Multiple repeat regions within mouse DUX recruit chromatin regulators to facilitate an

embryonic gene expression program

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Abstract

The embryonic transcription factor DUX regulates chromatin opening and gene expression in

totipotent cleavage-stage mouse embryos, and its expression in embryonic stem cells promotes

their conversion to 2-cell embryo-like cells (2CLCs) with extraembryonic potential. However,

little is known regarding which domains within mouse DUX interact with particular chromatin

and transcription regulators. Here, we reveal that the C-terminus of mouse DUX contains five

uncharacterized ~100 amino acid (aa) repeats followed by an acidic 14 amino acid

tail. Unexpectedly, structure-function approaches classify two repeats as 'active' and three as

'inactive' in cleavage/2CLC transcription program enhancement, with differences narrowed to a

key 6 amino acid section. Our proximity dependent biotin ligation (BioID) approach identified

factors selectively associated with active DUX repeat derivatives (including the 14aa 'tail'),

including transcription and chromatin factors such as SWI/SNF (BAF) complex, as well as

nucleolar factors that have been previously implicated in regulating the *Dux* locus. Finally, our

mechanistic studies reveal cooperativity between DUX active repeats and the acidic tail in

cofactor recruitment, DUX target opening, and transcription. Taken together, we provide

several new insights into DUX structure-function, and mechanisms of chromatin and gene

regulation.

Introduction

Mouse pre-implantation development is a dynamic and complex process, which begins

with a single-cell zygote and results in an implanted embryo bearing cells with different lineage

specifications and fates. Within this period, numerous molecular processes must be properly

completed, which are driven (in part) by gene expression changes and chromatin modifications

(1,2). A hallmark of pre-implantation development is major embryonic genome activation

(EGA), which occurs at the 2-cell stage in the mouse embryo(3). This critical process includes

decreases in maternally-deposited mRNAs and proteins, combined with the onset of both

embryo-derived transcription and translation – effectively turning developmental control over

to the embryo from maternal resources in the egg (4). During EGA, chromatin undergoes

considerable remodeling to enable enhancer and promoter accessibility, allowing for the onset

of major embryonic transcription, and the marking of promoters and enhancers for future

regulation (5–7).

Mouse embryonic stem cells (mESCs) are derived from the inner cell mass (ICM) of the

blastocyst, and have enabled studies focused on the characterization of the blastocyst and

downstream embryonic differentiation(8). In addition, the mESC system has been extended to

examine properties of earlier cleavage-stage totipotent-related cells. Specifically, a small (<1%)

population of spontaneously fluctuating mESCs has been identified, which closely resemble

cells within the 2-cell embryo, termed 2-cell-like cells (2CLC) (9–12). Our lab and others showed

that the expression of *Dux*, which encodes the double homeodomain transcription factor DUX,

is sufficient to confer this 2C-like state to mESCs (12–14). However, we currently have an

incomplete understanding regarding how DUX establishes the 2C transcriptome. *DUX4*, the

human *Dux* ortholog is similarly expressed during EGA, which occurs at the 4-cell stage in

humans. Likewise, DUX4 expression in human ESCs converts these cells to transcription

programs resembling the 4-8 cell human cleavage-stage embryo (15–18). DUX4 has additionally

been identified as the causal gene in facioscapulohumeral dystrophy (FSHD), leading to the

protein being intensely studied to identify its pathological traits (19–21).

DUX is known to be targeted to specific sites in the genome (including genes and MERVL

LTRs) by its two N-terminal homeodomains, whereas its C-terminal region drives transcriptional

activation(12,22,23). However, little is known about the nature of this C-terminal region, which

is much more divergent among *DUX* orthologs than are the homeodomains (24,25). One

possible contributor to transcriptional activation involves the interaction of the C-terminus of

DUX4 with the related histone acetyltransferases p300 and CBP (23,26). However, these or

other interactions have not been identified with mouse DUX. Regarding chromatin remodeling

during EGA, the abundant ATP-dependent chromatin remodeler SWI/SNF (BAF) complex plays a

central role(27,28). Specifically, SMARCA4, the catalytic ATPase within SWI/SNF complex, is

required for important for EGA in the 2-cell mouse embryo (29). SMARCC1 is a core structural

scaffold for SWI/SNF complexes, and its absence results in loss of complex activity *in vivo(30)*.

However, possible physical links between mouse DUX and the chromatin remodeler SWI/SNF

complex during EGA or during the mESC to 2C-like transition is currently unknown.

DUX activates about 25% of EGA genes and DUX expression is sufficient to revert mESCs

to an earlier totipotent stage(12). Consistent with DUX impacting early development, *Dux-/-*

crosses yield smaller litter sizes (22). However, as viable *Dux -/-* pups are generated, factor(s)

redundant with DUX appear to contribute to DUX target activation and chromatin

reprogramming in 2-cell embryos (22,31). Recently, oocyte-specific homeobox 4 (OBOX4), a

factor highly expressed during EGA and in 2C-like mESCs, has been identified as partly

redundant with DUX in 2-cell embryos(32). Taken together, DUX and OBOX4 appear to

cooperate to ensure proper EGA in the early mouse embryo.

In this study, we sought to better characterize DUX domains, identify proteins

interacting with DUX domains, and understand how DUX domains contribute to DUX target

gene activation, DUX promoter recruitment, and chromatin accessibility at binding sites.

Specifically, we reveal a unique C-terminal repeat structure in mouse DUX, and characterize two

functionally distinct repeat types (termed 'active' and 'inactive') and cooperativity of the active

repeats with the C-terminal acidic tail. Additionally, we identify DUX domains that interact with

the chromatin remodeler subunit SMARCC1, which alongside the ability of DUX to confer

histone acetylation, reveals new mechanistic insight into how the C-terminus of DUX confers

transcriptional activation.

Results

88 **The mouse DUX C-terminus has five conserved repeats followed by a 14 amino acid 'tail'**

89   Curiously, mouse DUX protein (673 amino acids (aa)) is considerably longer than DUX

90 orthologs such as human DUX4 (424 aa). Through manual inspection and alignments of mouse

91 DUX with other orthologs, we identified five protein repeats within DUX of ~100 aa each,

92 followed by a single 14aa highly-acidic C-terminal 'tail' (Figure 1a). However, human DUX4

93 contains only a single copy of this 'repeat' domain, which is likewise followed by a 14aa tail that

94 closely resembles the acidic tail in mouse DUX (Figure 1b). Prior work has revealed that the

95 acidic DUX4 C-terminal tail helps activate transcription, in part by binding to CBP and p300 (23).

96 To determine whether other placental mammals (e.g. rat, bovine, and human) contain a C-

97 terminal repeat structure similar to mouse DUX, we conducted pairwise alignments, which

98 revealed repeats only in the mouse lineage (Figure 1c, Supplementary Figure 1a,b,c). The

99 human DUX4 C-terminal region is most similar to the 3rd repeat of mouse DUX whereas the

100 bovine DUXC C-terminal region was most similar to the 5th repeat (Supplementary Figure 1d).

101 These findings suggest either repeat C3 or repeat C5 as the parental repeat for the other four.

102   Next, we assessed the contribution of mouse DUX repeats to transcriptional activity by

103 examining *Dux*-/- mESCs containing a MERVL::GFP reporter. The long-terminal repeat (LTR) of

104 MERVL is bound by DUX, and MERVL:GFP is commonly used to assess DUX activation and

105 conversion of mESCs to a 2CLC state (9,12). First, *Dux*-/- mESCs were transiently transfected

106 with mCherry-tagged DUX repeat domain constructs encoding zero to five C-terminal repeats,

107 without the 14aa tail (Figure 1d). Cells were induced with doxycycline for 18 hours, gated on

108 mCherry positivity, and MERVL::GFP expression was quantified by flow cytometry

109 (Supplementary Figure 1e). Expression of each derivative was confirmed by Western analysis

(Supplementary Figure 1f). The flow cytometry results reveal that the first two repeats have

minimal activity, but with the addition of the third repeat, low MERVL::GFP expression is

observed. The activity is further improved by the addition of the fourth and fifth repeat. The

results also support a potential role for the 14aa 'tail' in activation, as its omission appeared to

modestly lower MERVL::GFP expression (Figure 1d). Thus, our initial deletion series revealed

activity with repeats 3-5, but not with repeats 1-2 alone. However, this experiment did not

determine whether the repeats act in a simple additive manner, or if individual repeats confer

distinct transcriptional activity in a singular manner, or how they cooperate with the acidic tail.

DUX C-terminal repeats C3 and C5 contribute to transcriptional activation when combined

with the 14aa tail

We next explored the contributions of individual repeats, along with their cooperation

with the C-terminal acidic 'tail'. Here, we generated N-terminal mCherry-tagged DUX

derivatives with varying numbers of repeats either with or without the 14aa tail, as well as with

or without single or both homeodomains (Supplementary Figure 2a). All constructs contain a

$GGGGS_2$ linker present in constructs with a single internal deletion and $GGGGS_2$ and $GAGAS_2$

with constructs with two internal deletions. First, as expected, derivatives lacking either

homeodomain failed to activate the MERVL::GFP reporter (Supplementary Figure 2a). Second,

combinations involving C1, C2 or C4 with the acidic 'tail' lack activation of the MERL::GFP

reporter, whereas combinations of C3 or C5 with the 'tail' display potent reporter activation

(Figure 2a). The latter combinations require the 14aa tail as constructs lacking the 14aa tail, but

containing the C3 or C5 repeat alone did not activate the reporter. Notably, a construct

containing C1 and C2 with the 14aa tail was inert, whereas C1, C2 and C3 with the 14aa tail was

highly active (Supplementary Figure 2a). Together, these results suggest that strong DUX target

gene activation requires a combination of two C-terminal domains: a transcriptionally 'active'

repeat (C3 or C5) and the 14aa tail (Figure 2b).

To determine the amino acids selectively involved in DUX target activation within the

active C3 and C5 repeats, chimeric constructs between C1 (a transcriptionally 'inactive' repeat)

and C3 (a transcriptionally 'active' repeat) were made, all containing the 14aa tail. The

cutoff/transition point between chimera regions occurred in 3 aa increments along the 2

repeats (Figure 2c, Supplementary Figure 2b). This narrowed down the functional difference to

a 6 aa region which is conserved between repeats C3 and C5, but not conserved in C1, C2, and

C4. Importantly, replacement solely of this 6 aa sequence from the active C3 repeat into

inactive C1 repeat (termed C1DPLELF+14aa) conferred robust activation of the MERVL::GFP

reporter (Figure 2d).

In order to expand these analyses to global transcription and all DUX targets (beyond

the MERVL::GFP reporter), we performed RNA-seq on full-length (FL) DUX and selected chimera

constructs. This approach was designed to test whether the 'active' constructs might differ in

their gene targets (Figure 2e and Supplementary Figure 2c). First, the PCA plot for these

samples separated samples largely into two groups – active versus inactive – with one sample

in an intermediate position (Figure 2e). Interestingly, the DUX constructs which activate the

MERVL::GFP reporter (FL, C1C3a, and C3+14a) all showed strong activation of DUX target genes,

whereas the 'inactive' constructs that do not activate the MERVL::GFP reporter (C1+14aa,

C1C3c, and mCherry alone) did not activate DUX target genes (Figure 2f). Notably, the

intermediate position was occupied by the C1C3b derivative, reinforcing the notion that the 6aa

region is important for regulating target activation. K-means clustering of the RNA-seq for the

chimera constructs at DUX target generated three clusters of genes: the first two of which

largely contained genes activated by FL DUX, whereas the cluster #3 contains genes that have

increased expression in DUX domain derivatives compared to FL DUX. The 'intermediate'

derivative C1C3b, which is a hybrid of an 'active' and an 'inactive' repeat, was capable of

activating the majority of DUX targets in cluster #1, but failed to activate those in cluster #2,

whereas it activated (or failed to attenuate) genes in cluster #3. Genes activated by C1C3b in

cluster #3 generate GO terms such as 'upregulated include synapse assembly', 'sex

differentiation', 'reproductive structure development', and 'neuron differentiation'. Here,

cluster 3 shows examples of known DUX target genes that have a higher relative expression in

C1C3b compared to full-length DUX include *Obox1*, *Olfr1277*, *Obox2*, and *Zfp296*. These

combined observations, especially those involving derivatives that cause the precocious

activation of genes in cluster #3, raise the interesting possibility that the 'inactive' repeats may

serve to attenuate the active repeats at particular targets, such as *Obox* genes. Finally, when

considering amino acid similarity between the five repeats, we note that C3 and C5 are most

similar to one another, compared to C1, C2, and C4 (Supplementary Figure 2d).

Chromatin alterations at DUX binding sites require a transcriptionally active DUX repeat

173   To investigate the chromatin landscape effects conferred by *Dux* derivative expression,

we performed CUT&Tag in *Dux*-/-mESCs on selected *Dux* domain constructs: FL, C12345△14aa,

C3+14aa, C3△14aa, △C12345+14aa, and mCherry alone. Because all of the constructs had the

same N-terminal mCherry tag, an mCherry antibody was used throughout. We isolated and

analyzed clonal stable cell lines which expressed species of the expected protein size and

demonstrated comparable expression to one another (Figure 3a). It is of note that mCherry-

DUX protein is expected to run at roughly 100kDa, but runs anomalously on polyacrylamide gels

– at 150kDa. This is likely due to a property of the C-terminal repeats as the homeodomains

alone run at the expected molecular weight. To benchmark DUX CUT&Tag against previous

chromatin occupancy data, we first generated a CUT&Tag dataset for mCherry-tagged full-

length DUX protein, and found that it overlapped highly with previously published HA-tagged

DUX ChIP-seq results (Supplementary Figure 3a) (12). Extension of CUT&Tag to the DUX

derivatives revealed their moderate-to-high occupancy at DUX sites, except for C3△14aa, which

displayed reduced occupancy at DUX binding sites (Figure 3b, 3c). Next, we determined the

ability of our DUX domain constructs to alter H3K9ac, as H3K9ac globally increases in 2C-like

cells (33). Notably, H3K9ac occurs at DUX binding sites correlating with the of transcriptional

activity of each *Dux* construct (Figure 3d,e, Supplementary Figure 3b). Taken together, our data

demonstrate that the 14aa acidic tail is not strictly required for the occupancy of DUX targets.

Further, our data suggest that the 14aa tail is important for conferring H3K9ac aids at bound

sites and might also be involved in retention of DUX at target sites since removal of the 14aa

tail in the context of a single active repeat appeared to diminish target occupancy.

Proximity-labeling with full-length DUX reveals interactions with proteins involved in

chromatin de-repression.

Next, we identified proteins that interact with DUX derivatives using the BioID approach,

which identifies proteins that interact directly, indirectly, or transiently with a protein of

interest (34). Here, we utilized BioID to define protein interactions with DUX in the 2C-like

cellular environment. To accomplish this, we fused BirA*, a promiscuous biotinylating enzyme,

to the N-terminus of full length DUX. When biotin is added to the growth media, BirA* will

biotinylate lysine residues of proteins within a 10nm radius. Our approach involved the

isolation of biotinylated proteins and the use of liquid chromatography mass spectrometry (LC

MS/MS) to identify associated proteins in a quantitative manner (Figure 4a). Our experimental

design compared expression of BirA*-DUX (full-length) in mESCs (which creates a 2C-like state)

to expression of unfused BirA* alone (control) expressed in a 2C-like environment, in order to

mimic a DUX-expressing 2C-like proteome in both conditions (Figure 4b). Here, we created

clonal stable cell lines harboring our constructs, and expressed the proteins for 12hr with 0.25

μg/mL doxycycline and 5μM biotin. DESeq2 analysis of the sum intensity values from LC MS/MS

revealed clustering between replicates (Supplementary Figure 4a) and a volcano plot revealed

an enrichment in protein interactions for BirA*-DUX compared to BirA* alone, including those

involved in chromatin de-repression such as the SWI/SNF (BAF) complex members SMARCC1

and SMARCA4 (Figure 4c, 4d). In addition to DESeq2 analysis, which is normally used for RNA-

seq data, we applied the SAINTexpress package, which is designed for protein interactome

analysis, to additionally analyze this dataset. DESeq2 appeared to be slightly less stringent than

SAINTexpress analysis, with a larger number passing statistical threshold ($p_{adj} < 0.05$)

(Supplementary Figure 4b). SAINTexpress uses a statistical score called SAINTscore ranging from

0-1, with a significance threshold established as ≥ 0.73, which parallels an estimated protein-

level Bayesian FDR of < 0.05(35).

SWI/SNF subunit SMARCC1 and transcription factor ZSCAN4D, two statistically

significant hits from both analyses, were then selected for validation by testing for interaction

in vivo via immunoprecipitation. We expressed N-terminally FLAG-tagged versions of SMARCC1

and ZSCAN4 in HEK293 cells co-expressing the BirA*-DUX fusion in the presence of 50 μM biotin

(50μM biotin for BioID was empirically determined as the optimal dose in HEK293Ts). SMARCC1

and ZSCAN4 were immunoprecipitated with anti-FLAG conjugated beads, and analysis with an

avidin-HRP blot showed they are both biotinylated and co-IP with DUX protein, validating BioID

protein interactions (Figure 4e). Additionally, CHAF1A, an additional BioID hit, was also

validated through FLAG-tag co-IP and DUX protein interaction, however KDM4C did not

validate, suggesting that this hit was a false positive (Supplementary Figure 4c), and highlighting

the importance of validating the BioID results.

Lastly, it has been previously reported that human DUX4 interacts with p300 (23,26),

however p300 was not identified as a significant interactor in our dataset. This could be due to

differences in the interactomes of human DUX4 and mouse DUX, or instead be technical, due

perhaps to a lack of sensitivity to detect P300 peptides. To determine if mouse DUX similarly

interacts with P300, we performed a BioID-like experiment in mESCs, which revealed p300 as

modestly biotinylated, suggesting that a portion of p300 comes in close proximity with DUX, but

was not annotated in the dataset, representing a possible false negative (Supplementary Figure

4d). In summary, our BioID experiment included chromatin- and transcription-related factors, a

portion of which were validated using co-immunoprecipitation, which support prior

observations of a strong impact of DUX occupancy on chromatin opening and transcriptional

activity.

Transcriptionally active DUX C-terminal repeat C3 binds to proteins involved in chromatin

remodeling

Our work above presents the opportunity to identify proteins that interact differentially with

a transcriptionally 'active' DUX derivative compared to a highly similar 'inactive' DUX derivative.

Here, we separately N-terminally tagged our C1+14aa and C3+14aa derivatives with BirA*, to

represent transcriptionally 'inactive' and 'active' DUX constructs, respectively (Figure 5a). The

experimental design and setup was identical to that described in Figure 4a, but the mESC line

utilized bore a *Dux*-/- genotype. Furthermore, in place of the BirA* alone control, the inactive

BirA*-C1 (BirA* fused to C1+14aa) was used as the control construct for comparison to the

active BirA*-C3 (BirA* fused to C3+14aa).

PCA and clustering analysis reveals that the three replicates of the 'active' C3 derivative

group together and are more similar to each other (via clustering) than are the C1 replicates,

and vice versa (Supplementary Figure 4e,f).   Using SAINTexpress, we observed many more

statistically-enriched (SAINTscore ≥ 0.73) protein interactions occurring with the DUX C3

'active' repeat compared to the 'inactive' C1 repeat. Specifically, we observed 12 proteins with

the C1 derivative, and 154 proteins with C3 (Figure 5b). For C3 derivative interactors, GO-term

analysis identified two overarching functional categories: chromatin and the nucleolus. Within

the chromatin category, proteins within the NuRD, SWI/SNF and ISWI chromatin remodeling

complexes were prominent (Figure 5c). Notably, proper formation of the nucleolus has been

found to be required for *Dux* repeat locus silencing (36,37), and our data strongly suggests a

direct physical interaction with nucleolar components, as DUX can bind to its own genetic locus

(38).

To further investigate chromatin-related interactors of interest, we performed co-IPs for

FLAG-tagged SMARCC1 (BAF155) (described above) using selected DUX domain derivatives.

First, SMARCC1 binding to DUX appears only slightly diminished with the loss of the 14aa tail

(Figure 5d). SMARCC1 also binds well to a DUX derivative containing both an active C3 repeat

and the acidic tail (C3+14aa), and binding is largely maintained when the tail is removed

(C3△14aa). Finally, a major reduction in SMARCC1 binding is observed when all repeats are

removed and only the acidic tail remains. This suggests a hierarchy of interaction for DUX and

SMARCC1: an 'active' repeat alone binds SMARCC1 whereas the acidic 'tail' alone does not bind

SMARCC1, however the acidic tail slightly improves SMARCC1 interaction when active and

inactive repeats are both present (full-length DUX).

Lastly, we wanted to determine whether the SWI/SNF (BAF) component SMARCC1 is

recruited to DUX binding sites by DUX, and if so, which DUX domains confer this function. To

address this, we performed CUT&Tag for endogenous SMARCC1 in the DUX derivatives and

found, similar to our co-IP results, that SMARCC1 is recruited to DUX binding sites by DUX

derivates that contain active C-terminal repeats but not by the 14aa tail (Figure 5e). Thus,

binding and recruitment of SWI/SNF to DUX targets *in vivo* appears to rely on interaction with

active DUX C-terminal repeats.

To continue investigating DUX interaction with SWI/SNF, we performed ATAC-seq in the DUX

derivatives to determine whether SMARCC1 recruitment to DUX binding sites correlates with

chromatin accessibility changes (Figure 5f). The results suggest a similar hierarchy of interaction

observed in the SMARCC1 CUT&Tag experiment for DUX domain constructs. At DUX binding

sites, full-length DUX leads to increased opening, as do C12345△14aa and C3+14aa, the two

derivatives which confer transcriptional activity. However, DUX derivatives which lack

transcriptional activity or have decreased binding to SMARCC1 display a corresponding

decrease in chromatin opening, though some opening does occur. This evidence further

supports a combinatorial domain model for proper DUX protein interaction, occupancy, and

target activation – revealing a major/required contribution from the C-terminal repeats and

augmentation by the C-terminal tail.

Discussion

Embryonic genome activation (EGA) creates a transcriptome and proteome that replaces

maternally-inherited components, reprograms chromatin and drives cleavage-stage processes

(12). The transcription factor DUX is highly but transiently expressed during EGA (specifically

the early 2-cell embryo stage) from a large locus containing ~30 *Dux* repeats. DUX plays a key

role in opening many promoters and enhancers, and in activating endogenous genes and repeat

elements in the 2-cell embryo (38). DUX targets account for about 25% of the cleavage-stage

transcriptome, and partly overlap with targets of OBOX4, underlying the observation that

combined DUX and OBOX4 omission/depletion strongly affects embryo development (32).

Although DUX targeting by its N-terminal homeodomains is well understood, how domains in

the C-terminus of DUX contribute to chromatin reprogramming and transcription has remained

largely unknown (24). Here, we conducted an analysis combined with proximity ligation to

reveal the protein partners of DUX domains and the roles of DUX domains in chromatin

remodeling and transcriptional activation.

First, we found that the mouse DUX C-terminal region contains five ~100aa repeats (termed

C1-5) followed by a 14aa acidic C-terminal tail, whereas DUX orthologs contain only one copy of

this repeat, followed by a similar acidic tail. Our phylogenetic and DUX domain analyses

suggest that two of the repeats (C3 and C5) perform a more active role – and we note that the

single repeat present in DUX orthologs more highly resembles the 'active' repeats C3 and C5,

than the 'inactive' C1/2/4 repeats. Interestingly, single 'active' repeats show no transcriptional

stimulation on their own, but show potent activity in combination with the acidic tail,

essentially mimicking the domain-activity relationships of their human, rat or bovine DUX4

orthologs. Together, these observations suggest that additional DUX repeats may have derived

from duplication of either C3 or C5 active repeat, with subsequent sub-functionalization.

These observations raise two interesting questions – why does DUX have multiple repeats

with different activities, and what distinguishes active from inactive repeats? Our work has

localized the differences between active and inactive repeats to a small 6 aa region, and active

versus inactive repeats (in combination with the acidic tail) show very different profiles of

protein interaction – with active repeats displaying more robust interaction with chromatin and

transcription partners. Interestingly, we observe a cohort of genes (Figure 2f, cluster #3) that

are silent with full-length DUX, silent with an 'inactive' repeat (C1), but active with a single

'active' repeat (C3). This raises the possibility that the 'inactive' repeats may serve to attenuate

the activity of the active repeats under certain conditions or at certain locations. Of note, DUX

binds to its own promoter to help activate a strong positive feedback loop; however, *Dux*

activation is brief (half a cell cycle), with silencing accompanying the association of the large

Dux locus with the nucleolar envelope(38,39).   Interestingly, we observe high enrichment of

nucleolar components with the 'active' C3 repeat, raising the possibility that the 'active' repeat

may initially recruit powerful chromatin and transcription factors, and then subsequently

contribute to localizing the *Dux* locus to a compartment that overcomes and/or reverses those

associations to enable *Dux* locus silencing(36). Furthermore, interactions of DUX with histone

deacetylase components were obtained, which remain to be fully explored in this silencing

process. These observations provide new mechanistic information as well as opening new

avenues for future exploration regarding the ability of DUX to function as a strong activator,

while also helping to subsequently silence the repetitive *Dux* locus. Here, we envision that

temporal and/or locus-specific post-translational modifications on DUX may mediate the

temporal associations of DUX with target factors. Indeed, the presence of both 'active' and

'inactive' DUX repeats may help in coordination of these associations.

Regarding the functions of the DUX C-terminus, prior work of others has shown that the

acidic C-terminal tail of DUX4 promotes transcriptional activation and interaction with the

histone acetyltransferase p300(23). Our validation experiments confirmed those results with

mouse DUX, and we extended our studies to explore the roles and relationships of the repeat

regions, both alone and in combination with the acidic tail. Our examination of *Dux* domain

constructs was extensive, and included RNA-seq, CUT&Tag, BioID, ATAC-seq and the ability to

convert mouse ES cells to 2C-like cells. As DUX opens chromatin, and as three SWI/SNF

complex components were present in our BioID results (SMARCC1, SMARCA4, ACL6A), these

results prompted our direct assessment and validation of the recruitment of SWI/SNF complex

(monitoring the core SMARCC1 subunit) to DUX binding sites (Figure 5c, Figure 6a).

An additional goal was to explore whether the functions and associations of the active

repeats versus the acidic tail are largely separable/independent, or instead primarily additive or

cooperative.   First, regarding the activation of cleavage-specific genes (including MERVL), the

target repertoire observe with full-length DUX is largely recapitulated with DUX derivatives

containing the homeodomains and both active C-terminal repeats – even in the absence of the

acidic tail. Thus, the tail accentuates activity, but is not strictly required for activity at the vast

majority of targets. Regarding domain contributions to occupying DUX targets, all derivatives

were able to bind DUX targets, though the absence of the acidic tail lowers occupancy if only

one active repeat is present. This contrasts with the recruitment of H3K9ac activity; here,

neither the acidic tail nor an active repeat is sufficient for recruitment; instead, either multiple

repeats or repeat-tail combinations appear needed. For SMARCC1 (SWI/SNF), an active repeat

is sufficient for recruitment, but recruitment is enhanced by the addition of the tail, whereas

the tail alone appears ineffective. Finally, and of particular interest, a DUX derivative lacking

repeat regions but containing the acidic tail (△C12345+14) occupies DUX targets, but does not

activate targets – and does not recruit either H3K9ac or SWI/SNF complex. Therefore, the

acidic tail appears to be effective only when combined with an active C-terminal repeat.

Overall, our data is consistent with largely cooperative functions for active repeat(s) and the

acidic tail – as the absence of either compromises most functions and interactions – but places

the C-terminal domains as more important domain in the hierarchy, as key factors like SWI/SNF

complex are fully reliant on an active repeat for interaction. In keeping, our work predicts

interactions with chromatin and transcription factors involving combined surfaces on repeats

and the acidic tail (a two-domain model).

As previewed above, our proximity-labeling (BioID) revealed a variety of protein complex

interactions, and we validated a subset of interactors with co-IP experiments, including

particular chromatin and transcription-related factors. We note that certain interactions may

be indirect and involve DUX association with component(s) involved in a larger multi-protein

structures, such as the highly repetitive *Dux* locus (to which DUX binds(12,38)) in either its

active or inactive form, and the association of the *Dux* locus with the nucleolus or other

compartments. Thus, a complete understanding of the full repertoire of interactions will

require future studies. However, beyond the factors noted above, we will emphasize two

additional factors prominent in the BioID data that might be prioritized. First, the p53

interaction verifies prior work supporting p53 association with and activation of the *Dux* locus,

and prompts examination of a direct interaction with DUX(38). Second, the presence in our

dataset of SMCHD1, a cohesin-like protein known to help confer repression of the mouse *Dux*

and human *DUX4* repetitive loci, and to be mutated in a subset of FSHD patients, likewise

prompts considerable future attention (40,41).

Taken together our work provides considerable new mechanistic information regarding the

structure-function relationships and factor associations conducted by particular domains within

the mouse DUX C-terminal region. Key findings include the characterization of 'active' repeat

domains, their interaction with transcription and chromatin remodeling factors, and the

cooperativity between DUX active repeats and the acidic tail in cofactor recruitment and

transcriptional activation at DUX targets. In addition to factors for activation, factors related to

repression and nucleolar association were also isolated, and future studies should help

determine whether their temporal associations with DUX may help early embryos execute a

quick 'burst' of *Dux* activation followed by repression at the *Dux* locus in 2-cell embryos.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

Specific author contribution

Experiments and analyses were conducted by C.M.S. with assistance from E.J.G. and S.C.S.

C.M.S, E.J.G., S.C.S., and B.R.C. designed the study and C.M.S. and B.R.C. wrote the manuscript.

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CUT&Tag and ATAC-seq libraries.

Materials Availability

Plasmids used in this study will be deposited to Addgene or available by request.

Data accessibility

RNA-sequencing, CUT&Tag, and ATAC-seq data are available through GEO GSEXXXXXX.

Standard packages were used for RNA-seq, CUT&Tag, and ATAC-seq analyses (see "Materials

and Methods").

Materials and Methods

Amino acid alignment

DUX ortholog protein translations were aligned using Geneious Local Alignment (Smith-

Waterman), Blosum62 cost matrix, gap open penalty of 12, and gap extension penalty of 4.

Mouse embryonic stem cell culture

Mycoplasma-free E14 mESCs were cultured on gelatin in 2i+LIF medium containing Gibco KO-

DMEM with nonessential amino acids, 2-mercaptoethanol and dipeptide glutamine and were

supplemented with 15% ESC-grade FBS, leukemia inhibitory factor (Thermo Fisher), 1 mM

PD0325901 (Sigma-Aldrich) and 3 mM CHIR99021 (Sigma-Aldrich). Stable cell lines were

blasticidin (Fisher Scientific, B12150-0.1) at 3 μg/mL.

HEK293T cell culture

HEK293Ts were cultured in high-glucose growth media DMEM with nonessential amino acids, 2-

mercaptoethanol and dipeptide glutamine and were supplemented with 10% FBS.

Transfection of mESCs and HEK293Ts

Cells were transfected in Opti-MEM medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 31985070) using

Lipofectamine 3000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, L3000-015) for DNA transfections and the

manufacturer's recommendations. If transfection were to create stable clonal cell lines, a

PiggyBac transposase was included in the transfection.

Doxycycline treatment of cells

After cells have been plated for 24 hours (mESCs, or HEK293Ts), they were treated with

doxycycline (0.25 ug/mL; Clonetech, 631311) for 12 h or 18 h to induce mCherry-DUX or DUX

domain deletion construct expression, as indicated.

Western blot

RIPA buffer (50 mM TRIS-HCl [pH 8.0], 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate,

0.1% SDS) with 1X protease inhibitors was used to lyse mESCs. A 100X protease inhibitor

cocktail consists of 0.03 mg/mL leupeptin, 0.14 mg/mL pepstatin A, 0.02 mg/mL chymostatin,

8.5 mg/mL phenylmethanesulfonylfluoride fluoride, 33mg/mL benzamidine and solubilized in

ethanol. Lysed cell suspensions were then rotated for 30 min at 4°C and were further sonicated

for 10 min with a 30-s on-off cycle in a Diagenode Bioruptor Pico device to solubilize chromatin-

bound proteins. Protein lysates were quantified with the Bio-Rad (500-0001EDU) Bradford

reagent and loaded on SDS-PAGE gel. After transfer to nitrocellulose membranes (VWR, 95040-

108), membranes were blocked with TSBT (TBS with 0.1% Tween-20) and 5% milk and then

incubated with antibodies overnight (mCherry ab167453, DUX (used in (38))and signals were

detected using HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies and Western Lightning Plus-ECL,

Enhanced Chemiluminescence (Perkin Elmer Health Sciences, NEL 105001EA).

Flow cytometry

A Cytoflex LX instrument with lasers for 405 nm, 488 nm, 561 nm and 640 nm was used to

quantify mCherry+ and MERVL–GFP+ mESCs. Samples were gated using forward FSA and side-

scatter SSA to isolate cells from debris, and then double discrimination was performed using

FSH Å~ FSW and SSH Å~ SSW.

RNA-seq

1 million mESCs were grown for 24 hours on a 100mm dish and then induced with doxycycline

(0.25 ug/mL) for 12 hours. Cells were washed two times with PBS, TRIzol (Thermo Fisher) was

added to tissue culture wells and incubated for 1 min at room temperature. TRIzol/cells were

added to Eppendorf tubes and RNA was extracted using the TRIzol extraction method. Libraries

were generated according to the manufacturer's instructions: polyA-selected RNA was isolated

and libraries were prepared using the NEBNext kit (New England Biolabs, e7500s). Purified

libraries were quantified on an Agilent Technologies 2200 TapeStation with a D1000

ScreenTape assay. The molarity of adaptor-modified molecules was defined by a qPCR with a

KAPA Library Quantification kit (Kapa Biosystems). Individual libraries were normalized to

10nM, and equal volumes were pooled in preparation for Ilumina sequence analysis.

Sequencing libraries (2pM) were chemically denatured and applied to an Illumina HiSeq paired-

end flow cells with an Illumina cBot. Flow cells were then transferred to an Ilumina HiSeq 2000

instruct and sequenced in the 125-bp paired-end mode. RNA-seq reads were trimmed and

filtered for quality using FastQC (version 0.5.0). Processed reads were aligned using STAR

(version 2.7.2c). Differential expression analysis was performed using DESeq2 (version 3.11).

Hierarchical clustering was performed using the R package 'Complex Heatmap,' with inputs

being differentially expressed transcripts (DESeq FDR < 0.05) z-score normalized.

GO term analysis

GO terms were identified using the Gene Ontology Resource (http://geneontology.org/).

CUT&Tag

1 million mESCs were grown for 24 hours and then induced with doxycycline (0.25 ug/mL) for

12 hours. Cell were washed 1X with PBS and nuclei were isolated from mESCs using nuclear

extraction buffer (20 mM HEPES-KOH [7.9], 10 mM KCl, 0.1% Triton X-100, 20% glycerol, 0.5

mM spermidine, 1X protease inhibitors (see above). ConA-streptavidin beads were paired with

antibodies of interest 1:100 (mCherry ab167453, H3K9ac ab 32129, SMARCC1 ab172638) and

50,000 cells were added and incubated overnight in binding buffer (20 mM, HEPES [pH 7.9], 10

mM KCl, 1 mM $CaCl_2$, 1 mM $MnCl_2$). Secondary guinea pig anti-rabbit 1:100 (ABIN101961) was

incubated for 1 hr at room tempoerature. pA-Tn5 (pre-loaded with Mosaic End A/B adaptors)

was incubated for 1 hour at room temperature and used at 1:100. After washing steps and

release from the beads, PCR was performed for 12 cycles using NEBnext High-Fidelity 2X PCR

Master Mix (New England Biolabs, M0541L) (42). Samples were 1:1.3 AMPure XP (Beckman

Coulter) purified and sent for sequencing. All libraries were sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq

6000 platform in 150-bp, paired-end format. Paired-end, raw read files were first processed by

Trim Galore (Babraham Institute) to trim low-quality reads and remove adapters. Processed

reads were then aligned to mm10 with the following parameters: (--end-to-end –very sensitive

–no-mixed). CUT&Tag libraries were trimmed and filtered for quality using FastQC (version

0.5.0) and Picard (version 2.26.3). Processed reads were aligned using Bowtie2 (version 2.4.2)

with the parameters: (--end-to-end –very sensitive –no-mixed) and indexed using Samtools

(version 1.15). Duplicate samples were merged and normalized to control samples (mESCs for

H3K9ac dataset and mCherry alone for mCherry and SMARCC1 datasets). DeepTools was used

to generate heatmaps and profile plots using DUX binding sites as previously published (22).

BioID

15 million BirA* mESC derivatives were plated on gelatin-coated 15-cm plates and recovered

for 24-hours. 0.25 μg/mL doxycycline and 0.5 μM biotin (Sigma Aldrich, B4639) was added to

cells and incubated for 18 hours. Cells were washed with ice cold PBS 2 times and 1 mL lysis

buffer (2 mM Tris-HCl [pH 8.0], 137 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 2 mM EDTA, 1x protease inhibitors)

was added to each plate and incubated for 1 min (34). Cells were scraped of off the plate and

transferred to a 2-mL tube. Cells then rotated for 30 min at 4°C and were further sonicated for

10 min with a 30-s on-off cycle in a Diagenode Bioruptor Pico device to solubilize chromatin-

bound proteins. Next, samples were centrifuged at 4°C at 12,000 rpm for 20 minutes and the

supernatant was transferred to new tubes. Protein lysates were quantified with the Bio-Rad

(500-0001EDU) Bradford reagent. For streptavidin pulldown, 2 μg of protein were added to pre-

washed 50 μL streptavidin Sepharose bead conjugates (Cell Signaling Technology, 3419S) and

rocked overnight at 4°C. Cells were pelleted and then washed 5X with wash buffer (10 mM TRIS

[pH 7.4], 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA, 150 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 0.2 mM sodium

orthovanadate, 1x protease inhibitors), boiled at 95°C in 30 μL 4X Laemelli buffer, and ran on a

SDS-page gel until the samples were 1-inch into the gel. Protein bands/smears were cut out of

the gel with razor blades and transferred to individual 1.7-mL Eppendorf tubes filled with

ddH$_2$0. Samples were overnight shipped on dry for liquid chromatography-tandem mass

spectrometry sequencing (LC-MS/MS) to Taplin Mass Spectrometry Facility, Cell Biology

Department, Harvard Medical School. Gel smears were reduced using 1 mM DTT in 50 mM

ammonium bicarbonate for 30 min at 60°C and cooled, and 5 mM iodoacetamide in 50 mM

ammonium bicarbonate was added for 15 min and incubated at room temperature. 5 mM DTT

was added to quench the reaction, and then 5 ng/μL of trypsin (Promega) was added and

samples incubated over night at 37 °C. Samples were then desalinated and resuspended in 10

μL of high-pressure liquids chromatography (HPLC) solvent A (2.5% acetonitrile, 0.1% formic

acid). A reverse-phase HPLC capillary column was made by placing 2.6 μL M C$_{18}$ spherical silica

beads into a fused silica capillary (100-μL M inner diameter, ~30-cm length). Next, each sample

was loaded using a Famos autosampler (LC Packings) onto the HPLC capillary column. A linear

gradient was created to elute peptides with increasing amounts of solvent B (97.5%

acetonitrile, 0.1% formic acid). Eluted peptides were subjected to electrospray ionization

couple to a mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) to produce tandem mass spectra

whose *b* and *y* ion series patterns were compared to Sequest (Thermo Fisher Scientific) to

establish protein identity. The sequencing data were filtered to 1 to 2% peptide false-discovery

rate. To analyze BioID datasets, two approaches were taken. First, we utilized DESeq2 (version

3.11) to provide candidate genes for BirA*-DUX vs. BirA* and BirA*-C3 vs. BirA*-C1. Then, we

used SAINTexpress (version 3.5.3) with parameter: (-L6). Formal candidates exhibited > 2

Log$_2$FC and FDR < 0.05 and SAINT score > 0.74, for DESeq2 and SAINTexpress analyses

respectively.

Co-immunoprecipitation

1 million mESCs were grown for 24 hours on 100mm dishes and then induced with doxycycline

(0.25 ug/mL) for 12 hours. Cells were trypsinized, rinsed once with PBS, and lysis buffer (2 mM

Tris-HCl, pH=8.0, 137 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 2 mM EDTA, 1x protease inhibitors) was added to

lyse cells. Cells then rotated for 30 min at 4°C and were further sonicated for 10 min with a 30-s

on-off cycle in a Diagenode Bioruptor Pico device to solubilize chromatin-bound proteins.

Protein lysates were quantified with the Bio-Rad (500-0001EDU) Bradford reagent. 3X FLAG

Peptide-coupled beads (Sigma Aldrich, F4799-4MG) were pre-washed with lysis buffer, 1 mg of

protein was added to 40 μL of pre-washed beads, and samples were incubated at room

temperature for 4 hours. Beads were pelleted by low-speed centrifugation. Samples were

washed 5X with wash buffer (10 mM TRIS [pH 7.4], 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA; pH=8.0, 150 mM

NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 0.2 mM sodium orthovanadate, 1x protease inhibitors [see above]),

boiled at 95°C in 30 μL 4X Laemelli buffer, and run on an SDS-page gel for western blotting

analysis.

ATAC-seq

mESCs were grown for 24 hours and then induced with doxycycline (0.25 ug/mL) for 12 hours.

Cells were washed 1X with PBS, pelleted, resuspended, and lysed in cold lysis buffer (10 mM

Tris-HCl [pH 7.4], 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM MgCl2, and 0.1% IGEPAL CA-630). Nuclei were pelleted

and resuspended in transposase buffer. The Tn5 (Illumina FC-121-1030), and the transposition

reaction was carried out for 30 min at 37°C. After purification, the Nextera libraries were

amplified for 15 cycles with NEBnext PCR master mix and purified with a Qiagen PCR cleanup

kit. All libraries were sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq 6000 platform in 150-bp, paired-end

format. Paired-end, raw read files were first processed by Trim Galore (Babraham Institute) to

trim low-quality reads and remove adapters. Processed reads were then aligned to mm10 with

the following parameters: (--end-to-end –very sensitive –no-mixed).

Figure Legends

Figure 1: Identification of five repeats within the mouse DUX C-terminal region, and truncation

analysis of transcriptional activity.

a. (Left) Mouse DUX aligned to itself, revealing five repeats. (Right) Diagram of mouse DUX

and human DUX4.

b. Amino acid alignment of mouse DUX C-terminal repeats and comparison to human

DUX4. A 14 amino acid tail follows both the terminal mouse C5 repeat and the sole

DUX4 repeat.

c. Phylogenetic analysis showing amino acid alignments of mouse DUX C-terminal repeats

vs. the C-terminus of bovine DUXC, the C-terminus of rat DUX4, and the C-terminus of

human DUX4. Line length unit is substitutions per base. Purple shading denotes mouse

DUX C-terminal repeats.

d. (Left) Schematic of constructs used for flow cytometry: mCherry-tagged full-length DUX

(FL), homeodomains with C1, C12, C123, C1234, C12345. (Right) Flow cytometry data for

MERVL::GFP reporter given mCherry expression in *Dux*-/- mESCs following 18hr

expression of indicated constructs. *p-value < 0.05, student's t-test. (n=3 biological

replicates)

Figure 2: Structure function-analysis of DUX by 2C-like cell conversion.

a. (Top) Schematic of constructs used for flow cytometry: mCherry-tagged FL,

ΔC12345+14aa, C1+14aa, C2+14aa, C3+14aa, C4+14aa, and C5+14aa. (Bottom) Flow

cytometry for MERVL::GFP reporter given mCherry expression in *Dux-/-* mESCs with

18hr overexpression of indicated constructs. *p-value < 0.05, student's t-test. (n=3

biological replicates). Constructs with a single black line have the linker $GGGGS_2$ and

constructs with two black lines have linkers with $GGGGS_2$ and $GAGAS_2$, respectively.

b. (Top) Schematic of constructs used for flow cytometry: mCherry-tagged FL, C3+14aa,

C3Δ14aa, C5+14aa, C5Δ14aa. (Bottom) Flow cytometry for MERVL::GFP reporter given

mCherry expression in *Dux-/-* mESCs following 18hr expression of indicated constructs.

*p-value < 0.05, student's t-test. (n=3 biological replicates)

c. (Top) DUX domain chimera construct design for C1-C3 fusions with (top) schematic of

constructs and (bottom) specific chimera cut-offs for C1-C3 a,b,d (pink to blue) and C3-

C1 a,b,c (blue to pink) constructs. (Bottom) Schematic of DUX domain chimera

constructs used for flow cytometry: mCherry-tagged full-length DUX (FL), C1C3a, C1C3b,

C1C3c, C3C1a, C3C1b, C3C1c. Symbols adjacent to alignments: red circle denotes

transcriptionally inactive repeats and the green circle denotes transcriptionally active

repeats. (Right) Flow cytometry for MERVL::GFP reporter given mCherry expression in

Dux-/- mESCs folllowing 18hr expression of indicated constructs. *p-value < 0.05,

student's t-test. (n=3 biological replicates)

d. Flow cytometry for MERVL::GFP reporter given mCherry expression in *Dux-/-* mESCs

following 18hr expression of point mutation constructs: (Top) FL-DUX, C3+14aa, C3

D438E+14aa, C3 D438G+14aa, and C3F443L+14aa. (Bottom) FL-DUX, C1+14aa, C3+14aa,

C1DPLELF+14aa (substation of C3 amino acids into C1+14aa), and C3GPLELL+14aa

(substitution of C2 and C4 6aa sequence into C3+14aa). *p-value < 0.05, student's t-test.

(n=3 biological replicates)

e. Principle component analysis (PCA) of RNA-seq analysis for 18hr overexpression of DUX

domain chimera constructs, full-length DUX, and mCherry alone (n=2). Colored squares

beside sample legends denote the inability to activate MERVL::GFP reporter (red) or

ability to activate MERVL::GFP reporter (green).

f. Heat map of RNA-seq at DUX target genes (n=456) from 18hr expression of DUX domain

chimera constructs, full-length DUX, and mCherry alone (n=2). Colored rectangles above

samples denote inability to activate MERVL::GFP reporter (red) or ability to activate

MERVL::GFP reporter (green).

Figure 3: Chromatin modifications at DUX binding sites requires an active DUX repeat.

a. (Left) Schematic of mCherry-tagged DUX domain constructs in clonal *Dux*-/- mESCs used

for CUT&TAG experiments. (Right) anti-mCherry Western blot for indicated constructs

after 18hr expression. Black arrows indicate construct of interest.

b. mCherry CUT&TAG class average map centered at DUX binding sites after 12-hour

overexpression of *Dux* constructs illustrated in Figure 2a (n=2 biological replicates).

c. mCherry CUT&TAG heatmap centered at DUX binding sites after 12-hour expression of

Dux constructs illustrated in Figure 2a (n=2 biological replicates).

d. H3K9ac CUT&TAG class average map centered at DUX binding sites after 12-hour

expression of *Dux* constructs illustrated in Figure 2a (n=2 biological replicates).

e. H3K9ac CUT&TAG heatmap centered at DUX binding sites after 12-hour expression of

Dux constructs illustrated in Figure 2a (n=2 biological replicates).

Figure 4: BioID for full-length DUX reveals interaction with proteins involved in chromatin de-

repression.

a. Experimental concept for BioID (proximity labeling assay) for BirA*-DUX to identify

candidate DUX interacting proteins.

b. Experimental set-up for full-length DUX BioID. The control construct, BirA*-only,

transfected into 2C-like mESCs, and BirA*-DUX, transfected into mESCs (n=2 biological

replicates).

c. Volcano plot using DeSeq2 analysis for BirA*-only vs. BirA*-DUX with log2FoldChange on

the x-axis and -log(padj) on the y-axis (n=2 biological replicates).

d. Interactome map of proteins enriched to interact with full-length DUX, vs. BirA*-only,

split into specific cellular components and protein complexes (n=2 biological replicates).

Full dataset available in Supplementary Table 1.

e. (Left) Experimental set-up for BioID-like experiment in HEK283T cells with BirA*DUX and

flag-tagged candidates – SMARCC1 and ZSCAN4D. (Right) Co-immunoprecipitation of

FLAG and Western blot after 18-hour expression of transiently transfected FLAG-

SMARCC1 or FLAG-ZSCAN4D and BirA*-DUX in HEK293Ts (n=3 biological replicates).

Figure 5: BioID for active C-terminal DUX repeat reveals interactors, including Smarcc1.

a. Experimental constructs BioID of individual DUX repeats. Experimental constructs are N-

terminally labelled BirA* linked to either mCherry-HDs-C1+14aa or mCherry-HDs-

C3+14aa.

b. Volcano plot using DeSeq2 analysis for BirA*mC-C1+14aa and BirA*mC-C3+14aa with

log2FoldChange on the x-axis and -log(padj) on the y-axis (n=3 biological replicates).

c. Interactome map of proteins enriched with BirA*mC-C3+14aa vs. BirA*mC-C1+14aa,

split into specific cellular components and protein complexes (n=2 biological replicates).

Full dataset available in Table 2.

d. Co-immunoprecipitation of endogenous SMARCC1 after 12hr overexpression of DUX

domain constructs in stable clonal cell lines illustration in Figure 2a (n=3 biological

replicates).

e. SMARCC1 CUT&TAG heatmap at DUX binding sites after 12-hour overexpression of *Dux*

constructs illustrated in Figure 2a (n=2 biological replicates).

f. ATAC-seq heatmap at DUX binding sites after 12-hour overexpression of *Dux* constructs

illustrated in Figure 2a (n=2 biological replicates, except full-length DUX only has 1

biological replicate).

Figure 6: Model of DUX protein mechanism of activation based on C-terminal domain

combinations.

a. Summary table of DUX domain constructs (illustrated in Figure 2a) and their

transcription, recruitment, chromatin modification, and protein interaction activities.

b. Model for the contributions of DUX domains on DUX interactions and activity

Supplementary Figure Legends

789   Supplementary Figure 1**:** DUX orthologs do not contain a repeat structure similar to mouse

790   DUX.

    a) Human DUX4 aligned to itself.

    b) Rat DUX4 aligned to itself.

    c) Bovine DUXC aligned to itself.

    d) Table with pairwise comparison of percent identity comparing mouse DUX C-terminal repeats, the human DUX4 C-terminus, the rat DUX4 C-terminus, and the bovine DUXC C-terminus.

    e) Experimental design for expression of mCherry-tagged DUX domain constructs and flow cytometry of GFP% | mCherry tag expression

    f) Western blot for mCherry tag after 18hr expression of C1, C12, C123, C1234, C12345

801   Supplementary Figure 2: DUX homeodomains are required for transcriptional activity.

    a) (Left) Schematic of constructs used for flow cytometry: mCherry-tagged full-length DUX (FL), ΔC12345+14aa, C12345Δ14aa, C1+14aa, C12+14aa, C123+14aa, C1234+14aa, C5+14aa, C45+14aa, C345+14aa, C2345+14aa, ΔHD1, ΔHD2, and *Dux-/-* alone. (Right) Flow cytometry for MERVL::GFP reporter given mCherry expression in *Dux-/-* mESCs following 18hr expression of indicated constructs. *p-value < 0.05, student's t-test. (n=3 biological replicates)

808   b) Schematic of C1C3 chimera DUX constructs for amino acid cut offs for C1C3a, C3C3b,

809   C1C3c, C3C1a, C3C1b, and C3C1c aligned to the 5 C-terminal repeats

810   c) Heat map of RNA-seq at DUX target genes (n=456) (22) from 18hr expression of DUX

811   domain constructs of FL, C12345Δ14aa, C12345+14aa, C12345Δ14aa(n=2). Colored

812   rectangles above samples denote inability to activate MERVL::GFP reporter (red) and

813   ability to activate MERVL::GFP reporter (green).

814   d) Phylogenetic analysis of the five mouse DUX C-terminal repeats. Line length unit is

815   substitutions per base.

817   Supplementary Figure 3: DUX CUT&Tag data strongly resembles DUX ChIP-seq, and DUX binding

818   sites gain H3K9ac upon DUX expression.

819   a. Profile plot of mCherry-FL DUX CUT&TAG centered at DUX binding sites after 12 hour

820   expression vs. HA-DUX ChIP-seq (n=2 biological replicates) (12)

821   b. IGV screenshots at TCSTV3, ZSCAN4F, USP17LB, and ZSCAN4C (DUX targets genes) for

822   H3K9ac CUT&Tag in mESCs and mCherry-DUX 12hr expression and mCherry CUT&TAG

823   for mCherry tag alone and mCherry-DUX (n=2 biological replicates)

825   Supplementary Figure 4: The proximity-labeling assay BioID identifies DUX protein interactors.

826   a) BioID DeSeq2 analysis replicate structure of BirA*-only and BirA*-DUX duplicates for

827   mass spectrometry datasets.

828   b) Venn diagram of statistically significant enriched proteins for BirA*-DUX interaction for

829   DeSeq2 and SAINT*express*

830   c) Streptavidin pulldown and Western blot after 18-hour BioID induction in clonal stable

831   BirA*-DUX mESC line expressing FLAG-tagged SMARCC1, CHAF1A, ZSCAN4D, or KDM4C

832   with blots for DUX and FLAG-tag (n=3 biological replicates). KDM4C was a BioID hit, but

833   does not interact with DUX, indicating a possible false positive.

834   d) Streptavidin pulldown and Western blot after 18-hour BioID induction in clonal stable

835   BirA*-DUX mESC line, with blot for N-terminal myc-BirA*-DUX, P300, and Avidin-HRP

836   (n=2 biological replicates)

837   e) BioID individual repeat DeSeq2 analysis replicate structure of BirA*-C1 and BirA*-C3

838   triplicates for mass spectrometry (n=3 biological replicates)

839   f) Principle component analysis of DeSeq2 analysis for BirA*mC-C1+14aa and BirA*mC-

840   C3+14aa with PC1: 54% variance and PC2: 17% variance

Figure 1

a)

Mouse DUX translation

Mouse DUX translation

Mouse DUX

HD1 | HD2 | C1 | C2 | C3 | C4 | C5 | 14 aa

Double homeodomains | C-terminal repeats

Human DUX4

HD1 | HD2 | CT | 14 aa

Double homeodomains | C-terminus

c)

Phylogenetic analysis of DUX C-terminal repeats with DUX4 C-terminus

DUX4 C-term (Human)

(Rat) Dux4 C-term

DUXC C-term (Bovine)

C-term repeat 4
C-term repeat 2
C-term repeat 1
C-term repeat 3
C-term repeat 5

0.3

Mouse C-term repeats

b)

Amino acid alignment of C-teminal repeats for DUX and the C-terminus of DUX4 (human)

C-terminus (aa)
C1 (203-293)
C2 (294-385)
C3 (386-476)
C4 (477-569)
C5 (570-673)
DUX4 (318-424)

d) mCherry-tagged DUX domain constructs

FL   mCherry | HD1 | HD2 | C1 | C2 | C3 | C4 | C5 | 14 aa

C1   mCherry | HD1 | HD2 | C1

C12   mCherry | HD1 | HD2 | C1 C2

C123   mCherry | HD1 | HD2 | C1 C2 C3

C1234   mCherry | HD1 | HD2 | C1 C2 C3 C4

C12345   mCherry | HD1 | HD2 | C1 C2 C3 C4 C5

%GFP|mCherry in Dux-/- mESCs after 18hr induction

Figure 2

Figure 3

a)

DUX domain constructs in stable clonal Dux-/- mESCs

b) mCherry CUT&Tag of Dux domain constructs

c) mCherry CUT&Tag of Dux domain constructs at DUX binding sites

d) H3K9ac CUT&Tag of DUX domain constructs

e) H3K9ac CUT&Tag of DUX domain constructs at DUX binding sites

Figure 4

a) BioID schematic

b) Experimental constructs for BioID DUX & schematic

c) Volcano plot for BirA*-DUX vs. BirA*

d) Interactome of BirA*-DUX in comparison to BirA*

e) Validation of BirA*-DUX interactions by Co-IP in BioID conditions

Figure 5

a)   Experimental constructs for BioID C1C3

BirA*-C1 | BirA | mCherry | HD1 | HD2 | C1 |————————| 14 aa |

BirA*-C3 | BirA | mCherry | HD1 | HD2 |————| C3 |————| 14 aa |

b)   Volcano plot for BirA*-C3 vs. BirA*-C1

c)   Interactome of BirA*-C3 in comparison to BirA*-C1

d) IP for endogeneous SMARCC1 in DUX domain cell lines

18hr OE of Dux constructs → IP for SMARCC1 and blot for interaction with DUX

Anti-mCherry

e)   SMARCC1 CUT&Tag in DUX domain constructs at DUX binding sites

mESC   FL   C12345Δ14aa   C3+14aa   C3Δ14aa   ΔC12345+14aa

f)   ATAC-seq in DUX domain constructs at DUX binding sites

FL   C12345Δ14aa   C3+14aa   C3Δ14aa   ΔC12345+14aa

Figure 6

a)

Summary table for DUX domain construct characteristics

	FL	C12345Δ14	C3+14	C3Δ14	ΔC12345+14
MERVL Activation	++	+	++	-	-
DUX Target Activation	++	+	++	-	-
DUX Target Occupancy	++	++	++	+	++
H3K9ac Recruitment	++	++	++	-	-
SMARCC1/BAF Recruitment	++	+	++	+	-
Chromatin Accessibility	++	++	++	+	+

b)

Model for DUX mechanism of target gene activation

Supplementary Figure 1

a) DUX4 translation (human)
b) DUX4 translation (rat)
c) DUXC translation (bovine)

d) Table comparing percent identity for mouse C-terminal repeats and C-termini of DUX orthologs

	C-term repeat 1	C-term repeat 2	C-term repeat 3	C-term repeat 4	C-term repeat 5	DUX4 C-term	DUXC C-term	Dux4 C-term
C-term repeat 1		68.5	69.2	64.1	51.1	13.6	8.6	9.3
C-term repeat 2	68.5		62.0	91.3	48.4	14.6	8.2	10.0
C-term repeat 3	69.2	62.0		56.5	73.3	13.6	8.2	8.6
C-term repeat 4	64.1	91.3	56.5		44.6	13.5	7.8	11.3
C-term repeat 5	51.1	48.4	73.3	44.6		11.6	8.8	6.5
DUX4 C-term (H)	13.6	14.6	13.6	13.5	11.6		28.8	9.8
DUXC C-term (B)	8.6	8.2	8.2	7.8	8.8	28.8		8.9
Dux4 C-term (R)	9.3	10.0	8.6	11.3	6.5	9.8	8.9	

e) Schematic for experimental design for all flow cytometry in Dux domain constructs

f) Western blot for mCherry-tagged Dux domain constructs

Supplementary Figure 2

a) mCherry-tagged DUX domain constructs

%GFP|mCherry in Dux-/- mESCs after 18hr induction

b) C1C3 chimera cutoff map aligned to mouse C-terminal repeat alignment

c) RNA-seq heatmap of Dux target genes in Dux domain constructs or C-terminal repeat and/or 14aa deletion constructs

d) Phylogenetic analysis for mouse C-terminal repeats

a) Profile plot of Dux ChIP-seq vs. mCherry-tagged Dux CUT&Tag
at Dux binding sites

b) IGV screenshots of mESC H3K9ac and DUX-expressing cells H3K9ac at DUX target genes

Supplementary Figure 4

a) Replicate structure for BioID DUX

b) Number of statistically significant proteins in two different BioID DUX analysis packages

DeSeq2

578   138   103

SAINTexpress

c) BioID experiment with FLAG-tagged candidates interactors

Pulldown
1% input

Smarcc1   Chaf1a

Doxy+ biotin   - + - +   - + - +

150kDa —   Anti-DUX

150kDa —   Avidin-HRP

37kDa —

Zscan4d   Kdm4c

Doxy+ biotin   - + - +   - + - +

150kDa —   Anti-DUX

150kDa —   Avidin-HRP

37kDa —

d) BioID Dux experiment with p300 Western blot

Pulldown
1% input

BirA*-DUX

Doxy +biotin   - +   - +

150kDa —   Anti-myc

250kDa —   Anti-p300

250kDa —

Avidin-HRP

25kDa —

e) Replicate structure for BioID C1C3

f) Principle component analysis for BioID C1C3

group
C1
C3

Inactive DUX domain constructs

Active DUX domain constructs