2013, 2; Liu et al. 2013) have also been individually linked to the

activation of transcriptional programs associated with multiple types of cancer. Therefore,

we propose that FOXA1 is one of the key players responsible for the reprogramming of

the SRR124–134 cluster in cancer, which then drives *SOX2* overexpression in breast and

lung tumors. As mutation of the FOXA1 motif disrupted SRR134 enhancer activity, and

this motif is shared among other members of the forkhead box (FOX) transcription factor

family (Pierrou et al. 1994), it remains unclear if FOXA1 alone activates the SRR124–134

cluster, or whether other FOX proteins are involved in this process. For example, *FOXM1*

overexpression, which also showed binding at both SRR124 and SRR134 in MCF-7 cells,

has similarly been associated with poor patient outcomes in multiple types of cancer (Li

et al. 2017).

In addition to the activating role of FOXA1, we identified NFIB as a negative

regulator of *SOX2* expression through inhibition of SRR124–134 activity. NFIB is normally

required for the development of multiple tissues (reviewed in Harris et al. 2015), including

the brain and lungs (Steele-Perkins et al. 2005; Gründer et al. 2002; Hsu et al. 2011),

tissues in which *SOX2* expression is also tightly regulated (Favaro et al. 2009; Gontan et

al. 2008). In the lungs, NFIB is essential for promoting the maturation and differentiation

of progenitor cells (Gründer et al. 2002; Steele-Perkins et al. 2005). This is in stark

contrast to SOX2, which inhibits the differentiation of lung cells (Gontan et al. 2008).

Interestingly, NFIB seems to have paradoxical roles in cancer, acting both as a tumor

suppressor and as an oncogene in different tissues (Becker-Santos et al. 2017). Among

its tumor suppressor activity, NFIB acts as a barrier to skin carcinoma progression (Zhou

et al. 2014b), and its downregulation is associated with dedifferentiation and

aggressiveness in LUAD (Becker-Santos et al. 2016). On the other hand, SOX2 promotes

skin (Boumahdi et al. 2014) and lung (Ferone et al. 2016) cancer progression. As an

oncogene, *NFIB* promotes cell proliferation and metastasis in STAD (Wu et al. 2018),

where *SOX2* downregulation is associated with poor patient outcomes (Otsubo et al.

2008; Wang et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2010). With this contrasting relationship between

SOX2 and *NFIB* across multiple tissues, we propose that NFIB normally acts as a

suppressor of SRR124–134 activity and *SOX2* expression during the differentiation of

progenitor cells; downregulation of *NFIB* expression then results in *SOX2* overexpression

during tumorigenesis of the breast and lung.

We initially hypothesized that SRR1 and SRR2 (Miyagi et al. 2004; Zappone et al.

2000; Tomioka et al. 2002), and/or the SCR (Li et al. 2014; Zhou et al. 2014a) might be

recommissioned during cancer progression, as stem cell-related enhancers have been

shown to acquire enhancer features in tumorigenic cells (Aran et al. 2016). Although other

studies have also proposed the activation of either SRR1 (Leis et al. 2012; Stolzenburg

et al. 2012) or SRR2 (Iglesias et al. 2014; Jung et al. 2015) as the main drivers of *SOX2*

overexpression in BRCA, we found no evidence of this mechanism and instead identified

the SRR124–134 cluster as the main driver of *SOX2* expression in BRCA and LUAD. Our

patient tumor analysis did show that GBM and LGG were the only cancer types that

display a unique and consistent pattern of accessible chromatin at SRR1 and SRR2,

which is likely related to glioma cells assuming a neural stem cell-like identity to sustain

high levels of cell proliferation in the brain (Bulstrode et al. 2017). In fact, SRR2 deletion

was shown to downregulate *SOX2* and reduce cell proliferation in GBM cells (Saenz-

Antoñanzas et al. 2021), highlighting enhancer specificity to different tumor types. In line

with these findings, our observation that PC-9 LUAD cells are dependent on SRR124–

134 for *SOX2* transcription, whereas in H520 LUSC cells SRR124–134 is dispensable,

again highlights these tumor-type specific regulatory mechanisms. LUSC tumors

frequently amplify the *SOX2* locus (Bass et al. 2009; Hussenet et al. 2010; Liu et al. 2021;

Maier et al. 2011), whereas LUAD tumors do not (Björkqvist et al. 1998), indicating that

different mechanisms are involved in genome dysregulation in these two subtypes of lung

cancer. Interestingly, a further downstream enhancer cluster located ~55 kb away from

SRR124–134 is co-amplified with *SOX2* in LUSC cell lines (Liu et al. 2021), revealing an

additional mechanism that could sustain *SOX2* overexpression in the absence of the

SRR124–134 cluster in certain types of LUSC but not in LUAD.

Deletion of mSRR96–102, homolog of the human SRR124–134 cluster, resulted in

EA/TEF which is also observed in human cases with *SOX2* heterozygous mutations

(Zenteno et al. 2006; Williamson et al. 2006; Chassaing et al. 2007). Interestingly, a recent

study showed that insertion of a CTCF insulation cluster downstream of the *Sox2* gene,

but upstream of mSRR96–102, disrupts *Sox2* expression, impairs separation of the

esophagus and trachea, and results in perinatal lethality due to EA/TEF in the mouse

(Chakraborty et al. 2023). This was of particular interest for understanding enhancer

functional nuances during development since the SCR, which is required for *Sox2*

transcription at implantation, can partially overcome the insulator effect of this insertion.

The authors proposed that enhancer density might explain the EA/TEF phenotype, as

chromatin features suggested that enhancers in the developing lung and stomach tissues

might be spread over a 400 kb domain (Chakraborty et al. 2023). The 6 kb deletion that

removes the mSRR96–102 cluster causing EA/TEF suggests this is not the case. Instead,

we propose that the sensitivity of each cell type to gene dosage is behind the differing

ability of CTCF to block distal enhancers. This is based on two observations: in humans,

heterozygous *SOX2* mutations are linked with the anophthalmia-esophageal-genital

syndrome (Zenteno et al. 2006; Williamson et al. 2006; Chassaing et al. 2007); in mice,

hypomorphic *Sox2* alleles display similar phenotypes in the eye (Taranova et al. 2006)

and EA/TEF (Que et al. 2007; Teramoto et al. 2020). This suggests that cells from the

peri-implantation phase are less sensitive to lower *Sox2* dosages compared to cells from

the developing airways and digestive systems in both species and explains the aberrant

phenotypes observed at term.

Overall, our findings illustrate how cis-regulatory regions can similarly drive gene

expression in both normal and diseased contexts and serve as a prime example of how

decommissioned developmental enhancers may be reprogrammed during tumorigenesis.

The fact that we have found a digestive/respiratory-associated enhancer cluster driving

gene expression in a non-native context such as BRCA remains intriguing and reinforces

a model in which tumorigenic cells often revert to a progenitor-like state that combines

cis-regulatory features of progenitor cells from multiple developing lineages (Stergachis

et al. 2013). This "dys-differentiation" mechanism seems to be centered around the

overexpression of a few key development-associated pioneer transcription factors such

as FOXA1 and SOX2. Identifying additional mechanisms that regulate the reprogramming

of these enhancers could lead to new approaches to target tumor-initiating cells that

depend on *SOX2* overexpression.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell Culture

MCF-7 cells were obtained from Eldad Zacksenhaus (Toronto General Hospital Research Institute, Toronto, CA). H520 (HTB-182) and T47D (HTB-133) cells were acquired from ATCC. PC-9 (90071810) cells were obtained from Sigma. Cell line identities were confirmed by short tandem repeat profiling. MCF-7 and T47D cells were grown in phenol red-free DMEM high glucose (Gibco), 10% FBS (Gibco), 1x Glutamax (Gibco), 1x Sodium Pyruvate (Gibco), 1x Penicillin-Streptomycin (Gibco), 1x Non-essential amino acids (Gibco), 25 mM HEPES (Gibco) and 0.01 mg/ml insulin (Sigma). H520 and PC-9 cells were grown in phenol red-free RPMI-1640 (Gibco), 10% FBS (Gibco), 1x Glutamax (Gibco), 1x Sodium Pyruvate (Gibco), 1x Penicillin-Streptomycin (Gibco), 1x Non-essential amino acids (Gibco), and 25 mM HEPES (Gibco). Cells were either passaged or had their medium replenished every three days.

Genome editing

Pairs of gRNA plasmids were constructed by inserting a 20 bp target sequence (Supplementary Table S25) into an empty gRNA cloning vector (a gift from George Church; Addgene plasmid # 41824; http://n2t.net/addgene:41824; RRID:Addgene_41824) (Mali et al. 2013, 9) containing either miRFP670 (Addgene plasmid #163748) or tagBFP (Addgene plasmid #163747) fluorescent markers. Plasmids were sequenced to confirm correct insertion. Both gRNA (1 µg each) vectors were co-transfected with 3 µg of pCas9_GFP (a gift from Kiran Musunuru; Addgene plasmid #44719; http://n2t.net/addgene:44719; RRID:Addgene_44719) (Ding et al. 2013) using

Neon electroporation (Life Technologies). After 72 hours of transfection, cells were FACS

sorted to select clones that contained all three plasmids. Sorted

tagBFP⁺/GFP⁺/miRFP670⁺ cells were grown in a bulk population and serially diluted into

individual wells to generate isogenic populations. Once fully grown, each well was

screened by PCR to confirm the deletion.

Gene tagging

SOX2 was tagged with a P2A-tagBFP sequence in both alleles using CRISPR-mediated

homology-directed repair (HDR) (Ran et al. 2013). This strategy results in the expression

of a single transcript that is further translated into two separate proteins due to ribosomal

skipping (Ahier and Jarriault 2014). In summary, we designed a gRNA that targets the 3'

end of the *SOX2* stop codon (Supplementary Table S25, Addgene plasmid #163752). We

then amplified ~800 bp homology arms upstream and downstream of the gRNA target

sequence using high-fidelity Phusion Polymerase. We purposely avoided amplification of

the *SOX2* promoter sequence to reduce the likelihood of random integrations in the

genome. Both homology arms were then joined at each end of a P2A-tagBFP sequence

using Gibson assembly. Flanking primers containing the gRNA target sequence were

used to reamplify *SOX2*-P2A-tagBFP and add gRNA targets at both ends of the fragment;

this approach allows excision of the HDR sequence from the backbone plasmid once

inside the cell (Zhang et al. 2017). Finally, the full HDR sequence was inserted into a

pJET1.2 (Thermo Scientific) backbone, midiprepped, and sequenced (Addgene

#163751). 3µg of HDR template was then co-transfected with 1µg of hCas9 (a gift from

George Church; Addgene plasmid #41815; http://n2t.net/addgene:41815 ;

RRID:Addgene_41815) (Mali et al. 2013) and 1μg of gRNA plasmid using Neon

electroporation (Life Technologies). A week after transfection, tagBFP⁺ cells were FACS

sorted as a bulk population. Sorted cells were further grown for two more weeks, and

single tagBFP⁺ cells were isolated to generate isogenic populations. Once fully grown,

each clone was screened by PCR and sequenced to confirm homozygous integration of

P2A-tagBFP into the *SOX2* locus.

Luciferase assay

Luciferase activity was measured using the dual-luciferase reporter assay (Promega

#E1960) that relies on the co-transfection of two plasmids: pGL4.23 (Firefly Luciferase,

luc2) and pGL4.75 (Renilla Luciferase). Assayed plasmids were constructed by

subcloning the empty pGL4.23 vector containing a minimal promoter (minP). SRR124,

SRR134, SRR1, SRR2, and hSCR were PCR-amplified (primers in Supplementary Table

S26) from MCF-7 genomic DNA using high-fidelity Phusion Polymerase and inserted in

the forward position downstream of the *luc2* gene at the NotI restriction site. Constructs

were sequenced to confirm correct insertions.

JASPAR2022 (Castro-Mondragon et al. 2022) was used to find FOXA1 (GTAAACA) and

NFIB (TGGCAnnnnGCCAA) motifs in the SRR134 sequence. Only motifs with a score of

80% or higher were further analyzed. Bases within each motif sequence were mutated

until the score was reduced below 80% without affecting co-occurring motifs or creating

novel binding sites. In total, four FOXA1 motifs and two NFIB motifs were mutated

(Supplementary Table S21). Engineered sequences were ordered as gene blocks

(Eurofins) and inserted into pGL4.23 in the forward position. Constructs were sequenced

to confirm correct insertions.

Cells were plated in 96-well plates with 4 technical replicates at 2.10^4 cells per well. After

24 hours, a 200ng 50:1 mixture of enhancer vector and pGL4.75 was transfected using

Lipofectamine 3000 (0.05µl Lipofectamine:1µl Opti-mem). For transcription factor

overexpression analysis, a 200ng 50:10:1 mixture of enhancer vector, expression

plasmid, and pGL4.75 was transfected. After 48 hours of transfection, cells were lysed in

1x Passive Lysis Buffer and stored at -80°C until all 5 biological replicates were

completed. Luciferase activity was measured in the Fluoroskan Ascent FL plate reader.

Enhancer activity was calculated by normalizing the firefly signal from pGL4.23 to the

Renilla signal from pGL4.75.

Colony formation assay

MCF-7 and PC-9 cells were seeded at low density (2,000 cells/well) into 6-well plates in

triplicate for each cell line. Culture media was renewed every 3 days. After 12 days, cells

were fixed with 3.7% paraformaldehyde for 10 minutes and stained with 0.5% crystal

violet for 20 minutes to quantify the number of colonies formed. Crystal violet staining was

then eluted with 10% acetic acid and absorbance was measured at 570 nm to evaluate

cell proliferation. Each 6-well plate was considered one biological replicate and the

experiment was repeated five times for each cell line (n = 5).

FACS analysis

For analyzing the effects of *FOXA1* and *NFIB* overexpression, 2.10^6 SOX2-P2A-tagBFP

cells were transfected with 50nM of plasmid expressing either miRFP670 (a gift from

Vladislav Verkhusha; Addgene plasmid #79987; http://n2t.net/addgene:79987;

RRID:Addgene_79987), FOXA1-T2A-miRFP670 (Addgene plasmid #182335), or NFIB-

T2A-miRFP670 (Addgene plasmid #187222) in 5 replicates. Five days after transfection,

miRFP670, tagBFP, and propidium iodide (PI) (live/dead stain) signals were acquired; the

amount of tagBFP signal from miRFP670$^+$/PI$^-$ cells was compared between each

treatment across all replicates.

FlowJo's chi-squared T(x) test was used to contrast the effects of each treatment over

tagBFP expression; T(x) scores above 1000 were considered "strongly significant" (***),

whereas T(x) scores under 100 were considered "non-significant".

Transcriptome analysis

Total RNA was isolated from WT and enhancer-deleted (ΔENH) cell lines using the

RNeasy kit. Genomic DNA was digested by Turbo DNAse. 500-2,000ng of total RNA was

used in a reverse transcription reaction with random primers. cDNA was diluted in H_2O

and amplified in a qPCR reaction using SYBR Select Mix (primers in Supplementary

Table S27). Amplicons were sequenced to confirm primer specificity. Gene expression

was normalized to *PUM1* (Kılıç et al. 2014; Krasnov et al. 2019; Lyng et al. 2008).

Total RNA was sent to The Centre for Applied Genomics (TCAG) for paired-end rRNA-

depleted total RNA-seq (Illumina 2500, 125 bp). Read quality was checked by fastQC,

trimmed using fastP (Chen et al. 2018) and mapped to the human genome

(GRCh38/hg38) using STAR 2.7 (Dobin et al. 2013). Normal breast epithelium RNA-seq

was obtained from ENCODE (Supplementary Table S28) (ENCODE Project Consortium

2012; Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium et al. 2015). Mapped reads were quantified

using featureCounts (Liao et al. 2014) and imported into DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014) for

normalization and differential expression analysis. Genes with a $|\log_2 FC| > 1$ and FDR-

adjusted $Q < 0.01$ were considered significantly changing. Differential gene expression

was plotted using the EnhancedVolcano package. Correlation and clustering heatmaps

were   plotted   using   the   pheatmap   R   package   (https://cran.r-

project.org/web/packages/pheatmap/index.html). Signal enrichment plot was prepared

using NGS.plot (Shen et al. 2014).

Cancer patient transcriptome data were obtained from TCGA (Hoadley et al. 2014) using

the TCGAbiolinks package (Colaprico et al. 2016). The overall survival KM-plot was

calculated using clinical information from TCGA (Liu et al. 2018a). Tumor transcriptome

data were compared to normal tissue using DESeq2. RNA-seq reads were normalized to

library size using DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014) and transformed to a $\log_2$ scale [$\log_2$ counts].

Differential gene expression was considered significant if $|\log_2 FC| > 1$ and $Q < 0.01$.

Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) was performed by ranking genes according to

their $\log_2$ FC in $\Delta ENH^{-/-}$ versus WT MCF-7 cells. The ranking was then analyzed using

the GSEA function from the clusterProfiler package (Yu et al. 2012) with a threshold of

FDR-adjusted $Q < 0.05$ using the MSigDB GO term database (C5).

Chromatin accessibility analysis

Cells were grown in three separate wells (n = 3) and 50,000 cells were sent to Princess

Margaret Genomics Centre for ATAC-seq library preparation using the Omni-ATAC

protocol (Corces et al. 2017). ATAC-seq libraries were sequenced using 50 bp paired-

ended parameters in the Illumina Novaseq 6000 platform. Read quality was checked by

fastQC, trimmed using fastP and mapped to the human genome (GRCh38/hg38) using

STAR 2.7. narrowPeaks were called using Genrich (https://github.com/jsh58/Genrich).

Differential chromatin accessibility analysis was performed using diffBind (Stark R, Brown

G 2011). ATAC-seq peaks with a $|\log_2 \text{FC}| > 1$ and FDR-adjusted $Q < 0.01$ were

considered significantly changing. Correlation heatmaps were generated using diffBind.

Signal enrichment plot was prepared using NGS.plot (Shen et al. 2014). Genes were

separated into three categories according to their expression levels in our WT MCF-7

RNA-seq data.

Transcription factor footprint analysis was performed using TOBIAS (Bentsen et al. 2020)

with standard settings. Motifs with a $|\log_2 \text{FC}| > 0.1$ and FDR-adjusted $Q < 0.01$ were

considered significantly enriched in each condition. Replicates (n = 3) were merged into

a single BAM file for each treatment. Motif enrichment at differential ATAC-seq peaks was

performed using HOMER (Heinz et al. 2010). ATAC-seq peaks were assigned to their

closest gene within ± 1 Mb distance from their promoter using ChIPpeakAnno (Zhu et al.

2010).

Cancer patient ATAC-seq data was obtained from TCGA (Corces et al. 2018). DNAse-

seq from human developing tissues were obtained from ENCODE (Supplementary Table

S28) (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012; Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium et al.

2015). Read quantification was calculated at the *RAB7a* (pRAB7a), *OR5K1* (pOR5K1),

and *SOX2* (pSOX2) promoters, together with SRR1, SRR2, SRR124, SRR134, hSCR,

and desert regions with a 1,500 bp window centered at the core of each region (genomic

coordinates of each region in Supplementary Table S15). Reads were normalized to

library size (RPM) and transformed to a $\log_2$ scale ($\log_2$ RPM) using a custom script

(https://github.com/luisabatti/BAMquantify). Each region's average $\log_2$ RPM was

compared to the *OR5K1* promoter for differential analysis using Dunn's test with Holm

correction. Correlations were calculated using Pearson's correlation test and considered

significant if FDR-adjusted Q < 0.05. Chromatin accessibility at SRR124 and SRR134

regions was considered low if $\log_2$ RPM < -1, medium if $-1 \leq \log_2$ RPM ≤ 1, or high if $\log_2$

RPM > 1.

ATAC-seq from developing mouse lung and stomach tissues were obtained from

ENCODE (Supplementary Table S28) (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012) and others

(Liu et al. 2019). Conserved mouse regulatory regions were lifted from the human build

(GRCh38/hg38) to the mouse build (GRCm38/mm10) using UCSC liftOver (Kent et al.

2002, 200). The number of mapped reads was calculated at the *Egf* (pEgf), *Olfr266*

(pOlfr266), and *Sox2* (pSox2) promoters, together with the mouse mSRR1, mSRR2,

mSRR96, mSRR102, mSCR and desert regions with a 1,500 bp window at each location

(genomic coordinates in Supplementary Table S23). Each $\log_2$-transformed region's

reads per million ($\log_2$ RPM) was compared to the negative *Olfr266* promoter control for

differential analysis using Dunn's test with Holm correction.

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1031 *Conservation analysis*

1032 Cross-species evolutionary conservation was obtained using phyloP (Pollard et al. 2010).

1033 Pairwise comparisons between human SRR124 and SRR134 (GRCh38/hg38) and

1034 mouse mSRR96 and mSRR102 (GRCm38/mm10) sequences were plotted using

1035 FlexiDot (Seibt et al. 2018) with an 80% conservation threshold.

1036

ChIP-seq analysis

Transcription factor and histone modifications ChIP-seq were obtained from ENCODE

(ENCODE Project Consortium 2012) (Supplementary Table S28) and others (Chan et al.

2018; Cocce et al. 2019; Sato et al. 2019) (Supplementary Table S29). H3K4me1 and

H3K27ac tracks were normalized to input and library size (log_2 RPM). ATAC-seq reads

were normalized to library size (RPM). Histone modification ChIP-seq tracks and

transcription factor ChIP-seq peaks were uploaded to the UCSC browser (Kent et al.

2002, 20) for visualization. Normalized H3K4me1, H3K27ac and ATAC-seq reads were

quantified and the difference in normalized signal was calculated using diffBind. Peaks

with a $|log_2 FC| > 1$ and $Q < 0.01$ were considered significantly changing.

Overlapping ChIP-seq and ATAC-seq peaks were analyzed using ChIPpeakAnno (Zhu

et al. 2010). The hypergeometric test was performed by comparing the number of

overlapping peaks to the total size of the genome divided by the median peak size.

1050

Mouse line construction

Our mSRR96–102 knockout mouse line (C57BL/6J-Del(3)1Tcp/Jmit) was ordered from

and generated by The Centre for Phenogenomics (TCP) in Toronto, ON. The protocol for

the generation of the mouse line has been previously described (Gertsenstein and Nutter

2021). Briefly, C57BL/6J zygotes were collected from superovulated, mated, and plugged

female mice at 0.5-day post coitum. Zygotes were electroporated with Cas9 RNPs

complexes (gRNA sequences in Supplementary Table S25) and transferred into

pseudopregnant female recipients within 3-4 hours of electroporation. Born pups

(founders) were screened by end-point PCR and sequenced to confirm allelic mSRR96–

102 deletions. Heterozygous mSRR96–102 founders (ΔmENH$^{+/-}$) were then backcrossed

to the parental strain to confirm germline transmission. Once the mouse line was

established and the mSRR96–102 deletion was fully confirmed and sequenced in the N1

offspring, ΔmENH$^{+/-}$ mice were crossed and the number of live pups from each genotype

(WT, ΔmENH$^{+/-}$, ΔmENH$^{-/-}$) was assessed at weaning (P21). The obtained number of

live pups from each genotype was then compared to the expected mendelian ratio of

1:2:1 (WT : ΔmENH$^{+/-}$: ΔmENH$^{-/-}$) using a chi-squared test. Once the lethality of the

homozygous deletion was confirmed at weaning, E18.5 embryos generated from new

ΔmENH$^{+/-}$ crosses were collected for further histological analyses. All procedures

involving animals were performed in compliance with the Animals for Research Act of

Ontario and the Guidelines of the Canadian Council on Animal Care. The TCP Animal

Care Committee reviewed and approved all procedures conducted on animals at the

facility.

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Histological analyses

A total of 46 embryos were collected at E18.5 and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde. Each

embryo was genotyped, and a total of 15 embryos, 5 of each genotype (WT, ΔmENH$^{+/-}$,

ΔmENH$^{-/-}$), were randomly selected, processed, and embedded in paraffin for sectioning

and further analysis. Tissue sections were collected at 4μm thickness roughly at the start

of the thymus. Sections were prepared by the Pathology Core at TCP.

Tissue sections were stained with Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E) using an auto-stainer to

ensure batch consistency. Slides were scanned using a Hamamatsu Nanozoomer slide

scanner at 20X magnification. For immunohistochemistry staining, E18.5 embryo cross-

sections were submitted to heat-induced epitope retrieval with TRIS-EDTA (pH 9.0) for

10 minutes, followed by quenching of endogenous peroxidase with Bloxall reagent

(Vector). Non-specific antibody binding was blocked with 2.5 % normal horse serum

(Vector), followed by incubation for 1 hour in Rabbit anti-SOX2 (Abcam, ab92494, 1:500).

After washes, sections were incubated for 30 minutes with ImmPRESS Anti-Rabbit HRP

(Vector), followed by DAB reagent and counterstained in Mayer's hematoxylin.

For immunofluorescence staining, E18.5 embryo cross-sections were collected onto

charged slides and then baked at 60 ºC for 30 minutes. Tissue sections were submitted

to heat-induced epitope retrieval with Citrate Buffer pH 6.0 for 10 minutes. Non-specific

antibody binding was blocked with Protein Block Serum-Free (Dako) for 10 minutes,

followed by overnight incubation at 4 ºC in a primary antibody cocktail (Rabbit anti-

NKX2.1, Abcam ab76013 at 1:200; Rat anti-SOX2, Thermo Fisher Scientific 14-9811-80

at 1:100). After washes with TBS-T, sections were incubated for 1 hour with a cocktail of

Alexa Fluor-conjugated secondary antibodies at 1:200 (Goat anti-Rabbit IgG AF488 –

Thermo Fisher Scientific A32731; Goat anti-Rat IgG AF647 – Thermo Fisher Scientific

A21247), followed by counterstaining with DAPI. Scanning was performed using an

Olympus VS-120 slide scanner and imaged using a Hamamatsu ORCA-R2 C10600

digital camera for all dark-field and fluorescent images.

 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Supplementary Figure S1: (A) Super-logarithmic volcano plot of *PUM1* expression from

RNA-seq of 21 cancer types compared to normal tissue (Hoadley et al. 2014). Cancer

types with $\log_2$ FC > 1 and FDR-adjusted *Q* < 0.01 were considered to significantly

overexpress *PUM1*. Error bars: standard deviation. **(B)** Kaplan-Meier plot (Kaplan and

Meier 1958) of overall survival against time since diagnosis for 3,064 patients with BRCA

(n = 1089), COAD (n = 453), GBM (n = 153), LIHC (n = 370), LUAD (n = 504), and LUSC

(n = 495) tumors (Liu et al. 2018a). We divided patients into four equal groups and

compared two groups: high *SOX2* expression (range: 10.06–16.36 $\log_2$ counts) and low

SOX2 expression (range: 0–1.67 $\log_2$ counts). RNA-seq reads were normalized to library

size using DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014). Significance analysis by logrank test. The

shadowed area represents the 95% confidence interval. **(C)** Comparison of *SOX2*

expression ($\log_2$ counts) between luminal A (n = 560), luminal B (n = 207), HER2+ (n =

82), basal-like (n = 190) breast cancer subtypes (Berger et al. 2018; Hoadley et al. 2014)

and normal mammary tissue (n = 152) (Hoadley et al. 2014). RNA-seq reads were

normalized to library size using DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014). Error bars: standard deviation.

Significance analysis by Tukey's test (*** *P* < 0.001, * *P* < 0.05, ns: not significant). **(D)**

Volcano plot with DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014, 2) differential expression analysis between

WT MCF-7 cells and breast epithelium (Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium et al. 2015).

Blue: 7,937 genes that significantly lost expression ($\log_2$ FC < -1; FDR-adjusted *Q* < 0.01)

in WT MCF-7 cells. Pink: 5,335 genes that significantly gained expression ($\log_2$ FC > 1;

Q < 0.01) in WT MCF-7 cells. Grey: 25,342 genes that maintained similar (-1 ≤ $\log_2$ FC ≤

1) expression between WT MCF-7 and breast epithelium cells. **(E)** RT-qPCR analysis of

SOX2 transcript levels in the MCF-7, T47D, PC-9 and H520 cell lines. Error bars: standard

deviation. Significance analysis by Tukey's test (n = 3; *** *P* < 0.001).

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Supplementary Figure S2: (A) SOX2 protein levels in mouse embryonic stem cells

(mESC, positive control), WT, ΔENH$^{+/-}$, and ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 clones. Cyclophilin A (CypA)

was used as a loading control across all samples. **(B)** RT-qPCR analysis of *SOX2*

transcript levels in SRR124–134 heterozygous- (ΔENH$^{+/-}$) and homozygous- (ΔENH$^{-/-}$)

deleted H520 (LUSC) clones compared to WT cells. Error bars: standard deviation.

Significance analysis by Dunnett's test (n = 3, ns: not significant). **(C)** Euclidean distance

pairwise comparison between WT and ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 replicates (n = 3) using variance

stabilizing transformed RNA-seq reads from DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014). Darker colors

indicate a higher correlation. **(D)** Euclidean hierarchical clustering of 529 differentially

expressed genes (|log$_2$ FC| > 1; FDR-adjusted *Q* < 0.01) based on RNA-seq analysis

between WT and ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 replicates (n = 3). Reads were normalized for each

gene across treatments (Z-score). Blue color indicates downregulated genes (Z-score <

0). Red color indicates upregulated genes (Z-score > 0).

1140

Supplementary Figure S3: (A) ATAC-seq metagene enrichment plot ± 2 kb around the

transcription start site (TSS) across all genes from WT and ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells (n = 3).

Reads were normalized by library size (RPM). Grey: TSS. Shaded area: standard

deviation. **(B)** ATAC-seq metagene enrichment plot ± 2 kb around the transcription start

site (TSS) across 12,167 high (average log$_2$ counts = 9.12), 12,167 medium (average log$_2$

counts = 2.94), and 12,167 low (average log$_2$ counts = 0.43) expressed genes in WT

MCF-7 cells. Genes were split into each group according to RNA-seq data. RNA-seq

reads were normalized to library size using DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014). Grey: TSS. **(C)**

ATAC-seq metagene enrichment plot ± 2 kb around the transcription start site (TSS)

across 12,167 high (average $\log_2$ counts = 9.10), 12,167 medium (average $\log_2$ counts =

2.97), and 12,167 low (average $\log_2$ counts = 0.47) expressed genes in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7

cells. Genes were split into each group according to RNA-seq data. RNA-seq reads were

normalized to library size using DESeq2 (Love et al. 2014). Grey: TSS. **(D)** Pairwise

Pearson correlation comparison between WT and ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 replicates (n = 3) using

ATAC-seq normalized signal from diffBind (Stark R, Brown G 2011). Darker colors

indicate a higher correlation. **(E)** Overlap between GRHL2 ChIP-seq peaks (Cocce et al.

2019) and ATAC-seq peaks that significantly ($\log_2$ FC < -1; P < 0.01) lost chromatin

accessibility in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells. Significance analysis by the hypergeometric test

(Zhu et al. 2010). **(F)** Overlap between RUNX2 ChIP-seq peaks (Jeselsohn et al. 2017)

and ATAC-seq peaks that significantly ($\log_2$ FC < -1; P < 0.01) lost chromatin accessibility

in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells. Significance analysis by the hypergeometric test (Zhu et al.

2010).

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Supplementary Figure S4: (A) ATAC-seq signal at the *RAB7A* promoter (pRAB7A),

SOX2 promoter (pSOX2), SRR1, SRR2, SRR124, SRR134, human SCR (hSCR) and

desert region versus the background signal at the repressed *OR5K1* promoter (pOR5K1)

in BLCA (n = 10), BRCA (n = 74), COAD (n = 38), ESCA (n = 18), GBM (n = 9), HNSC (n

= 9), LGG (n = 13), LIHC (n = 16), LUAD (n = 22), LUSC (n = 16), PRAD (n = 26), STAD

(n = 21), TGCT (n = 9), and UCEC (n = 13) patient tumors. Dashed line: regions with $\log_2$

RPM > 0 were considered "accessible". Error bars: standard deviation. Significance

analysis by Dunn's test with Holm correction (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, ns:

not significant). **(B)** ATAC-seq signal at the *SOX2* desert region (desert) against ATAC-

seq signal for the *SOX2* promoter (pSOX2) from 74 BRCA, 22 LUAD, and 16 LUSC

patient tumors. Dashed line: regions with $\log_2$ RPM > 0 were considered "accessible".

Significance analysis by Pearson correlation. Bolded line: fitted linear regression model.

Shaded area: 95% confidence region for the regression fit. **(C)** ATAC-seq signal at

SRR124 and SRR134 regions against ATAC-seq signal for the *SOX2* promoter (pSOX2)

from BRCA patient tumors separated into luminal A (n = 31), luminal B (n = 16), HER2$^+$

(n = 10), and basal-like (n = 14) subtypes (Berger et al. 2018; Corces et al. 2018).

Correlation is shown for accessible chromatin ($\log_2$ RPM > 0). Grey: tumors with closed

chromatin ($\log_2$ RPM < 0) at either region, not included in the correlation analysis.

Significance analysis by Pearson correlation. Bolded line: fitted linear regression model.

Shaded area: 95% confidence region for the regression fit.

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Supplementary Figure S5: (A) RT-qPCR analysis of *FOXA1 and NFIB* expression in the

H520, MCF-7, PC-9, and T47D cell lines. Error bars: standard deviation. Significance

analysis by Tukey's test (n = 3; ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$). **(B)** FACS plot of tagBFP signal

(450 nm) over side scatter (SSC) in WT and *SOX2*-P2A-tagBFP MCF-7 cells. Cell

populations within the top 10% tagBFP signal were considered "tagBFP positive"

(BFP^{+ve}), whereas populations within the bottom 10% BFP signal were considered

"tagBFP negative" (BFP^{-ve}).

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Supplementary Figure S6: (A) Dot-plot alignment of human (GRCh38/hg38, y-axis)

SRR124 and SRR134, and mouse (GRCm38/mm10, x-axis) mSRR96 and mSRR102

homologous sequences (1,500 bp). Lines indicate high conservation scores (> 80%)

across both species. Sequence alignment using Clustal Omega (Sievers et al. 2011). **(B)**

ATAC-seq quantification ($\log_2$ RPM) at the promoter of the housekeeping gene *Egf* (pEgf,

positive control), *Sox2* promoter (pSox2), mSRR1, mSRR2, mSRR96, mSRR102, mSCR,

and a mouse desert (mdesert) region compared to the background signal at the repressed

Olfr266 promoter (pOlfr266) in lung and stomach embryonic tissues from the mouse

(ENCODE Project Consortium 2012). mSRR96: homologous to SRR124. mSRR102:

homologous to SRR134. Dashed line: regions with a sum of reads above our threshold

($\log_2$ RPM > 0) were considered "accessible". Error bars: standard deviation. Significance

analysis by Dunn's test with Holm correction (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, ns:

not significant). **(C)** Immunofluorescence staining of WT, ΔENH$^{+/-}$, and ΔENH$^{-/-}$ E18.5

embryos with DAPI (blue), NKX2.1 (green), and SOX2 (white). Cross-sections were

prepared at the thymus levels. Scale bar: 200μm. Es: esophagus; Tr: trachea; EA/TEF:

esophageal atresia with distal tracheoesophageal fistula.

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Supplementary Table S1: List of TCGA tumor type abbreviations.

Supplementary Table S2: *SOX2* differential expression analysis between primary tumor

vs. normal tissue across TCGA cancer types.

Supplementary Table S3: *PUM1* differential expression analysis between primary tumor

vs. normal tissue across TCGA cancer types.

Supplementary Table S4: TCGA cancer patient overall survival analysis relative to

SOX2 expression levels.

Supplementary Table S5: TCGA copy number variation (CNV) and *SOX2* expression

analysis.

Supplementary Table S6: RNA-seq differential expression analysis between WT MCF-

7 vs. breast epithelium (ENCODE).

Supplementary Table S7: Differential ATAC-seq, H3K4me1, and H3K27ac analysis

within ± 1 Mb of the *SOX2* gene in WT MCF-7 vs. Breast epithelium (ENCODE).

Supplementary Table S8: RNA-seq differential expression analysis comparing ΔENH$^{-/-}$

versus WT MCF-7 cells.

Supplementary Table S9: Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) in WT versus ΔENH^{-}

$^{/-}$ MCF-7 cells.

Supplementary Table S10: Significantly changing ATAC-seq peaks in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ versus

WT MCF-7 cells.

Supplementary Table S11: ATAC-seq peaks that commonly gained signal in WT MCF-

7 vs. breast epithelium and lost signal in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ MCF-7 cells.

Supplementary Table S12: ATAC-seq footprint analysis in ΔENH$^{-/-}$ vs. WT MCF-7 cells.

Supplementary Table S13: ChIP-seq motif analysis of GRHL2 peaks in WT MCF-7 cells.

Supplementary Table S14: ChIP-seq motif analysis of RUNX2 peaks in WT MCF-7 cells.

Supplementary Table S15: Coordinates of regions used in genome-wide analysis in

humans (GRCh38/hg38).

Supplementary Table S16: Chromatin accessibility analysis across TCGA cancer types.

Supplementary Table S17: ATAC-seq quantification used to separate patient tumors

into expression groups and their *SOX2* expression levels.

Supplementary Table S18: Significantly correlated transcription factors to accessible

chromatin at the SRR124–134 cluster in BRCA, LUAD, and LUSC tumors.

Supplementary Table S19: *FOXA1* transcript levels and chromatin accessibility at the

SRR124–134 cluster in BRCA, LUAD, and LUSC patient tumors.

Supplementary Table S20: *NFIB* transcript levels and chromatin accessibility at the

SRR124–134 cluster in BRCA, LUAD, and LUSC patient tumors.

Supplementary Table S21: WT, FOXA1, and NFIB mutated SRR134 sequences.

Supplementary Table S22: Chromatin accessibility analysis in human (GRCh38/hg38)

lung and stomach embryonic tissues.

Supplementary Table S23: Coordinates of regions used in genome-wide analysis in the

mouse (GRCm38/mm10).

Supplementary Table S24: Chromatin accessibility analysis in mouse (GRCm38/mm10)

embryonic lung and stomach tissues

Supplementary Table S25: List of gRNA sequences used for CRISPR/Cas9.

Supplementary Table S26: List of primers used for enhancer cloning.

Supplementary Table S27: List of primers used in RT-qPCR experiments.

Supplementary Table S28: ENCODE datasets used in this paper.

Supplementary Table S29: GEO datasets used in this paper.

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DATA AVAILABILITY

Sequencing and processed data files were submitted to the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO; https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/) repository (GSE132344).

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

L.E.A. designed and performed bioinformatic analyses, cell culture work, CRISPR deletions, data curation, gene expression quantification, and led the conceptualization and writing of the manuscript; P.L.F. assessed cellular phenotypes, including the colony formation assay; L.H. acquired and processed TCGA ATAC-seq data, and assisted in writing review & editing; M.C. assisted in the writing review & editing; M.M.H. provided TCGA data access and assisted in writing review & editing; J.A.M. was involved in

supervision, funding acquisition, data interpretation, experimental design, and writing

review & editing. All authors have participated in the editing and approval of the

manuscript.

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