ARID1A governs the silencing of sex-linked transcription during male meiosis in the mouse

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Abstract

We present evidence implicating the BAF (BRG1/BRM Associated Factor) chromatin remodeler in meiotic sex chromosome inactivation (MSCI). By immunofluorescence (IF), the putative BAF DNA binding subunit, ARID1A (AT-rich Interaction Domain 1a), appeared enriched on the male sex chromosomes during diplonema of meiosis I. Those germ cells showing a Cre-induced loss of ARID1A were arrested in pachynema and failed to repress sex-linked genes, indicating a defective MSCI. Consistent with this defect, mutant sex chromosomes displayed an abnormal presence of elongating RNA polymerase II coupled with an overall increase in chromatin accessibility detectable by ATAC-seq. By investigating potential mechanisms underlying these anomalies, we identified a role for ARID1A in promoting the preferential enrichment of the histone variant, H3.3, on the sex chromosomes, a known hallmark of MSCI. Without ARID1A, the sex chromosomes appeared depleted of H3.3 at levels resembling autosomes. Higher resolution analyses by CUT&RUN revealed shifts in sex-linked H3.3 associations from discrete intergenic sites and broader gene-body domains to promoters in response to the loss of ARID1A. Several sex-linked sites displayed ectopic H3.3 occupancy that did not co-localize with DMC1 (DNA Meiotic Recombinase 1). This observation suggests a requirement for ARID1A in DMC1 localization to the asynapsed sex chromatids. We conclude that ARID1A-directed H3.3 localization influences meiotic sex chromosome gene regulation and DNA repair.

Introduction

Meiosis is central to the formation of haploid gametes from diploid progenitors. During meiosis, homologous chromosomes pair, exchange genetic material, align at the metaphase plate, and then segregate during the first meiotic cell division. Unlike autosomal homologs, the X and Y chromosomes share limited homology. Unique mechanisms have evolved to ensure these chromosomes become sequestered and processed in a parallel but distinct process from autosomes.

XY chromosomes pair along the pseudo-autosomal region (PAR), leaving extensive regions of the X and Y unpaired. These regions become enriched for DNA damage response (DDR) factors, including ATR (Ataxia Telangiectasia and Rad3 related), TOPBP1 (DNA topoisomerase II-binding protein 1), and MDC1 (Mediator of DNA Damage Checkpoint 1), which amplifies γH2A.X across XY chromatin (Alavattam et al., 2022; Ellnati et al., 2017; Fernandez-Capetillo et al., 2003; Ichijima et al., 2011; Royo et al., 2013; Turner et al., 2005). XY chromatin acquires further distinguishing features when the variant histone H3.3 replaces the canonical histones H3.1/3.2, and H3K9me3 (Histone lysine9 trimethylation) becomes elevated on XY chromatin relative to autosomes (Hirota et al., 2018; van der Heijden et al., 2007; Yuen et al., 2014). As the XY chromosomes become epigenetically distinct from autosomes, they also become physically separated into a unique nuclear sub-compartment known as the XY body (Handel, 2004). Transcriptional silencing of unpaired chromatin occurs during this phase of meiosis I, known as meiotic silencing of unpaired chromatin (MSUC) (Turner, 2007). MSUC of autosomal chromatin, such as in response to an abnormal karyotype, causes pachynema arrest and cell death (Baarends et al., 2005; Schimenti, 2005; Turner et al., 2005). However, silencing unpaired XY chromatin results in a different outcome known as meiotic sex chromosome inactivation (MSCI) . Sex chromosomes are required to undergo MSCI and become transcriptionally inactivated. Failure to achieve MSCI triggers arrest and cell death (Ichijima et al., 2011).

Chromatin factors that influence MSCI include the H3K9 methyltransferase, SETDB1 (SET domain, bifurcated 1), PRC1 associated SCML2 (Sex comb on midleg-like protein 2), and testis-specific reader of histone acetylation, BRDT (Bromodomain testis-specific protein) (Hasegawa et al., 2015; Hirota et al., 2018; Manterola et al., 2018). Previous studies demonstrated a critical requirement for SWI/SNF-directed transcriptional regulation during meiosis (Kim et al., 2012; Menon et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2012). The germ cell-specific depletion of the SWI/SNF catalytic subunit, BRG1(Brahma-related gene-1), resulted in an early pachytene arrest (Kim et al., 2012). BRG1 is associated with the XY body (Wang et al., 2012), but its requirement for

MSCI is unknown. This lack of evidence for MSCI is also true for the PBAF (POLYBROMO1-

BRG1/BRM Associated Factor) remodeler within the SWI/SNF family, which we have shown is

required for meiotic cell division (Menon et al., 2021). Whether these data suggest a role for

PBAF in MSCI remains an open question, given that BRG1 associates with both SWI/SNF

remodelers, PBAF and BAF.

Here, we find that ARID1A (AT-rich Interaction Domain 1a), a BAF-specific putative DNA

binding subunit, is required for the transcriptional silencing of the sex chromosomes during

pachynema, thereby ensuring meiotic progression through prophase-I. Mechanistically, ARID1A

is necessary to establish MSCI hallmarks, such as the eviction of elongating RNA polymerase-II

(phosphorylated on Serine2 of carboxy-terminal domain; pSer2-RNAPII), limited sex-linked

chromatin accessibility, and hyper-accumulation of histone H3.3 on the sex body. Additionally,

ARID1A is required for the targeted localization of DMC1 to the unpaired sex chromatids,

implicating BAF-A-governed sex-linked chromatin dynamics in DNA repair.

Results

Meiotic progression requires ARID1A

Meiotic progression in male mice depends on SWI/SNF-regulated gene expression (Menon et

al., 2019; Menon et al., 2021). These studies raise the prospect of distinct SWI/SNF

subcomplexes governing stage-specific meiotic transcription (Menon et al., 2021). To

understand the meiotic functions of the biochemically distinct SWI/SNF BAF subcomplex, we

examined the spermatogenic expression profiles of the BAF subunits *Arid1a* and *Arid1b* using

single-cell RNA-seq data generated from testes (Ernst et al., 2019). *Arid1a* mRNA expression

occurred at various spermatogenic stages with notable expression at pachynema of meiotic

prophase I (Fig. S1A-C).

Arid1b mRNA went undetectable until late in spermiogenesis (Fig. S1A, D-E). Consistent with its

mRNA expression profile, pachytene spermatocytes featured abundant ARID1A protein, which

was uniformly spread among autosomes and sex chromosomes (Fig. 1). Late in diplonema,

ARID1A appeared preferentially enriched on the sex chromosomes as compared to autosomes

(Fig. 1). These data implicate ARID1A in meiotic sex chromosome inactivation (MSCI), a

process essential for meiotic progression in males.

To determine whether meiotic spermatocytes require ARID1A, we generated a germ cell-

specific knock-out of *Arid1a* using the *Stra8-Cre* transgene expressed in spermatogonia

(Sadate-Ngatchou et al., 2008). *Stra8-Cre* was chosen among the available germ-cell-specific

Cre lines to circumvent *Arid1a* haploinsufficiency during embryonic development. *Stra8-Cre*

remains inactive during embryonic development when transmitted through females (Sadate-

Ngatchou et al., 2008). The number of undifferentiated spermatogonia that stained positive for

Promyelocytic leukemia zinc finger (PLZF$^+$, also known as Zinc finger and BTB domain

containing 16: ZBTB16) remained unchanged in *Arid1a^{cKO}* testes (Table S1). The proportions of

undifferentiated spermatogonia (PLZF+) with detectable (ARID1A+) and non-detectable

(ARID1A-) levels of ARID1A protein determined by immunostaining on testes cryosections

obtained from 1-month old *Arid1a$^{fl/fl}$* (control) and *Arid1a^{cKO}* (CKO) males was 74% ARID1A$^-$

(CKO, n = 179) and 26% ARID1A$^+$ (CKO, n = 65) as compared to 95% ARID1A$^+$ (n = 88) and

5% ARID1A$^-$ (n = 5) in controls. Western blot analysis also showed a significant reduction in

ARID1A protein in mutant pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. S2). Therefore, the *Arid1a* conditional

knockouts generated with a *Stra8-Cre* did not appear to impact earlier stages of

spermatogenesis. Potential defects early in spermatogenesis might occur with an earlier-acting

germline Cre transgene. In this case, an inducible Cre transgene would be needed, given the

haploinsufficiency associated with *Arid1a*.

Contrary to our expectations, meiosis appeared unperturbed, as evidenced by seminiferous

tubules featuring round and elongated spermatids in *Arid1a^{cKO}* testes (Fig. S3A). Furthermore,

Arid1a^{cKO} epididymis featured mature spermatozoa, suggesting that *Arid1a^{cKO}* testes are

capable of normal spermatogenesis (Fig. S3B). Although these data indicate that ARID1A is

dispensable for spermatogenesis, we wanted to confirm that these results were not a technical

artifact arising from inefficient *Stra8-Cre* mediated excision of the *Arid1a^{fl}* allele.

To address this question, we examined *Arid1a* transcripts isolated from *Arid1a^{WT}* and *Arid1a^{cKO}*

Sta-Put purified populations of pachytene spermatocytes and round spermatids using RT-PCR

(Fig. S4A). For cDNA synthesis, we used primers that amplify a 612 bp region spanning the

Arid1a floxed exons 5 and 6. Assuming 100% CRE efficiency, we would expect to observe a

281 bp cDNA product associated with mRNA isolated from *Arid1a^{cKO}* spermatogenic cells.

Instead, we observed cDNAs representative of the floxed (*fl*) allele and, to a greater extent, the

excised (Δ) allele from mRNA isolated from *Arid1a^{cKO}* pachytene spermatocytes. These results

indicated inefficient CRE activity (Fig. S4A). More importantly, the data suggest that a fraction of

pachytene spermatocytes in *Arid1a^cKO* testes fail to undergo CRE-mediated excision, resulting in

escapers. An examination of ARID1A levels in testes cryosections and meiotic spreads by

immunofluorescence (IF) revealed a heterogenous population of pachytene spermatocytes

consisting of mutants lacking and escapers expressing ARID1A (Fig. S4B, C). On average, 70%

of pachytene spermatocytes were observed lacking detectable levels of ARID1A signal by IF.

Furthermore, examining the meiotic profile associated with *Arid1a^cKO* revealed an accumulation

of mutant spermatocytes (ARID1A^-), some at leptonema and zygonema and a majority at mid-

pachynema relative to *Arid1a^WT* spermatocyte spreads (Table 1). Some diplotene

spermatocytes displaying a moderate reduction in ARID1A levels occurred in *Arid1a^cKO* relative

to *Arid1a^WT* meiotic spreads and represent escapers due to inefficient *Stra8-Cre* activity (Table 1

- bottom two lines with asterisks, also Fig. S4B,C). However, diplotene and metaphase-I

spermatocytes lacking ARID1A protein by IF were undetectable in the *Arid1a^cKO* testes (Fig.

S4B). These results indicate that those spermatocytes lacking ARID1A arrest at the mid-

pachytene stage. The spermatocytes that escape Cre activity progress to subsequent meiotic

stages, giving rise to genotypically normal gametes. All round spermatids isolated from

Arid1a^cKO testes appeared only to express the normal transcript associated with the floxed allele

(Fig. S4A). Therefore, the perceived lack of a phenotype is an artifact of inefficient *Stra8-Cre*

inefficiency. But more importantly, the data indicate that ARID1A is essential for progression

beyond pachynema.

ARID1A regulates the transcriptional silencing of the sex chromosomes at pachynema

The meiotic requirement of ARID1A and, more importantly, its association with the sex

chromosomes at diplonema prompted us to examine its role in MSCI. We hypothesized that

ARID1A might play a role in the transcriptional silencing of the sex-linked genes during meiosis.

To address this question, we performed RNA-seq on Sta-Put purified populations of pachytene

spermatocytes to profile changes in transcript abundance upon ARID1A deficiency. Differential

analysis of gene expression using DeSeq2 (Love et al., 2014) revealed an equal proportion of

significantly (FDR < 0.05) misexpressed genes displaying either elevated (up-regulated, n=

5824) or reduced (down-regulated, n=5821) transcript abundance in *Arid1a^cKO* relative to

Arid1a^WT pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. 2A). Notably, we detected significant misexpression of

53% of all the sex-linked coding genes (593/1105) in response to an ARID1A deficiency.

Amongst these, 86.4% displayed elevated expression (n=512), whereas only 13.6% displayed

reduced (n=81) transcript abundance. This skew was even greater when only considering sex-

linked genes misexpressed by a magnitude of 2 LOG-fold or higher. Here, 97% (297/306) of the

misexpressed sex-linked genes displayed increased transcript abundance in response to an

ARID1A deficiency. Therefore, ARID1A predominantly affects the repression of sex-linked

genes during pachynema.

An examination of changes in the average transcript abundance on a chromosome-wide basis

showed that expression from the sex chromosomes was significantly higher than that from

autosomes in response to the loss of ARID1A at pachynema (Fig. 2B). Therefore, ARID1A

regulates the transcriptional repression of the sex chromosomes, implicating it in MSCI.

ARID1A's influence on sex-linked gene regulation may result from its association with the sex

chromosomes, particularly during diplonema, where ARID1A hyper-accumulates on the XY.

However, during pachynema, when MSCI initiates, ARID1A associates with the XY at

autosomal levels as detected by IF (Fig. 1). Therefore, it is possible that, at the onset of

pachynema, local ARID1A association rather than chromosome-wide coating dictates its role in

sex-linked gene repression.

To address ARID1A's association with the XY chromosomes, we determined its genomic

localization at a higher resolution by CUT&RUN (Cleavage Under Targets & Release Using

Nuclease) in pachytene spermatocytes. We detected ARID1A occupancy at promoters of

differentially regulated target genes, irrespective of their chromosomal location, in $Arid1a^{WT}$

relative to $Arid1a^{cKO}$ (negative control) pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. S5). This result is

consistent with the genome-wide distribution of ARID1A observed in pachytene spermatocyte

spreads by IF (Fig. 1). Although not detectable by IF, pachytene spermatocytes displayed a

preferential association of ARID1A with promoters of normally repressed sex-linked genes,

when detected by CUT&RUN (Fig. S5B), emphasizing its role in MSCI.

ARID1A does not influence DNA damage response signaling on the sex body

Unlike autosomal homologs that complete pairing during pachynema, the non-homologous

regions of the sex chromosomes feature unrepaired DNA double-strand breaks (DSBs). These

DNA DSBs recruit γH2Ax, a product of DNA damage response (DDR) signaling pathways

essential for establishing and maintaining MSCI (Turner, 2007). Therefore, to determine

whether ARID1A regulated MSCI by influencing DDR signaling, we first monitored the

association of γH2Ax with the sex chromosomes in response to the loss of ARID1A. By IF,

γH2Ax accumulation on the sex body appeared unperturbed in the mutant (ARID1A⁻) relative to

escapers (ARID1A⁺) and *Arid1a^{WT}* pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. S6A). Consistent with this,

the recruitment of ATR (Ataxia Telangiectasia and Rad3 related), a kinase known to

phosphorylate γH2Ax and initiate MSCI (Royo et al., 2013; Turner et al., 2004), appeared

normal in the absence of ARID1A. These data indicate that sex-linked DDR signaling occurred

independently of ARID1A (Fig. S6B). As expected, MDC1 (Mediator of DNA damage

Checkpoint 1), a known γH2Ax reader that is essential for sex body formation

(Ichijima et al., 2011), remained associated with the asynapsed sex chromosomes upon

ARID1A deletion during pachynema (Fig. S6C). These data indicate that the failure to silence

sex-linked genes in response to a loss in ARID1A occurred in the presence of major DDR

signaling factors known to govern sex body identity. It is possible that DDR signaling recruits

BAF-A to the sex chromosomes.

ARID1A limits RNAPII localization to the sex chromosomes during pachynema

Apart from γH2Ax, the association of the sex chromosomes with RNA polymerase II (RNAPII)

distinguishes the sex body from the autosomes during pachynema. Normally, pachytene

spermatocytes display reduced levels of RNAPII on the sex body relative to autosomes (Khalil

et al., 2004). This sub-nuclear localization of RNAPII coincides with increased transcriptional

output, which peaks at diplonema (Ernst et al., 2019), underscoring the importance of targeted

mechanisms regulating sex chromosome repression. Therefore, we were curious to test

whether ARID1A influenced the nuclear localization of RNAPII during pachynema. We

performed IF to monitor the localization of the actively transcribing (elongating) form of RNAPII

marked by Serine2 phosphorylation (pSer2) on its carboxy-terminal domain (Noe Gonzalez et

al., 2021). We monitored elongating RNAPII (pSer2) because its pausing regulates meiotic

transcription (Alexander et al., 2023). By co-staining for RNAPII (pSer2) and SYCP3, we could

stage pachynema and identify the sex chromosomes. While RNAPII (pSer2) localization to the

autosomes appeared similar, we noticed increased levels of RNAPII (pSer2) association with

the sex chromosomes in *Arid1a^{cKO}* relative to *Arid1a^{WT}* mid and late pachytene spermatocytes

(Fig. 3A). By quantifying the RNAPII (pSer2) signal generated by IF, we detected a 1.5-fold

increase (p=0.0003) in the average RNAPII (pSer2) fluorescence associated with the sex

chromosomes in *Arid1a^{cKO}* relative to *Arid1a^{WT}* pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. 3B).

Due to technical difficulties, we could not simultaneously stain for ARID1A alongside SYCP3

and RNAPII (pSer2), making distinguishing escapers from mutants in the *Arid1a^{cKO}* meiotic

spreads impossible. This result suggests that the 1.5-fold increase in RNAPII association with

the sex body in $Arid1a^{cKO}$ relative to $Arid1a^{WT}$ pachytene spermatocytes is likely underestimated.

Therefore, our results indicate that ARID1A facilitates sex-linked gene repression by limiting the

association of elongating RNAPII with the sex chromosomes during pachynema.

ARID1A regulates promoter accessibility during pachynema

Next, we hypothesized that ARID1A-governed chromatin remodeling might underlie its role in

limiting RNAPII accessibility on pachytene sex chromosomes. Therefore, we profiled changes in

chromatin accessibility in response to the loss of ARID1A using ATAC-seq. Normally, ATAC-seq

peaks (accessible chromatin) are mapped comparably across promoters (34%), intergenic

(22.8%), and intronic (21.5%) regions. In contrast, the loss of ARID1A resulted in a dramatic

shift towards predominantly promoter-associated ATAC-seq peaks with only a minority mapping

to intergenic and intronic regions (Fig. 4A).

Consistent with an increase in the proportion of promoter-associated peaks, we detected an

increase in accessibility across transcription start sites (TSS) associated with both autosomal

and sex-linked differentially expressed genes (DEG's) in $Arid1a^{cKO}$ relative to $Arid1a^{WT}$

pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. 4B,C). Furthermore, in the case of autosomal targets, chromatin

accessibility at their TSSs was enhanced irrespective of their transcriptional status, appearing

indistinguishable between down-regulated and up-regulated genes upon the loss of ARID1A

(Fig. 4B). In contrast, on the sex chromosomes, the loss of ARID1A seemed to have a

prominent effect on TSS's associated with up-regulated genes, which displayed greater

chromatin accessibility relative to their down-regulated counterparts (Fig. 4C). Therefore, the

increased promoter accessibility of normally repressed sex-linked genes may underlie their

persistent transcription by RNAPII upon the loss of ARID1A. Overall, these data highlight a role

for BAF complexes in limiting promoter accessibility, especially on the sex chromosomes during

pachynema.

ARID1A regulates the chromatin composition of the sex body

Chromatin remodelers regulate DNA accessibility by altering nucleosome positioning or

composition (Clapier et al., 2017). The latter outcome is interesting in the context of MSCI, given

that the sex body typically displays a striking enrichment of the variant histone H3.3 while

concomitantly appearing depleted of the canonical histones H3.1/3.2 (van der Heijden et al.,

2007; Yuen et al., 2014). Given that human ARID1A regulates H3.3 genomic associations

(Reske et al., 2022), we tested whether a similar mechanism governed H3.3 localization to the

sex chromosomes. To address this, we monitored H3.3 localization in pachytene spermatocytes

by IF, simultaneously staining for ARID1A and HORMAD1. The former aided in mutant

identification, while the latter labeled the pachytene sex chromosomes. Consistent with previous

reports, H3.3 preferentially coats the sex chromosomes, distinguishing it from autosomal

chromatin during normal pachynema (Fig. 5A). Interestingly, this sex-body association of H3.3

was detected less frequently early in pachynema (17%), becoming more pervasive during the

mid (70 %) and late (95%) stages of pachynema. In contrast, in the absence of ARID1A, H3.3

staining on the sex chromosomes was indistinguishable from their autosomal counterparts

throughout pachynema (Fig. 5A). Notably, the majority of mutant mid (89%) and late (77%)

pachytene spermatocytes lacked the typical sex body enrichment of H3.3 (Fig. 5A), indicating

that ARID1A dictates the preferential accumulation of H3.3 on the sex body.

Next, we were curious to know the consequence of reduced H3.3 association on H3.1/3.2

occupancy on the sex body in response to the loss of ARID1A. We performed IF to monitor the

association of H3.1/3.2 with the sex chromosomes marked by HORMAD1 in response to the

loss of ARID1A. Like H3.3, canonical H3.1/3.2 appeared uniformly distributed genome-wide in

most early pachytene spermatocytes (92%). At the onset of pachynema, sex chromosomes

mostly displayed comparable H3.3 and H3.1/3.2 levels (Fig. 5A, B). However, this balance

changed during the subsequent sub-stages of pachynema. Although robust H3.3 levels

remained, H3.1/3.2 appeared excluded from the sex chromosomes in most mid (56%) and all

late pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. 5A, B). In contrast, the loss of ARID1A increased the

proportion of mid (66%) and late (40%) pachytene spermatocytes retaining H3.1/3.2 on sex-

linked chromatin (Fig. 5B). The abnormal retention of canonical H3.1/3.2 coincides with a lack of

H3.3 enrichment on sex-linked chromatin in response to the loss of ARID1A.

To determine whether these abnormal kinetics result from a genome-wide deficiency in H3.3,

we compared its levels by Western blotting to find no difference in H3.3 abundance in $Arid1a^{cKO}$

relative to $Arid1a^{WT}$ spermatocyte enriched populations (Fig. S7A). We also considered an

alternative possibility that ARID1A might promote the sex-linked enrichment of H3.3 by

influencing the expression of cognate chaperones like DAXX and HIRA during murine

pachynema (Rogers et al., 2004; van der Heijden et al., 2007). We addressed this by monitoring

DAXX and HIRA levels in response to the loss of ARID1A using IF. In the case of DAXX, we

examined meiotic spreads to find no changes in either the overall levels or sex chromosome

localization of DAXX in response to the loss of ARID1A (Fig. S7B). The same was also true of

HIRA, whose levels and nuclear localization in mutants appeared comparable to that seen in

escaper (from $Arid1a^{cKO}$) and normal ($Arid1a^{WT}$) spermatocytes (Fig. S7C). Therefore, ARID1A

impacts H3.3 accumulation on the sex chromosomes without affecting its expression during

pachynema. Overall, our data suggest that ARID1A influences MSCI by regulating the

composition of sex-linked chromatin.

ARID1A prevents the promoter accumulation of H3.3

To define the changes in the sex-linked associations of H3.3 at a higher resolution, we

performed CUT&RUN on pachytene spermatocytes isolated from $Arid1a^{WT}$ and $Arid1a^{cKO}$ testes.

Despite the appearance of a robust H3.3 IF signal from the sex body during normal pachynema

(Fig. 5A), the Macs2 peak caller (Zhang et al., 2008) identified very few sex-linked peaks (n =

224). These peaks were overwhelmingly associated with intergenic regions (Fig. S8A).

Comparatively, a dramatically higher number of peaks (n=12183) primarily associated with

genic (promoter, intron, and exon) regions occurred in $Arid1a^{cKO}$ pachytene spermatocytes (Fig.

S8A). More interestingly, there appeared to be a shift from few but overwhelmingly sex-linked

H3.3 peaks (n=224; 98%) to autosomal H3.3 peaks (n=11512; 94.5 %) in response to the loss

of ARID1A (Fig. S8A). Additionally, while the proportion of H3.3 sex-linked peaks in $Arid1a^{cKO}$

pachytene spermatocytes was few (n=671; 5.5%), they outnumbered their $Arid1a^{WT}$

counterparts by 3-fold. These data suggest that the loss of ARID1A strongly influences H3.3

genomic associations.

Due to the increased representation of promoter-associated peaks in response to the loss of

ARID1A, we monitored H3.3 association with TSSs of genes differentially regulated by ARID1A.

Consistent with the genomic annotation of H3.3 peaks, we could not detect H3.3 enrichment at

TSSs associated with ARID1A-regulated sex-linked genes relative to IgG control. H3.3 signal

spread gene-wide in $Arid1a^{WT}$ pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. S8B, Fig. S9A-top panel). In

contrast, we observed a striking accumulation of H3.3 at the TSSs of sex-linked genes

misexpressed without ARID1A (Fig. S8B, Fig. S9A). There is a transition from the gene-wide

spreading of H3.3 to promoter-proximal enrichment in response to the loss of ARID1A.

Concomitantly, X and Y-linked intergenic regions undergo a significant decrease in H3.3

occupancy upon ARID1A loss (Fig. S8A). A similar loss of H3.3 occupancy occurred at a

handful of autosomal intergenic peaks (Fig. S8A, Fig. S9B - top).

Unlike the sex-linked targets, TSSs of ARID1A-regulated autosomal genes displayed H3.3

enrichment relative to the IgG control (Fig. S8C, Fig. S9B - bottom). However, this TSS

occupancy appeared enhanced in $Arid1a^{cKO}$ relative to $Arid1a^{WT}$ pachytene spermatocytes (Fig.

S8C, Fig. S9B). Therefore, TSSs of both sex-linked and autosomal gene targets display

concordant changes in H3.3 occupancy. Overall, ARID1A occupancy at TSSs (Fig.S5) of

differentially regulated genes prevents the accumulation of H3.3 at target promoters.

ARID1A restricts H3.3 occupancy to intergenic regions on the sex chromosomes

Our analysis of the genome-wide localization of H3.3 in response to the loss of ARID1A would

argue that the abnormal increase in promoter-associated H3.3 results from its redistribution

from high-affinity sites (peaks) that are predominantly sex-linked and intergenic during normal

pachynema (Fig. S8A, Fig. S9). We focused our attention on these H3.3-occupied intergenic

sex-linked sites. Although the Macs2 algorithm identified only 224 sex-linked intergenic peaks,

we speculated that this approach filtered out regions enriched for H3.3 that fail to meet the peak

calling threshold compounded by the pervasive spreading of H3.3 on the sex chromosomes

(Fig. 5A, Fig. S8B, S9A). We adopted an alternative strategy that involved identifying potential

H3.3 bound sites by monitoring their occupancy at ARID1A-governed accessible chromatin (Fig.

4A). We compared $Arid1a^{WT}$ and $Arid1a^{cKO}$ pachytene spermatocyte associated ATAC-seq

peaks to identify mutually exclusive and overlapping peaks using BEDTools (Quinlan and Hall,

2010). The resulting peaks cluster into lost (n=9), common (n=7194), or gained (n=2246) based

on their absence, persistence, or appearance, respectively, in $Arid1a^{cKO}$ relative to $Arid1a^{WT}$

pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. 6A). Next, we examined the ATAC-seq signal at these regions to

find an increase in accessibility not only at gained peaks as expected but also at common peaks

in $Arid1a^{cKO}$ relative to $Arid1a^{WT}$ pachytene spermatocytes.

Despite being labeled as lost, these regions did not display the expected loss in ATAC-seq

signal in $Arid1a^{cKO}$ relative to $Arid1a^{WT}$ pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. 6A, left panel). The ATAC

signal appears unchanged, highlighting the possibility that lost regions were labeled as such

because they failed to satisfy Macs2 peak thresholds in $Arid1a^{cKO}$ pachytene spermatocytes,

especially given the comparatively higher magnitude of ATAC signal surrounding the common

and gained peaks (Fig. 6A, left panel). We restricted our analysis to common and gained sites

constituting 99 % of sex-linked regions subject to ARID1A-regulated chromatin accessibility.

By plotting the average H3.3 coverage at sites associated with common and gained peaks, we

detected striking differences in H3.3 occupancy. Briefly, both common and gained open

chromatin regions consisted of loci differentiated by either a loss or robust increase in H3.3

occupancy in $Arid1a^{cKO}$ relative to $Arid1a^{WT}$ pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. 6A, right panel). To

gain further insight, we performed k-means clustering, based on H3.3 occupancy, to identify 4

clusters associated with either common (C1-C4) or gained (G1-G4) peaks (Fig. 6B). The

clusters associated with common ATAC-seq peaks displayed contrasting changes in H3.3

occupancy in response to the loss of ARID1A. C1 and C2 represented regions deficient for

H3.3, while C3 and C4 represent regions that gained H3.3 binding in $Arid1a^{cKO}$ relative to

$Arid1a^{WT}$ pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. 6B, right panel). Similarly, clusters associated with

gained ATAC-seq peaks, namely, G1 and G3, represented sites that gained H3.3 occupancy,

while G2 identified sites that lost H3.3 occupancy. In contrast to clusters G1-G3, regions

associated with G4 displayed an unremarkable association with H3.3 in response to the loss of

ARID1A (Fig. 6B, right panel). Genomic annotations of common and gained k-means clusters

revealed that the sites that displayed a loss of H3.3 binding (represented by C1 + C2, G2) in

response to the loss of ARID1A were intergenic (Fig. S10A).

In contrast, those that gained significant H3.3 localization (represented by C3, C4, and G1+G3)

distributed differentially between intergenic and genic regions (Fig. S10A). Therefore, these data

support our idea that ARID1A restricts H3.3 occupancy primarily to intergenic sites on the sex

chromosomes. Furthermore, the loss of ARID1A triggers an abnormal redistribution of H3.3 to

genic regions. Therefore, the increased promoter occupancy of H3.3 is an indirect consequence

of ARID1A loss.

ARID1A-governed H3.3 localization influences the sex-linked association of DMC1

To gain further insight into the mechanisms regulating H3.3 associations on the sex

chromosomes, we examined the regions associated with various k-means clusters to

investigate the enrichment of relevant motifs. To our surprise, we detected an enrichment of the

motif associated with the DSB hotspot specifier, PRDM9 (PR domain-containing protein 9), in

clusters related to gained peaks, G1 and G3 (Fig. S10B, top). Additionally, we observed an

increased frequency of PRDM9 motif centered at gained ATAC-seq peaks associated with G1

and G3 (Fig. S10B, middle).

Interestingly, regions associated with G1 and G3 are usually devoid of H3.3 (Fig. 6B), implying a

potential antagonism between H3.3 occupancy and the occurrence of meiotic DNA DSBs.

Gained ATAC-seq peaks associated with G2, which usually displays H3.3 occupancy, appeared

devoid of PRDM9 motif occurrences relative to G1 and G3 (Fig. S10B, middle). Next, we

determined the frequency of the PRDM9 motif at k-means clusters associated with common

ATAC-seq peaks. These regions also displayed a dichotomous association with H3.3 (Fig. 6B).

C3 and C4, usually deficient in H3.3, showed an increased frequency of PRDM9 motifs relative

to C2, which typically displays H3.3 binding (Fig. S10B, bottom). These data illustrate an

antagonistic relationship between H3.3 and meiotic DNA DSBs.

Since the PRDM9 motifs identified from SSDS (Single-Stranded DNA Seq) data were generated

to map the genomic associations of DNA repair factor DMC1 (Brick et al., 2012), we monitored

its enrichment at the various k-means clusters. We also monitored the association of markers of

meiotic DNA DSBs, such as the PRDM9 catalyzed H3K4me3 at common and gained k-means

clusters using published ChIP-seq data from pachytene spermatocytes (Maezawa et al.,

2018a). Consistent with the motif analyses, DMC1 occupancy and H3K4me3 enrichment

occurred at gained and common ATAC-seq peaks associated with k-means clusters, normally

devoid of H3.3, namely, G1, G3, G4, C3, and C4 (Fig. S10 C, D).

These data suggest that ARID1A might indirectly influence DNA DSB repair on the sex

chromosomes by regulating the localization of H3.3. To test this conclusion, we monitored the

association of DMC1 on the sex chromosomes in response to the loss of ARID1A by IF.

Normally, DMC1 foci appear distributed along the non-homologous arms of the X and Y

chromosomes from early to mid-pachynema, only disappearing by late pachynema (Fig. 7A, left,

panel insets) (Moens et al., 2002). In contrast, in the absence of ARID1A, we observed a

marked reduction in the number of DMC1 foci (Fig. 7A, right, panel insets). Quantification of

DMC1 foci in Arid1a^{cKO} relative to Arid1a^{WT} pachytene spermatocytes revealed a significant

decrease in the sex-linked association of DMC1 in the absence of ARID1A (Fig. 7B). Along with

DMC1, the mitotic DNA recombinase, RAD51, is also known to localize to the non-homologous

arms of the sex chromosomes (Moens et al., 1997; Moens et al., 2002). Therefore, we

determined whether ARID1A also influenced the sex-linked association of RAD51. First, we

analyzed previously generated RAD51-SSDS data (Hinch et al., 2020) to monitor its enrichment

across the various k-means clusters associated with common and gained ATAC-seq peaks.

Unlike DMC1, we found no detectable levels of RAD51 at any k-means clusters (Fig. S11A).

Furthermore, the formation of RAD51 foci along the asynapsed axes of the sex chromosomes

appeared unchanged in *Arid1a^{cKO}* relative to *Arid1a^{WT}* pachytene spermatocytes (Fig. S11B).

Therefore, ARID1A is necessary for the normal sex-linked association of DMC1 but not RAD51.

More importantly, our data highlight a dual role for ARID1A in regulating sex chromosome

repression and DNA repair (Fig. 8).

Discussion

We previously demonstrated a spermatogenic requirement for the mammalian SWI/SNF

complex based on its role in coordinating germline transcription (Menon et al., 2019).

Furthermore, we showed that the SWI/SNF PBAF subcomplex activates genes essential for

reductional meiosis and gamete formation (Menon et al., 2021). These data highlight that

distinct SWI/SNF subcomplexes govern specific meiotic transitions.

Our current study demonstrates a requirement for the ARID1A-associated BAF (BAF-A)

subcomplex for meiotic sex chromosome inactivation (MSCI). It does so by promoting the

accumulation of the variant histone H3.3 on the sex chromosomes at the onset of mid-

pachynema, coinciding with the eviction of canonical histones H3.1/3.2 and RNA polymerase II

from the sex body (Model, Fig. 8). In contrast, when depleted of ARID1A, chromatin accessibility

increased along with a deficiency of H3.3 and the continued presence of H3.1/3.2 and pSer2-

RNAPII (an elongating form of RNA polymerase II) in the sex body. These data indicate that

BAF-A helps define features distinguishing sex chromosomes from autosomes and that the

absence of the BAF-A subcomplex during meiosis I results in the failure of MSCI during

pachynema.

Although previous work described the association of H3.3 with the sex body (van der Heijden et

al., 2007; Yuen et al., 2014) and its requirement for meiotic repression of sex-linked genes

(Fontaine et al., 2022), our study revealed the need for BAF-A in the preferential localization of

H3.3 to the sex body relative to autosomes. Interestingly, a similar role for BAF-A in promoting

H3.3 incorporation occurs in human endometriotic cells (Reske et al., 2022). In this case, the

genomic localization of H3.3 to super-enhancers required ARID1A. Our study describes the

ARID1A-dependent localization of H3.3 at a chromosome-wide scale comprised of (i) local

enrichment at intergenic loci and (ii) larger domains that resembled spreading much like that of

Xist during female X chromosome inactivation (XCI) (Chaumeil et al., 2006). Interestingly, X

chromosome inactivation (XCI) requires SWI/SNF subunits SMARCA4 and SMARCC1 in

female mouse embryonic stem cells (mESC) (Keniry et al., 2022). Here, SMARCC1 promotes

XCI by increasing promoter accessibility of the inactive X chromosome (Xi). Although sex-linked

chromatin accessibility is thought to increase during MACI (Maezawa et al., 2018b), our studies

showed that BAF-A serves to limit rather than enhances sex-linked chromatin accessibility at

pachynema. These data highlight a mechanism that checks chromosome-wide relaxation during

MSCI. The divergent outcomes of SWI/SNF-governed sex-linked chromatin accessibility during

XCI and MSCI probably reflect noticeable sex-specific differences or arise from potentially

perturbing distinct SWI/SNF subcomplexes.

Along with altered chromatin composition and structure, pachytene spermatocytes lacking

ARID1A also displayed an abnormal association of pSer2-RNAPII (elongating form) with the sex

body. Normally, total transcriptional output peaks towards the end of meiotic prophase-I, even

with MSCI coinciding (Alexander et al., 2023; Ernst et al., 2019; Monesi, 1964). The dynamic

switching from the paused (pSer5-RNAPII) to the elongating (pSer2-RNAPII) state of RNAPII

drives this burst of transcription on autosomes (Alexander et al., 2023). The association of

pSer2-RNAPII with the sex chromosomes without ARID1A renders them more autosome-like,

underlying the defect in sex-linked gene repression. The BAF-A-governed H3.3 dynamics on the

sex chromosomes may limit the switch from the paused to the elongating state of RNAPII. In a

human cell culture model, ZMYND11, a known tumor suppressor and reader of Lysine 36

trimethylation on H3.3 (H3.3K36me3), suppresses RNAPII elongation (Wen et al., 2014).

Whether similar H3.3 readers affect RNAPII pausing during meiosis in mice remains unknown.

The initiation and maintenance of MSCI are known to be regulated by DNA damage response

(DDR) factors, ATR, and MDC1, respectively (Ichijima et al., 2011, Royo et al., 2013, Turner et

al., 2004. However, ARID1A deficient pachytene spermatocytes appeared proficient in sex-

linked DDR signaling, evidenced by the normal enrichment of ATR, γH2Ax, and MDC1 on the

sex body. It is possible that BAF-A-mediated transcriptional repression of the sex chromosomes

occurs independently of DDR signaling. However, given that the accumulation of ATR and

MDC1 on the sex body precedes that of ARID1A, which only manifests late in diplonema, it is

reasonable to hypothesize that DDR signaling might recruit BAF-A to the sex chromosomes.

ARID1A did not appear necessary for sex-linked DNA DSB formation. In contrast, the expected

association of DMC1, the meiosis-specific DNA recombinase, with the asynapsed axes of the

sex chromosomes do require ARID1A. Interestingly, sex-linked intergenic sites displaying an

ARID1A-dependent enrichment of H3.3 appeared depleted for DMC1. Consistent with this

antagonism, the loss of ARID1A resulted in the re-distribution of H3.3 to regions normally

associated with DMC1. However, a subset of normal DMC1-associated regions (G4) displaying

a distinct chromatin composition with little or no occupancy of H3.3 may undergo different

dynamics of ARID1A regulation. Although only correlative, these data suggest that regions

displaying a localized enrichment of H3.3 might be unfavorable for DNA repair. Determining the

extent to which a deficiency in BAF-A activity might impede sex-linked DNA repair is

challenging. RAD51 binding to the sex chromosomes remained stable without ARID1A,

suggesting that some sex-linked DNA repair remains. Furthermore, RAD51 and DMC1 bind

ssDNA at PRDM9/SPO11 designated DSB hotspots. However, these recombinases occupy

unique domains. DMC1 localizes nearest the DSB breakpoint, promoting strand exchange,

whereas RAD51 is further away (Hinch et al., 2020). Our data suggest that loss of ARID1A

decreases DMC1 foci on the XY chromosomes without affecting RAD51. These findings

suggest that BAF-A may play a role in the loading and/or retention of DMC1 to the XY

chromosomes.   Additionally, it would be interesting to monitor the formation of DMC1 and RAD51 foci

early in meiosis I (Leptonema-Zygonema) in response to ARID1A loss. However, this analysis would

require a conditional mutation of *Arid1a* using a different *Cre* line. Nonetheless, our studies highlight a

model in which BAF-A promotes meiotic progression by facilitating MSCI and DNA repair on the

sex chromosomes.

526
527   **Materials and Methods**
528

Generation of *Arid1a* conditional mutant mice

Generation of the $Arid1a^{tm1Mag}$/Mmnc mutant allele was previously described (Chandler et al.,

2015). The mice are available through the regional mutant mouse resource and research center

(MMRRC; Stock number: 041418-UNC; www.mmrrc.org). *Arid1a* floxed mice

($Arid1a^{tm1Mag/}Mmnc$) exist on a CD1 genetic background. Crosses with testes-specific *Stra8-Cre*

mice (expressed in P3 spermatogonia) (Sadate-Ngatchou et al., 2008) resulted in conditional

knockouts. $Arid1a^{fl/fl}$; Stra8- $Cre^{Tg/0}$ females were crossed to either $Arid1a^{fl+}$ or $Arid1a^{flfl}$ males to

obtain $Arid1a^{flfl}$;Stra8-$Cre^{Tg/0}$ ($Arid1a^{cKO}$) and either $Arid1a^{flfl}$ or $Arid1a^{fl+}$ ($Arid1a^{WT}$) males.

Haploinsufficiency associated with *Arid1a* negated the possibility of transmitting the Cre through

the paternal germline. Genotyping primers: $Arid1a^{fl+}$ alleles - (F)- 5$^{'}$ -

CTAGGTGGAAGGTAGCTGACTGA -3$^{'}$; (R) 5$^{'}$ - TACACGGAGTCAGGCTGAGC -3$^{'}$ (PCR

product sizes- *fl*: 300 bp; +: 200 bp), and *Stra8-Cre* - (F) 5$^{'}$ -GTGCAAGCTGAACAACAGGA-3$^{'}$,

(R) 5$^{'}$ -AGGGACACAGCATTGGAGTC-3$^{'}$ (PCR product size- *Cre*: 150 bp). Mice were housed

with a 12-hour light cycle (temperature - 20-24° C, humidity - 30-70%). All animal work followed

approved UNC Chapel Hill IACUC protocols.

Histology

Arid1a^{WT} and *Arid1a^{cKO}* testes and cauda epididymites were fixed overnight in Bouins solution

(Fisher Scientific Ricca chemical; 11-201) at 4^oC, followed by dehydration in ethanol series

(50%, 70%, and 100%) before embedding in paraffin. The animal histopathology core prepared

stained tissue sections (hematoxylin and eosin for cauda epididymites; Periodic acid-Schiff for

testes). Staining and morphology determined seminiferous tubule staging (Ahmed and de Rooij,

2009; Meistrich and Hess, 2013). A summary of staging is provided (Supplementary Table 2).

Immunofluorescence staining of testis cryosection and spermatocyte spreads

Testes cryosections and spermatocyte spreads from juvenile (P18, P19, and P26) and adult

Arid1a^{WT} and *Arid1a^{cKO}* mice were examined with indirect immunofluorescence (IF). 8-10 μm

thick cryosections of testes were prepared using published methods (Menon et al., 2021).

Whole testes were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin (NBF) at 4^oC for 20 minutes. They

were cut in half, followed by 40 minutes of incubation in 10% NBF. Fixed tissues were washed

three times (10 minutes per wash) in room temperature (RT) phosphate-buffered saline (PBS)

pH7.4. The tissues were then treated with a series of sucrose washes - 10% (30 min), 20% (30

min), and 30% (1 hr). Tissues were then incubated at 4^oC overnight in a 1:1 ratio of a solution

of 30% sucrose/optimum cutting temperature (OCT, Tissue-Tek; 62550-01), followed by

embedding in OCT, sectioning, and storage at -80^0C. Before immunostaining, cryosections

were thawed on a heating block at 42^0C, rehydrated for 10 minutes in PBS, and incubated in

10mM citric acid buffer (pH6.0) for 10 minutes at $80-90^0$C (antigen retrieval), during which

addition of fresh citrate buffer ($80-90\ ^oC$) occurred every 2 minutes, and then allowed to cool for

20 minutes. For immunostaining, cryosections were incubated overnight in a humidified

chamber with primary (Supplementary Table3) at 4^0C and then followed by a secondary

antibody incubation at RT for 1 hr. Sera were diluted with antibody dilution buffer in PBS (ADB:

3% bovine serum albumin; 10% goat serum; 0.5% Triton-X 100). Two identical blocking steps

preceded antibody incubations. These steps involved sequential incubations in (i) PBS, (ii)

PBS/0.1% Triton-X 100, and (iii) blocking solution (1:10 dilution of ADB in PBS) for 10 minutes

each at RT. Immunostained slides were washed twice in Kodak Photo-Flo 200 (PBS/0.32%),

counterstained with DAPI, washed again in PBS/0.32% Photo-Flo 200, and then mounted in

Prolong Gold antifade medium (P-36931; Life Technologies).

Spermatocyte spreads were prepared as previously described (Gray et al., 2020) with minor

modifications. Briefly, seminiferous tubules were incubated in hypotonic buffer (30mM Tris

pH8.2, 50mM Sucrose, 17 mM Trisodium dihydrate, 5mM EDTA, 0.5mM DTT, 0.1 mM PMSF)

for 10-20 minutes on ice. Tubules were minced in 100 mM sucrose (200 µL/testis) until the

solution turned turbid. The resulting cell suspension was isolated, avoiding tissue debris, and

held on ice. Cells were fixed and spread by dropping 20 µL of cell suspension directly onto glass

slides coated with paraformaldehyde solution (1 % Paraformaldehyde; 0.15 % Triton X-100; 625

nM Sodium Borate, pH 9.2). Uniform spreading was ensured by tilting the slides along the near

and opposite edges. Next, slides were incubated in a humidified chamber for 1 hr, following

which they quickly air-dried and then washed two times in PBS/0.32% Photo-Flo 200 and once

in H_2O/0.32% Photo-Flo 200. Air-dried slides were immediately processed for immunostaining

as described above for cryosections or stored at - 80^0C. Immunostained spreads were washed

2x with PBS/0.32% Photo-Flo 200, counterstained with DAPI, and washed again with Photo-Flo

200. Stained spreads were mounted in Prolong Gold antifade medium. The list of antibodies for

IF is provided in supplementary table 3. The Leica Dmi8 fluorescent microscope was used to

capture images. Z-stacks were deconvoluted using Leica Dmi8 image software (Huygens

essentials version 20.04). Some whole immunofluorescence image panels with low visibility

(see figure legends 3,5 and supplemental figure legends 4,6,7) were enhanced to increase

brightness.

Fluorescence intensity measurements and object (foci) counting were performed with Fiji

(Schindelin et al., 2012). RNAPII (pSer2) IF signal intensities were measured using the method

described previously (Menon et al., 2021). Briefly, pixel intensities were recorded from regions

of interest (ROI), which include the sex chromosomes (sex body) and an area lacking cells

(background fluorescence). Corrected total RNAPII-pSer2 fluorescence (CTRF) was calculated

using the method previously described

(https://theolb.readthedocs.io/en/latest/imaging/measuring-cell-fluorescence-using-imagej.html),

where CTRF= Integrated density associated with sex body – (Area of sex body x Mean

fluorescence of background).

For counting axial DMC1 foci, images were cropped to an area encompassing the sex

chromosomes. Cropped images were converted to 8-bit grayscale, and the DMC1 fluorescent

channel selected for further processing. An ROI was set, manual thresholding was performed to

select DMC foci, and noise (speckles) removed using the Fiji median filter tool with a radius set

to 2.0-4.0. Finally, DMC1 was enumerated with the count particles tool. Statistical significance

was calculated using an unpaired student's t-test. Metadata associated with the quantification of

RNAPII (pSer2) fluorescence and DMC1 foci are provided (Supplementary Table 4,5)

Preparation of acid-extracted histones and western blotting

Histones from P19 *Arid1a^{WT}* and *Arid1a^{cKO}* spermatogenic cells were acid-extracted using

published methods (Shechter et al., 2007). Seminiferous tubules were digested in 1 mL of

Enriched Krebs-Ringer Bicarbonate (EKRB) Medium (EKRB salts - 1.2 mM KH_2PO_4, 1.3 mM

$CaCl_2$, 119.4 mM NaCl, 4.8 mM KCl, 1.2 mM $MgSO_4$, 11.1 mM Dextrose; 25.2 mM $NaHCO_3$; 1X

essential amino acids -Invitrogen, 11130051; 1X non-essential amino acids-Gibco,11140050)

supplemented with 0.5 mg/mL collagenase (10 minutes, rotated at 32 ^{o}C). Digested tubules

sedimented by gravity for 5 minutes at RT. The supernatant was removed, tubules were

resuspended in 1 mL EKRB medium, and then settled for 5 minutes at RT. The sedimented

tubules were transferred to 1 mL EKRB medium supplemented with 0.025% trypsin and 4

µg/mL DNase-I. The suspension was incubated for 10 minutes on a rotator at 32°C. Digestion

was halted with 10% Fetal bovine serum (FBS), and single-cell suspensions were prepared by

pipetting the slurry and then filtering it sequentially through 70 µm and 40 µm filters. Cells were

pelleted at 600g for 5 minutes, washed once in PBS, and processed for histone extraction.

Briefly, cell pellets were resuspended in 1 mL hypotonic lysis buffer (10mM Tris-Cl pH8.0, 1mM

KCl, 1.5mM $MgCl_2$, 1mM DTT) and incubated on a rotator at 4°C for 30 minutes. Nuclei were

pelleted at 10,000 g for 10 minutes at 4°C. Nuclear pellets were resuspended in 400 µL 0.2N

HCl and incubated for 1 hr at 4 ^{o}C, followed by centrifugation at 14,000 g for 10 minutes at 4°C

to isolate supernatants containing histones that were precipitated with Trichloroacetic acid

(TCA), and then added to the nuclear suspension at a final concentration of 33% and incubated

on ice for 30 minutes. Precipitated histones were pelleted at 14,000g for 10 minutes at 4°C and

washed two times in 1 mL ice-cold acetone. Finally, washed histones were air-dried at RT for 20

minutes and resuspended in 100 µL ddH_2O. Histones were separated on a 15 % SDS-

polyacrylamide gel for Western blots and transferred to a PVDF (Polyvinylidene Difluoride)

membrane using a semi-dry transfer apparatus (Bio-Rad). Sample loading was assessed by

REVERT^{TM} total protein stain (LI-COR, 926-11010). Blots were scanned on a LI-COR Odyssey

CLx imager and viewed using Image Studio Version 5.2.5. Antibodies and their corresponding

dilutions are listed (Supplementary Table 3).

Isolation of Pachytene Spermatocytes by the Sta-Put Method of Unit Gravity and Western

Blotting

Pachytene spermatocytes were purified from *Arid1a^WT* and *Arid1a^cKO* adult testis by the unit

gravity sedimentation procedure using a Sta-Put apparatus (Bellvé, 1993; O'Brien, 1993). Testis

from at least 12 adult males (>P60) were dissected into EKRB, decapsulated, and digested in

0.5mg/ml collagenase for 15 min at 32^oC. The resulting tubules were gently washed with EKRB

and digested with 0.25mg/ml trypsin supplemented with 4µg/ml DNase for 15 min at 32^oC.

Following trypsin incubation, additional DNase (4µg/mL) was added to reduce viscosity further.

Samples were triturated for 3 minutes with a plastic transfer pipet to fragment flagella, break

intercellular bridges between germ cells, and further disperse cells into suspension. Trypsin

digestion was stopped by adding 0.25mg/mL trypsin inhibitor (Sigma/EPRO, T9003), and cell

aggregates were removed by filtration using 40 µm cell strainers. Cells from the flow-through

were pelleted at 500g for 5 min at 4^oC, resuspended in EKRB + 0.5% BSA, and adjusted to a

3.33×10^8 cells/mL density. 10^9 cells from this single-cell suspension were loaded onto a 2-4%

linear BSA gradient and allowed to sediment in the Sta-Put apparatus at 4^oC. After 2hr and

40min of undisturbed sedimentation, 10ml fractions were collected at 45 sec per tube. Fractions

were pelleted at 500g for 5 min at 4^oC and resuspended in 1ml EKRB + 0.5%BSA. Fractions

containing >80% pachytene spermatocytes were identified by light microscopy, pooled, and

stored in cryoprotective media (DMEM supplemented with 10%FBS and 20%DMSO) at -80^oC

pending further analysis.

Pachytene spermatocytes obtained were resuspended in RIPA buffer (50mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0,

150mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 0.5% Sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, 5mM NaF, 1mM Na_3VO_4,

1mM Phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), 1X Protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma)) at 4°C and

sonicated for 15 minutes followed by centrifugation at 12000xg for 10 minutes at 4°C. Western

blotting was performed by separating samples in 5% SDS-polyacrylamide gel and transferring to

PVDF (polyvinylidene difluoride) membranes (Bio-Rad) overnight. Blots were scanned on a LI-

COR Odyssey CLx imager. Image Studio Version 5.2.5 was used to view blots and quantify

band intensity. Antibodies and their corresponding dilutions are listed (Supplementary Table 3).

RNA extraction and RT-PCR

Total RNA was isolated in TRIzol^TM reagent (Invitrogen, 15596026) from Sta-Put purified

fractions enriched for pachytene spermatocytes and round spermatids. The extracted RNA was

purified using the Direct-zol RNA kit (Zymo, R2050). cDNA was synthesized using a random

primer mix (New England Biolabs, S1330S) and ProtoScript® II reverse transcriptase (New

England Biolabs, M0368L). RT-PCR was performed on 1:10 cDNA dilutions using Sso Fast

EvaGreen supermix (Bio-Rad, 172-5280) on a thermocycler (BioRad, C1000). Amplicons

associated with either floxed or excised *Arid1a* cDNA's were detected using primers: (F)- 5′ -

TCCAGTAAGGGAGGGCAAGAAGAT -3′; (R) 5′ - GTAGTTGGCGTTGGGCAAGGCATTA -3′

(PCR product sizes- *fl*: 612 bp; *Δ*: 281 bp)

RNA-seq

RNA was extracted and purified in quadruplicate from frozen pellets of *Arid1a^WT^* and *Arid1a^cKO^*

pachytene spermatocytes obtained by Salmony Sta-Put gravity sedimentation using the

abovementioned methods. All samples displayed RNA integrity number (RIN) > 7.0 as

determined by Agilent Tapestation (High sensitivity RNA screen tape). Sequencing libraries

were prepared from 1 µg of total RNA using a Kapa mRNA HyperPrep kit (Roche, KK8580) per

the manufacturer's instruction. Libraries were quantified using Qubit™ dsDNA Hs assay kit

(Invitrogen, Q32854) pooled at equimolar concentrations, and sequenced on a single lane of the

Illumina NovaSeq 6000 S Prime flow cell (50 bp reads, paired-end).

RNA-seq data analysis

Gene expression was quantified using Salmon (Patro et al., 2017). Transcript counts at the

gene level were summarized using tximport (Soneson et al., 2016) and then imported to perform

a differential gene expression analysis using DESeq2 (Love et al., 2014). The mouse (mm10)

gene/transcript annotations were retrieved using AnotationDbi (Pàges et al., 2021) and

TxDb.Mus musculus.UCSC.mm10.known gene (Bioconductor Core Team, 2019) R packages

from Bioconductor. Low-count genes (< 10 reads) were pre-filtered, and significant differences

in counts were called at a false discovery rate (FDR)≤ 0.05. Supplementary Table 6 lists

differentially expressed genes.

CUT&RUN (Cleavage Under Targets and Release Using Nuclease)

CUT&RUN assays were performed on cryopreserved *Arid1a^WT^* and *Arid1a^cKO^* pachytene

spermatocytes (500,000 cells/genotype) obtained by Sta-Put, using a slightly modified version

of previously described methods (Meers et al., 2019; Skene and Henikoff, 2017). For ARID1A,

CUT&RUN was performed in triplicates per genotype with two different antibodies. H3.3

CUT&RUN was performed in duplicates on *Arid1a^WT^* and triplicates on *Arid1a^cKO^* samples.

Aliquots of cryopreserved *Arid1a^WT* and *Arid1a^cKO* pachytene spermatocytes were quickly

thawed in a water bath at room temperature (RT), pelleted at 600g for 5 minutes, and washed

[wash buffer: 20mM HEPES(Na) pH7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM spermidine, EDTA-free protease

inhibitor] three times. Cells were gently resuspended in wash buffer and bound to Concanavalin-

A coated magnetic beads (20 µL beads/500,000 cells) by mixing on a rotator for 15 minutes.

The bead slurry was separated using a magnet followed by permeabilization in 50 µL antibody

buffer (wash buffer + 0.05% Digitonin + 2mM EDTA) per sample in 0.2 mL 8-strip PCR tubes.

Primary antibody was added to the samples and incubated on a nutator at 4° C overnight. Cells

were then separated using a magnet, washed two times in 200 µL Dig-wash buffer (wash buffer

+ 0.05% Digitonin), and incubated with a secondary antibody prepared in 50 µL of Dig-wash

buffer/sample for 30 minutes on a nutator at 4° C. After antibody incubations, samples were

washed twice in 200 µL Dig-wash buffer and then incubated on a nutator at 4° C with 50 µL Dig-

wash buffer containing 1000ng/mL Protein A/G Micrococcal Nuclease (pA/G-MNase) for 1 hr.

Following this, samples were washed twice in 200 µL Dig-wash buffer, resuspended in 50 µL

Dig-wash buffer, cooled down to 0° C, and supplemented with $CaCl_2$ at a final concentration of 2

mM to activate MNase. Samples were digested at $0\ ^oC$ for 40 minutes. The resulting chromatin

fragments were extracted from the bead slurry by incubating in 2X STOP buffer (340 mM NaCl,

20mM EDTA, 4mM EGTA, 0.05% Digitonin, 100 µg/mL RNase A) at 37° C for 30 minutes. DNA

was purified using ChIP DNA clean and concentrator kit (Zymo, D5205). Libraries were

prepared using the Kapa Hyperprep kit (Roche, KK8504), examined for size, and quantified on

an Agilent 2100 bioanalyzer using the high-sensitivity DNA kit (Agilent, 5067-4626). The

libraries were pooled in equimolar amounts and sequenced on a single lane of the Illumina

NovaSeq 6000 S Prime flow cell (50 bp reads, paired-end). Antibody details are listed in

Supplementary Table 3. The pA/G-MNase (Addgene ID: 123461) used for the CUT&RUN

experiments was purified at UNC-Chapel Hill's Protein Expression and Purification core.

CUT&RUN data analysis

CUT&RUN data analyses were performed as previously described (Menon et al., 2021). Briefly,

fastq files were analyzed with fastqc (version 0.11.9), then processed with TrimGalore (version

0.6.2, https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore/) keeping the --trim-n

option. Trimmed reads were aligned to mm10 (mouse) reference genome using bowtie2

(Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) parameters: bowtie2 --very-sensitive-local --no-mixed --no-unal

--dovetail --no-discordant. Alignments were outputted in BAM format using samtools (Li et al.,

2009) and filtered for PCR duplicates using Picard tools, MarkDuplicates

(https://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/). Deduplicated BAM files were used to generate bigWig

files filtered for ENCODE mm10 blocked regions (Amemiya et al., 2019) with DeepTools,

bamCoverage (Ramírez et al., 2016) with the following options: -bs 30 --smoothLength 60 -bl --

scaleFactor. The option --scaleFactor was used to normalize for composition bias between

CUT&RUN libraries generated from *Arid1a^WT* and *Arid1a^cKO* pachytene spermatocytes.

csaw (Lun and Smyth, 2015) derived normalization factors (nf) were used to calculate the

effective library size (library size X nf). The inverse of the effective library size per million was

supplied to --scaleFactor to generate normalized bigWig files. Peak calling was performed with

MACS2 (version 2.1.2) with options: -f BAMPE --broad --broad-cutoff 0.05 --keep-dup all, on

filtered BAM files associated with ARID1A and H3.3 relative to an IgG control previously

generated from pachytene enriched populations obtained from P18 testes (Chakraborty and

Magnuson, 2022). Peak overlaps across replicates were determined using bedtools intersect

(Quinlan and Hall, 2010). Peak calls are provided in supplementary table 7. Peaks were

annotated using HOMER (version 4.9.1), annotatePeaks.pl. Replicate bigWig files were

averaged using WiggleTools (Zerbino et al., 2014). Averaged bigWig files generated heatmaps

with DeepTools, computeMatrix, and plotHeatmap. Data was visualized on Integrative

Genomics Viewer (Robinson et al., 2011).

ATAC-seq

Cryopreserved aliquots of *Arid1a^WT* and *Arid1a^cKO* pachytene spermatocytes were processed in

quadruplicate for ATAC-seq using the standard Omni-ATAC protocol (Corces et al., 2017) with

minor changes. These involved increasing the cell number to 100,000 per replicate, using

Diagenode tagmentase (loaded Tn5 transposase, C01070012) and Diagenode 2X tagmentation

buffer (C01019043). Libraries were quantified using NEBNext® kit for Illumina® (New England

Biolabs, E7630S), pooled at equimolar amounts, and sequenced on a single lane of the Illumina

NovaSeq 6000 S Prime flow cell (50 bp reads, paired end).

ATAC-seq data analysis

After analyzing the quality of fastq files with fastqc (version 0.11.9), they were processed with

TrimGalore (version 0.6.2), keeping the --trim-n option. Alignments to mm10 reference genome

were performed with bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) parameters: bowtie2 --very-

sensitive -X 2000, and outputted in BAM format using samtools. Resultant BAM files were

filtered for PCR duplicates using Picard tools, MarkDuplicates, and mitochondrial reads using

samtools view (code: samtools view -h Dedup.bam | grep -v 'chrM' | samtools view -b -h -f 0x2 -

| samtools sort > Dedup_noChrM.bam). Filtered BAM files were used to call peaks with MACS2

(parameters: -f BAMPE -n de -q 0.05 --nomodel --nolambda --keep-dup all) and generate

normalized bigWig files with DeepTools, bamCoverage (options: -bs 30 --smoothLength 60 -bl --

normalized using RPKM). Peak overlaps across replicates were determined using bedtools

intersect (Quinlan and Hall, 2010). Peak calls are provided in supplementary table 8. Peak

annotation (annotatePeaks.pl) and motif analyses (findMotifsGenome.pl) were performed with

HOMER (version 4.9.1). PRDM9 motif frequency near ATAC-seq peaks was determined using

HOMER annotatePeaks.pl with options: -size 20000 -hist 10. Replicate bigWig files were

averaged using WiggleTools (Zerbino et al., 2014). Averaged bigWig files generated heatmaps

with DeepTools, computeMatrix, and plotHeatmap. Data was visualized on Integrative

Genomics Viewer (Robinson et al., 2011).

DATA AVAILABILITY:

RNA-seq, CUT&RUN, and ATAC-seq data generated in this study are deposited with GEO

(Gene Expression Omnibus) under accession number GSE225612. DMC1 SSDS (GSE35498),

RAD51 SSDS (GSE143582), and H3K4me3 ChIP-seq (GSE89502) datasets were previously

published (Brick et al., 2012; Hinch et al., 2020; Maezawa et al., 2018) and are available on

GEO.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

D.U.M and T.M conceptualized and designed the project. D.U.M., PC, and N.M. carried out

experiments. Data curation and validation are done by D.U.M, PC, and N.M. D.U.M, PC, and

NM performed the writing, which was reviewed and edited by T.M. Project supervision and

funding acquisition by T.M.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

 Figure Legends

Fig 1. ARID1A associates with the sex body late in meiotic prophase-I.

Representative wild-type pachytene and diplotene spermatocyte spreads immunolabelled for

ARID1A (magenta) and SYCP3 (green) and then counterstained for DNA (blue). Panel insets

denote a magnified view of the nuclear area surrounding the sex chromosomes. Scale bar:10

µm, magnification: 100x.

Fig 2. Requirement of ARID1A for the repression of sex-linked genes.

(A) MA plot describing the LOG2-fold-change (LFC, y-axis) in mean expression (x-axis) of

genes displaying significant (FDR≤0.05, magenta dots) changes in $Arid1a^{cKO}$ relative to

$Arid1a^{WT}$ pachytene spermatocytes. Dashed blue lines denote 2 LFC. Gray dots (FDR≥0.05)

depict non-significant changes in gene expression. (B) Violin plot describing the LOG2-fold-

change (LFC, y-axis) in the median chromosome-wide gene expression (x-axis) in $Arid1a^{cKO}$

relative to $Arid1a^{WT}$ pachytene spermatocytes. The dashed blue line denotes no change in gene

expression.

Fig 3. ARID1A limits RNA polymerase II (RNAPII) localization to the sex body.

(A) $Arid1a^{WT}$ and $Arid1a^{cKO}$ pachytene spermatocytes immunolabelled for pSer2-RNAPII

(green), SYCP3 (cyan), and counterstained with DAPI (blue). Scale bar:15 µm, magnification:

100x. The sex chromosomes (white arrow) and sex body (yellow dashed circle) are labeled.

Brightness of the whole image panel (A) was increased by compressing the dynamic range of

the image panel using Adobe photoshop (0-1-255 to 0-1-150). (B) Dot plot describing the

corrected total pSer2-RNAPII fluorescence (y-axis) measured from $Arid1a^{WT}$ (n = 82) and

$Arid1a^{cKO}$ (n= 119) pachytene spermatocytes (3 replicates per genotype). Empty diamonds

(magenta) represent independent data points. Significance determined by a two-tailed unpaired

Student's t-test p values. Data expressed as mean (black dot) ± SEM.

Fig 4. ARID1A limits promoter accessibility.

(A) Genomic associations of MACS2 derived ATAC-seq peak calls from $Arid1a^{WT}$ and $Arid1a^{cKO}$

pachytene spermatocytes. Percent (%) distribution of genomic annotations is indicated. (B-C)

Heatmap (bottom) and metaplot (top) displaying the average ATAC-seq signal associated with

differentially expressed (B) autosomal and (C) sex-linked genes in $Arid1a^{WT}$ and $Arid1a^{cKO}$

pachytene spermatocytes. (B-C) The number of RefSeq annotations (n) associated with

differentially regulated genes (rows) is indicated. Up-reg: misexpressed, and Dn-reg:

misrepressed genes in response to the loss of ARID1A. Average ATAC-seq coverage was

plotted across RefSeq genes ± 3Kb.

Fig 5. ARID1A influences the chromatin composition of the sex body.

(A-B) $Arid1a^{WT}$ and $Arid1a^{cKO}$ pachytene spermatocytes immunolabelled for HORMAD1

(magenta), (A) ARID1A (cyan) and H3.3 (green), (B) ARID1A (green) and H3.1/3.2 (cyan). (A-B)

Proportion (%) of $Arid1a^{WT}$ and $Arid1a^{cKO}$ early, mid, and late pachytene spermatocytes

displaying distinct (A) H3.3, (B) H3.1/3.2 localization patterns with the sex body. For H3.3

immunostaining, the total number of $Arid1a^{WT}$ pachytene spermatocytes: early = 144, mid= 274,

late= 95; $Arid1a^{cKO}$ pachytene spermatocytes: early = 43, mid= 86, late= 55, were scored, from

3 replicates each. For H3.1/3.2 immunostaining, the total number of $Arid1a^{WT}$ pachytene

spermatocytes: early = 91, mid= 124, late= 45; $Arid1a^{cKO}$ pachytene spermatocytes: early = 22,

mid= 116, late= 58, were scored, from 3 replicates each. DNA counterstained with DAPI (blue).

The sex chromosomes (yellow arrow) and sex body (yellow dashed circle) are labeled. Scale

bar:15 μm, magnification: 100x. Brightness of the whole image panel (Fig. 5) was increased by

compressing the dynamic range of the image panels using Adobe photoshop (0-1-255 to 0-1-

150).

Fig 6. H3.3 displays differential occupancy across ARID1A-governed sex-linked open

chromatin.

(A-B) Heatmaps (bottom) and metaplots (top) displaying average (A) chromatin accessibility

(purple heatmap) and H3.3 enrichment (green heatmap) associated with lost, common, and

gained ATAC-seq peak calls (MACS2), (B) enrichment of H3.3 at k-means clusters associated

with common (C1-C4, left) and gained (G1-G4, right) ATAC-seq peaks, in $Arid1a^{WT}$ and

$Arid1a^{cKO}$ pachytene spermatocytes. (A-B) ATAC-seq and H3.3 coverage plotted over a 5 Kb

window centered at ATAC-seq peaks (MACS2). Number of ATAC-seq peak calls (n) associated

with each category is indicated.

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Fig 7. ARID1A influences the axial association of DMC1 with the XY during pachynema.

(A) $Arid1a^{WT}$ and $Arid1a^{cKO}$ pachytene spermatocytes immunolabelled for HORMAD1

(magenta), ARID1A (green), DMC1 (cyan), and counterstained with DAPI (blue). Scale bar:15

μm, magnification: 100x. A magnified view of the sex chromosomes is indicated (yellow dashed

square). (B) Dot plot displaying the number of sex-linked DMC1 foci (y-axis) quantified from

Arid1a^{WT} (n = 66) and *Arid1a^{cKO}* (ARID1A$^-$, n= 75) pachytene spermatocytes, obtained from 3

replicates each. Empty diamonds (magenta) represent independent data points. Significance

determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test p values. Data expressed as mean

(black dot) ± SEM.

Fig 8. A model describing the role of ARID1A sex-linked chromatin regulation.

During meiosis, the sex chromosomes undergo transcriptional repression at the onset of

pachynema. A dramatic change in the composition of sex-linked chromatin accompanies this

chromosome-wide repression. From mid to late pachynema, spermatocytes display a hyper-

accumulation of the variant histone H3.3 (Ochre shading and gradient) on the sex

chromosomes (magenta) relative to autosomes (green). Concomitantly, the canonical histones

H3.1/3.2 levels and elongating pSer2-RNAPII complex (grey gradients) appear depleted from

the sex body by late pachynema. The loss of ARID1A dramatically alters the chromatin

composition of the sex body, which features low H3.3 (yellow bar) association at levels

indistinguishable from autosomes throughout pachynema. Concomitantly, canonical H3.1/3.2

and pSer2-RNAPII levels (grey bar) on the sex body remain abnormally stable throughout

pachynema. These sex-linked chromatin aberrations, along with persistent transcription owing

to the association of pSer2-RNAPII with mutant sex body, fail meiotic sex chromosome

inactivation (MSCI) and, consequently, pachytene arrest. This defect also coincides with an

abnormal loss of DMC1 (blue foci) localization to the unpaired sex chromatids in response to the

loss of ARID1A. Therefore, along with transcriptional repression, ARID1A-governed chromatin

dynamics appear to influence DNA repair on the sex chromosomes.

Table 1. The loss of ARID1A results in a pachytene arrest.

Table outlining the distribution of P23 *Arid1a^{WT}* and *Arid1a^{cKO}* meiotic prophase-I profiles.

SYCP3 staining determined meiotic staging. Co-staining of ARID1A identified mutant

spermatocytes from escaper. The total number of spermatocytes scored included 166 for

Arida$^{fl/fl}$ and 124 for *Arid1a^{cKO}*. * denotes *Arid1a^{cKO}* diplotene spermatocytes with partially

reduced but not complete loss of ARID1A signal relative to controls.

Fig S1. ARID1A transcripts detected in pachytene spermatocytes.

scRNA-seq profiles of *Arid1a* and *Arid1b* in adult testes from B6 mice (Ernst et al., 2019). (A)

tSNE plot describing the clustering of various spermatogenic stages. LOG2 normalized

expression counts of (B,C) *Arid1a* and (D,E) *Arid1b* represented by tSNE plots and bar plots.

(B,D) tSNE plots illustrating the first (tSNE1, x-axis) and second dimensions (tSNE2, y-axis) .

(C,E) Bar plots describe the gene's mRNA abundance (y-axis) across identified germ cell

clusters (x-axis). (A) eP: early pachynema, mP: mid pachynema, lP: late pachynema, MI:

Metaphase-I, MII: Metaphase-II, S1-S11: Spermatid stages. Plots generated with shiny app

(https://marionilab.cruk.cam.ac.uk/SpermatoShiny)

Fig S2. Western blot for ARID1A in wild-type and mutant pachytene spermatocytes (left) and

with quantitation (right). The Uniprot entry for Mouse ARID1A only indicates a large mol.wt

sequence of ~242 kDa. There is no evidence to suggest that lower molecular weight isoforms

may be translated. Although speculative, it is possible that the lower molecular weight bands

represent proteolytic/proteasomal degradation products or products of antibody non-specificity.

Nucleolin (NCL) is the loading control. Bars in B represent mean ± S.E.M. *; p<0.01. The

antibody used for the Western blot is a rabbit anti-ARID1A (D2A8U from Cell Signaling

Technology 12354).

Fig S3. Spermatogenesis appears unperturbed in *Arid1a^{cKO}* males.

Histological examination of (A) PAS-stained seminiferous tubule sections and (B) H&E-stained

cauda epididymal sections obtained from adult *Arid1a^{WT} and Arid1a^{cKO}* mice. The micrograph

depicts seminiferous tubule staging and scale bars (50 μm). Magnification: 40x.

Fig S4. *Arid1a^{cKO}* testes display inefficient *Stra8-Cre* activity.

(A) Schematic (top) illustrating the region of *Arid1a^{fl}* allele spanning exons (ex) 4-8 (grey boxes)

along with the location of *loxP* sites (solid magenta arrowheads) and primer annealing sites

(blue arrows). (A bottom): analysis of the RT-PCR of *Arid1a* transcripts from STA-PUT purified

populations of *Arid1a^{WT} and Arid1a^{cKO}* pachytene spermatocytes (left) and round spermatids

(right). DNA electrophoresis gels indicate bands corresponding to the fl: floxed and Δ: excised

PCR products. *Arid1a^{WT} and Arid1a^{cKO}* (B) testes cryosections and (C) spermatocyte spreads,

immunolabelled for ARID1A (magenta), SYCP3 (green), and counterstained for DNA (blue). (B)

Scale bar: 20 μm, magnification: 63x, P: Pachytene, D: Diplotene, and M-I: Metaphase-I

spermatocytes. (C) Scale bar:15 μm, magnification: 100x. Brightness of the whole panels (B,C)

were increased by compressing the dynamic range of the image panels using Adobe photoshop

(0-1-255 to 0-1-150).

Fig S5. Transcription start sites of differentially expressed autosomal and sex-linked

genes display ARID1A occupancy.

(A-B) Heatmap (bottom) and metaplot (top) displaying the average gene-wide enrichment of

ARID1A associated with differentially expressed (A) autosomal and (B) sex-linked genes in

*Arid1a^WT^* and *Arid1a^cKO^* pachytene spermatocytes. (A-B) The number of RefSeq annotations (n)

associated with differentially regulated autosomal and sex-linked genes (rows) is indicated. Up-

reg: misexpressed and Dn-reg: misrepressed genes in response to the loss of ARID1A.

Average ARID1A CUT&RUN coverage was determined using two antibodies (anti-ARID1A^Sigma^;

anti-ARID1A^CST^) plotted across RefSeq genes ± 3Kb.

Fig S6. ARID1A does not influence sex body formation.

(A) *Arid1a^WT^* and *Arid1a^cKO^* spermatocyte spreads immunolabelled for ARID1A (magenta) and

γH2Ax (green). Scale bar:15 µm, magnification: 100x. (B) Cross section of adult (3-month-old)

*Arid1a^WT^* and *Arid1a^cKO^* seminiferous tubules immunolabelled for ARID1A (green) and ATR

(cyan). Scale bar:15 µm, magnification: 63x. (C) *Arid1a^WT^* and *Arid1a^cKO^* pachytene

spermatocytes immunolabelled for MDC1 (magenta), SYCP3 (cyan), and ARID1A (green).

Scale bar:15 µm, magnification: 100x. (A-B) DNA counterstained with DAPI (blue). Brightness of

the whole image panel (C) was increased by compressing the dynamic range of the image

panel using Adobe photoshop (0-1-255 to 0-1-150).

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Fig S7. ARID1A does not influence the expression or incorporation of H3.3.

(A) Western blots on acid-extracted histones obtained from four independent replicates of P19

*Arid1a^WT^* and *Arid1a^cKO^* spermatogenic cells, displaying H3.3 abundance. Total histone levels

from each sample are displayed. (B) *Arid1a^WT^* and *Arid1a^cKO^* pachytene spermatocytes

immunolabelled for HORMAD1 (magenta), DAXX (cyan), and ARID1A (green). DNA

counterstained with DAPI (blue). The sex chromosomes (yellow arrow) and sex body (yellow

dashed circle) are labeled. Scale bar:15 µm, magnification: 100x. (C) *Arid1a^WT^* and *Arid1a^cKO^*

testis cryosections immunolabelled for ARID1A (magenta) and HIRA (green). DNA

counterstained with DAPI (blue). Representative mutant (white arrows) and escaper (yellow

arrows) pachytene spermatocytes labeled in *Arid1a^cKO^* testis cryosection. Scale bar: 15 µm,

magnification: 63x. Brightness of the whole panels (B,C) were increased by compressing the

dynamic range of the image panels using Adobe photoshop (0-1-255 to 0-1-150).

Fig S8. ARID1A limits H3.3 occupancy at promoters

(A) Genomic associations of MACS2 H3.3 peak calls from *Arid1a^{WT}* and *Arid1a^{cKO}* pachytene

spermatocytes. Percent (%) distribution of genomic annotations is indicated. (B-C) Heatmap

(bottom) and metaplot (top) displaying the average H3.3 signal associated with differentially

expressed (B) autosomal and (C) sex-linked genes in *Arid1a^{WT}* and *Arid1a^{cKO}* pachytene

spermatocytes. (B-C) The number of RefSeq annotations (n) associated with differentially

regulated genes (rows) is indicated. Up-reg: misexpressed, and Dn-reg: misrepressed genes in

response to the loss of ARID1A. Average H3.3 coverage plotted across RefSeq genes ± 3Kb.

Fig S9. Genome browser views of ARID1A governed H3.3 genomic associations.

H3.3 CUT&RUN coverage from *Arid1a^{WT}* (green tracks) and *Arid1a^{cKO}* (Orange tracks)

pachytene spermatocytes. Solid red bars and yellow highlights denote H3.3 peak calls (MACS2)

from *Arid1a^{WT}* and *Arid1a^{cKO}* pachytene spermatocytes. Vertical viewing limits within

parentheses.

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Fig S10. H3.3 occupancy is antagonistic to DMC1 associations in non-homologous sex-

linked regions.

(A) Genomic associations of common (C1-C4) and gained (G1-G4) k-means clusters in

pachytene spermatocytes. Percent (%) distribution of genomic annotations is indicated. (B)

Results of PRDM9 motif enrichment analyses at gained (G1 and G3), k-means clusters (top),

and plots describing the frequency of PRDM9 motifs (y-axis) spanning a 5 Kb window centered

at ATAC-seq peaks (x-axis) associated with gained (middle) and common (bottom) k-means

clusters that are either deficient (orange trend line) or enriched (cyan trend line) for H3.3

occupancy. Trend lines were generated using generalized additive mode smoothing (gam). 95%

confidence interval (gray shading) is indicated. (C-D) Heatmaps displaying testes DMC1 (left)

and pachytene spermatocyte associated H3K4me3 (right) enrichment relative to input at k-

means clusters associated with (C) gained (G1-G4), and (D) common (C1-C4) ATAC-seq

peaks. (C-D) DMC1 and H3K4me3 coverage plotted over a 10 Kb window centered at ATAC-

seq peaks (MACS2).

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Fig S11. ARID1A does not affect the axial association of RAD51 with the XY during

pachynema.

(A) Heatmaps displaying testes RAD51 enrichment relative to input at k-means clusters

associated with gained (G1-G4, left) and common (C1-C4, right) ATAC-seq peaks. RAD51

coverage plotted over a 10 Kb window centered at ATAC-seq peaks (MACS2). (B) *Arid1a^{WT}* and

Arid1a^{cKO} pachytene spermatocytes immunolabelled for HORMAD1 (magenta), RAD51 (green)

and counterstained with DAPI (blue). Scale bar:15 µm, magnification: 100x. Yellow arrows and

dashed circles label the sex chromosomes.

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1022   **Table S1.** There is no significant difference in the numbers of undifferentiated spermatogonia

1023   expressing PLZF in 1-month-old *Arid1a^{cKO}* relative to *Arid1a^{fl/fl}* males.

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1211

A

FDR < 0.05   FDR > 0.05

LOG2 fold change ($Arid1a^{cKO}/Arid1a^{WT}$)

Up-reg

Down-reg

Mean of normalized counts

B

LOG2 fold change ($Arid1a^{cKO}/Arid1a^{WT}$)

Chromosome

Meiotic Profile (P23)	*Arid1a$^{fl/fl}$* (n= 166)	*Arid1a^{cKO}* (n= 124)
Pre-Lep/Leptonema	3.6 %	13.7 %
Zygonema	-	15.3 %
Early Pachynema	13.8 %	12.9 %
Mid Pachynema	22.89 %	40.3 %
late Pachynema	7.22 %	7.2 %
Early Diplonema	38.5 %	4.8 % *
Late Diplonema	14.45 %	5.6 % *

Table 1. The loss of ARID1A results in a pachytene arrest.