DNA methylation insulates genic regions from CTCF loops near nuclear speckles

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Running title: Methylation insulates genic CTCF loops at speckles

Abstract

CTCF occupancy is inhibited by DNA methylation, but the effects of methylation-sensitive CTCF binding on chromatin structure and transcription are poorly understood. Here, we use a selective DNMT1 inhibitor to demethylate the genome and investigate the features and functions of the resulting 'reactivated' CTCF peaks. We reveal a tendency for reactivated CTCF peaks to form chromatin loops on gene bodies and to interact with highly-looping partner peaks located in active chromatin regions near architectural stripe anchors. To dissect the potential functions of reactivated CTCF peaks, we combine DNMT1 inhibition with acute CTCF depletion and identify a subset of genes that are upregulated in a CTCF-dependent manner. These genes, as well as reactivated peaks and their highly-looping partners, are located in close proximity to nuclear speckles, prompting us to investigate whether CTCF looping and speckles are functionally linked. We find that despite the prevalence of CTCF reactivation and looping near nuclear speckles, acute depletion of speckles affects transcription with minimal disruption to CTCF binding or looping. Taken together, these findings suggest a model in which DNA methylation prevents genic CTCF occupancy and spurious interactions with regulatory elements near nuclear speckles, while CTCF looping is robust towards speckle disruption.

Introduction

The mammalian genome is organized at multiple length scales (Rowley and Corces 2018; Rao et al. 2014; Dixon et al. 2012; Misteli 2020). This three-dimensional chromatin folding contributes to essential cellular processes such as transcription and DNA replication and is actively maintained by protein cofactors (Zheng and Xie 2019; Rao et al. 2017; Nora et al. 2017; Steensel and Belmont 2017). The architectural protein CTCF establishes the anchors of many DNA loops and topologically-associating domains (TADs) likely by blocking loop extrusion by cohesin (Wendt

et al. 2008; Li et al. 2020; Fudenberg et al. 2016; Kim et al. 2019; Davidson et al. 2019; Xiang

and Corces 2021; Hansen et al. 2017; Sanborn et al. 2015; Nora et al. 2017). Consequently,

perturbation of CTCF binding sites at domain boundaries can lead to aberrant cross-domain

enhancer-promoter contacts, which have been linked to gene misexpression in cancer and

developmental disorders (Dubois et al. 2022; Spielmann et al. 2018; Lupiáñez et al. 2015;

Flavahan et al. 2016, 2019). Furthermore, CTCF binding and looping on or near genes can directly

enforce enhancer-promoter loops and facilitate differential splicing and polyadenylation (Rinzema

et al. 2022; Kubo et al. 2021; Shukla et al. 2011; Ruiz-Velasco et al. 2017; Nanavaty et al. 2020;

Alharbi et al. 2021; Soto and Lipscombe 2020; Steensel and Furlong 2019). Although these

examples demonstrate that CTCF can modulate transcription in specific contexts, acute depletion

of CTCF only leads to moderate transcriptional defects, highlighting the complex and nuanced

roles of CTCF in regulating gene expression (Schoenfelder and Fraser 2019; Nora et al. 2017;

Rao et al. 2017; Vermunt et al. 2019).

CTCF binding is sensitive to DNA methylation, and consequently global demethylation of the

genome 'reactivates' hundreds to thousands of previously masked CTCF peaks (Bell and

Felsenfeld 2000; Hark et al. 2000; Hashimoto et al. 2017; Maurano et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2012).

However, these reactivated CTCF sites comprise only a small subset of potential methylated

CTCF sites that are typically occupied in other cell types, suggesting that DNA methylation serves

as a specialized mechanism to regulate particular CTCF binding sites rather than global CTCF

binding (Maurano et al. 2015). While methylation-sensitive CTCF peaks have been linked to gene

expression and mRNA processing in some instances,(Ruiz-Velasco et al. 2017; Shukla et al.

2011; Nanavaty et al. 2020; Flavahan et al. 2019, 2016; Schuijers et al. 2018) the functions of

most methylation-sensitive CTCF peaks are unknown. Moreover, the broader impacts of CTCF

reactivation on chromatin looping have been largely unexplored.

In this study, we employ a selective inhibitor of DNMT1, the maintenance DNA methyltransferase,

to induce genome-wide demethylation and investigate the chromatin looping patterns and

functions of the resulting reactivated CTCF peaks. Through combining small molecule

perturbations with acute degron systems, we glean novel insights into how methylation-sensitive

CTCF looping interfaces with gene expression in transcriptionally active regions of the genome.

Results

DNMT1 inhibition reactivates CTCF peaks and loops at previously methylated sites

Loss of DNA methylation leads to increased CTCF occupancy at hundreds to thousands of CTCF

sites depending on the cell type (Maurano et al. 2015), but a global understanding of their looping

patterns and functions is lacking. Recently, selective, noncovalent DNMT1 inhibitors (e.g.,

GSK3484862) have become available, enabling dynamic control of DNA methylation with fewer

undesirable effects such as DNA damage and cytotoxicity (Portilho et al. 2021; Pappalardi et al.

2021). Consequently, we sought to employ these new DNMT1 inhibitors to probe the functions

and looping patterns of methylation-sensitive CTCF sites.

We treated K562 and HCT116 cells with GSK3484862 (DNMT1i (10 μM)), for three days, and

performed CTCF ChIP-seq and HiChIP to investigate CTCF-associated changes in chromatin

looping (**Fig 1A**). Under these conditions, DNMT1i treatment led to minimal growth defects in both

cell types (**Fig S1A**). Consistent with prior studies (Maurano et al. 2015), DNMT1i treatment

increased CTCF binding at thousands of sites, termed "reactivated peaks" due to their overlap

with CTCF peaks in other cell types (**Fig 1B,C,** 2,079 up- and 2 down-regulated in K562, 6,686

up- and 328 down-regulated in HCT116). As expected, reactivated CTCF sites were largely

methylated in wild-type cells (**Fig S1B**), and many CTCF binding motifs enriched within these

peak regions were methylated at two key CpG sites implicated in CTCF binding (**Fig 1D**)

(Spracklin et al. 2022; Wang et al. 2012). We grouped these motifs using K-means clustering of

methylation patterns and found clusters with methylation at zero, one, or two positions (**Fig 1D**).

For both cell types, CTCF emerged most strongly over the dual-methylated motifs in cluster 1

(**Fig 1E**). By contrast, cluster 4, which contains the lowest methylation levels, may include CTCF

peaks that are blocked by heterochromatin, as reported recently (Spracklin et al. 2022). Overall,

DNMT1i treatment led to the emergence of thousands of reactivated peaks at previously

predominantly methylated sites.

We next evaluated the looping patterns of reactivated CTCF peaks. CTCF HiChIP revealed that

a large subset of these reactivated peaks resides within at least one loop anchor and these are

henceforth called "looping" peaks (see Methods) (Lareau and Aryee 2018a, 2018b). An example

of reactivated looping CTCF peaks is shown at the *PCDHA* locus (**Fig 1F**). On average, loops

that are anchored by reactivated peaks increase in strength upon DNMT1 inhibition (**Fig 1G**).

Analysis of our published Hi-C data in K562 following 3 days of DNMT1i treatment also revealed

an increase in Hi-C interaction signal centered on reactivated peaks (**Fig 1H**). Additionally, loops

overlapping reactivated CTCF peaks are shorter than other CTCF loops, with motif cluster 1

reactivated peaks forming longer range loops than other reactivated peaks (**Fig S1C**). Loops

overlapping reactivated CTCF peaks are also more likely to be tandem or divergent loops (**Fig 1I**)

(Tang et al. 2015). Altogether, selective DNMT1 inhibition leads to the emergence of thousands

of reactivated CTCF peaks that engage in new chromatin interactions with distinctive features.

Figure 1 | DNMT1 inhibition reactivates looping CTCF peaks

A. Schematic demonstrating the experimental workflow. K562 and HCT116 cells were treated with DNMT1i for 3 days followed by CTCF ChIP-seq and CTCF HiChIP.

B. Replicate-averaged input-normalized reads within merged peaks for CTCF ChIP-seq in DNMT1i (y-axis) vs. DMSO (x-axis) for K562 cells (left) and HCT116 cells (right). Reactivated peaks are highlighted in red.

C. Example IGV CTCF ChIP-seq tracks ± DNMT1i at the MEG3 locus for K562 (top) and HCT116 (bottom). Reactivated peaks indicated with arrows.

D. Percent methylation status of CTCF motifs underlying reactivated peaks clustered by K-means.Number of CTCF sites per cluster: K562 (cluster 1: 139, cluster 2: 351, cluster 3: 221, cluster 4: 738); HCT116 (cluster 1: 405, cluster 2: 1005, cluster 3: 746, cluster 4: 2249). Bisulfite data for HCT116 from GEO GSM3317488, K562 from ENCODE ENCFF459XNY

E. CTCF replicate-averaged $\log_2$(fold-change DNMT1i/DMSO) RPKM normalized ChIP-seq signal over motif clusters from D.

F. Example IGV CTCF ChIP-seq and HiChIP tracks ± DNMT1i at the Protocadherin Alpha (PCDHA) locus (HCT116). Reactivated peaks are indicated below. Red indicates a looping reactivated peak, whereas grey indicates a nonlooping reactivated peak.

G. Boxplot showing the $\log_2$(fold-change) in loop strength DNMT1i vs. DMSO (y-axis) for loops with or without at least one anchor overlapping a reactivated peak (x-axis) for K562 (left) and HCT116 (right).

H. Heatmaps depicting $\log_2$(mean observed/expected) Hi-C interaction frequency centered on reactivated peaks for DMSO (left) and DNMT1i (right). K562 Hi-C data from Siegenfeld et al., 2022.

I. Orientations of CTCF peaks in loops for which a single CTCF motif was assigned to each anchor. + indicates a CTCF motif on the sense DNA strand, and - indicates a CTCF motif on the antisense strand.

In (**G**), the interquartile range (IQR) is depicted by the box with the median represented by the center line. Outliers are excluded. P values were calculated by a Mann-Whitney test and are annotated as follows: ns: not significant; *: $0.01 < p \leq 0.05$; **: $0.001 < p \leq 0.01$; ***: $0.0001 < p \leq 0.001$; ****: $p \leq 0.0001$.

Reactivated CTCF peaks form loops on genes and interact with highly-looping partners

To better understand how methylation-sensitive CTCF occupancy influences chromatin structure,

we further characterized reactivated CTCF peaks and their loops. Consistent with previous

findings using azacitidine (Maurano et al. 2015), loss of DNA methylation through DNMT1i

treatment led to the preferential reactivation of CTCF on gene bodies, particularly in non-intron

regions (exons, promoters, and TTS, **Fig 2A, S2A**). This enrichment on gene bodies was largely

driven by looping reactivated CTCF peaks (**Fig 2A, Fig S2B, S2C**), highlighting an

underappreciated propensity for CTCF peaks on gene bodies to engage in chromatin loops.

We next scrutinized the CTCF partners that loop to reactivated CTCF peaks. Notably, the CTCF

partners of reactivated peaks tend to engage in a greater total number of different loops compared

to all CTCF peaks (i.e. have more looping partners, **Fig 2B**). This trend is in part driven by the

tendency of non-intronic gene body CTCF peaks to more frequently participate in loops with

highly-looping CTCF partners in comparison to intronic or intergenic CTCF peaks (**Fig S2D**). To

characterize these highly-looping partners, we ranked all CTCF peaks by the number of different

partners they interact with and called those with the most different partners 'highly-looping',

analogously to how superenhancers or supersilencers were previously characterized (**Fig S2E,**

Fig 2C) (Cai et al. 2021; Hnisz et al. 2013). HiChIP loops connecting gained peaks with highly-

looping peaks increased in strength upon DNMT1i, consistent with increased interactions

between these sites (**Fig S2F**).

The increased propensity for a given CTCF site to engage in many contacts may reflect

architectural stripes, a chromatin structural feature identified from Hi-C data that is postulated to

result from persistent loop extrusion at a single region (Vian et al. 2018; Yoon et al. 2022;

Barrington et al. 2019). Stripe anchors are enriched for chromatin accessibility and histone

modifications associated with active enhancers (Vian et al. 2018). Similarly, highly-looping CTCF

peak regions are accessible and enriched for active chromatin marks such as H3K9ac and

H3K27ac (**Fig 2D**). Furthermore, based on our previously published Hi-C data, highly-looping

CTCF sites have a stronger propensity to engage in "stripe-like" chromatin interactions compared

to ordinary CTCF sites and, on a global scale, do not appear to be perturbed upon DNMT1

inhibition (**Fig 2E**). In addition, stripe anchors identified from these Hi-C data for the DNMT1i

treatment condition reside closer to highly-looping CTCF peaks than all peaks, consistent with

the similarities between these features (**Fig 2F**). Altogether, these results show that upon DNA

demethylation, reactivated CTCF sites form loops on gene bodies to highly-looping partners

associated with active regulatory marks and stripe anchors.

Figure 2 | Reactivated CTCF peaks loop from gene bodies and interact with stripe anchors

A. Proportion of looping and nonlooping peaks with each annotation (y-axis) for both reactivated and all CTCF peaks in K562 (left) and HCT116 (right) in DNMT1i.

B. Number of different loops (loops to different partners) the maximally-looping partner peak makes (y-axis) for all vs. reactivated CTCF peaks in DNMT1i for K562 (left) and HCT116 (right).

C. IGV representation of highly-looping (yellow) and normal-looping CTCF peaks (grey) in K562 DNMT1i-treated cells. CTCF ChIP-seq and HiChIP are shown.

D. Aggregate profile (signal P-value, y-axis) of genomic features over highly-looping peaks (blue) and all other CTCF peaks (grey). CTCF peaks were called in K562 DNMT1i treatment, and histone modifications/ATAC-seq data are from public datasets in K562 (see methods).

E. Heatmap depicting log$_2$(mean observed/expected) Hi-C interaction frequency centered on highly-looping (top) and all other (bottom) peaks for DMSO (left) and DNMT1i (right) treatment in K562 cells. K562 Hi-C data from Siegenfeld et. al., 2022.

F. Histogram showing density (y-axis) of genomic distances (x-axis) of CTCF highly-looping peaks (left) and all other CTCF peaks (right) in DNMT1i-treated K562 cells from stripe anchors identified from DNMT1i-treated K562 Hi-C data. Median distance is shown with a solid black line. K562 LIMe-Hi-C data from Siegenfeld et. al., 2022.

In (**B**), the interquartile range (IQR) is depicted by the box with the median represented by the center line. Outliers are excluded. P values were calculated by a Mann-Whitney test and are annotated as follows: ns: not significant; *: $0.01 < p \leq 0.05$; **: $0.001 < p \leq 0.01$; ***: $0.0001 < p \leq 0.001$; ****: $p \leq 0.0001$.

A subset of genes depends upon CTCF for upregulation upon DNA demethylation

Prior work has shown that a majority of methylated CTCF motifs remain unoccupied even upon

DNA demethylation and that the CTCF peaks that do reemerge are often present in other cell

types, suggesting that cell-type specific DNA methylation may protect a "labile" set of CTCF peaks

from reactivation (Maurano et al. 2015). Although methylation-dependent CTCF occupancy on

gene bodies has been linked to changes in alternative splicing and polyadenylation, a global

understanding of the functions of methylation-sensitive CTCF peaks remains lacking (Shukla et

al. 2011; Nanavaty et al. 2020; Soto and Lipscombe 2020). Thus, we considered whether

reactivated CTCF peaks in genic regions impact gene expression upon DNMT1 inhibition.

To assess correlations between reactivated CTCF binding, looping, and transcription, we

performed full-length RNA-seq following 3 days of DNMT1i treatment. As expected, DNMT1

inhibition primarily caused gene upregulation, with 643 genes up- and 32 down-regulated in K562

and 3,266 genes up- and 553 down-regulated in HCT116 (Padj <0.05, |log2(fold-change)| > 1)

(**Fig S3A**). On average, the genes on which reactivated CTCF peaks bind modestly increase in

expression upon DNMT1i treatment relative to all genes overlapping any CTCF site (**Fig 3A,**

S3B).

To more directly investigate the effects of reactivated CTCF peaks, we examined the impact of

DNMT1i treatment on gene expression after acute depletion of CTCF. To do so, we first generated

a HaloTAG-CTCF homozygous knock-in HCT116 cell line, which enabled potent degradation of

CTCF within 8 hours of addition of the HaloPROTAC3 ligand (**Fig 3B, S3C**). We pretreated these

cells with HaloPROTAC3 or vehicle for 8 hours before co-treating with DNMT1i or vehicle for 24

hours (32 hours total for HaloPROTAC3 treatment) and then performed RNA-seq. This shorter

timepoint was used to capture direct effects of CTCF degradation and DNA demethylation as well

as avoid toxicity caused by CTCF depletion. Consistent with prior findings (Nora et al. 2017),

acute CTCF degradation altered the expression of hundreds of genes with approximately equal

numbers up- and down-regulated (488 up-regulated, 338 down-regulated, Padj <0.05, |$\log_2$fold-

change| > 0.5), with downregulated genes possessing higher baseline levels of CTCF at their

promoters (**Fig S3D**). As expected, DNMT1i treatment in this cell line for 24 hours primarily

resulted in gene upregulation, with 135 genes upregulated and 8 genes downregulated (Padj

<0.05, |$\log_2$fold-change| > 0.5).

We focused our analysis on genes that were differentially expressed in DNMT1i versus DMSO

treatment in the presence of CTCF. Using K-means clustering, we identified four gene clusters

defined by unique z-score normalized expression patterns across the conditions (**Fig 3C**).

Clusters 1, 2, and 4 comprise genes that increase in expression upon DNMT1 inhibition, whereas

Cluster 3 contains the few genes that decrease in expression upon DNMT1 inhibition**.** Moreover,

genes in Cluster 1 are upregulated by CTCF depletion, whereas genes within Clusters 2, 3, and

4 are unaffected by CTCF depletion.

We focused on Clusters 2 and 4, which contain lowly-expressed genes that are upregulated upon

DNMT1 inhibition and are unaffected by CTCF depletion in the absence of DNMT1i (**Fig 3C, S3E**).

Significantly, while genes in Cluster 4 are upregulated upon DNMT1 inhibition with or without

CTCF present, genes in Cluster 2 depend on CTCF for DNMT1i-mediated upregulation. Cluster

2 genes are enriched for gene ontology annotations associated with development (**Fig S3F**). To

determine how CTCF binding might be related to the observed changes in gene expression, we

performed CTCF ChIP-seq in our HaloTag-CTCF HCT116 cells following 24 hours of DNMT1i or

vehicle treatment. Notably, genes in Cluster 2 preferentially gained CTCF occupancy upon

DNMT1 inhibition compared to genes in other clusters (**Fig 3C, S3G**). Altogether, these results

suggest that CTCF reactivation may contribute to DNMT1i-mediated gene activation.

To gain further insight into the features that differentiate gene Clusters 2 and 4, we next

considered their subnuclear localization since genic positioning within the nucleus has been linked

to transcriptional regulation(Lochs et al. 2019; Ilık and Aktaş 2021). Specifically, we investigated

the localization of genes relative to a prominent euchromatic nuclear landmark, nuclear speckles.

Nuclear speckles are condensate bodies of protein and RNA that have been implicated in

transcription and splicing (Chen et al. 2018; Chen and Belmont 2019; Zhang et al. 2020; Wang et

al. 2021; Spector and Lamond 2011; Alexander et al. 2021). We compared our gene clusters to

publicly available data from SON TSA-seq, which measures the distance of genomic regions to

speckles using tyramide signal amplification initiating at the core speckle protein SON.

Intriguingly, genes in Cluster 2 have higher SON TSA-seq levels than genes within Cluster 4 (**Fig**

3D). Genes in cluster 1, which are upregulated by CTCF depletion alone, are closest to nuclear

speckles. Taken together, these data support the notion that a subset of genes depend on CTCF

for expression upon DNMT1i treatment and are located closer to nuclear speckles than CTCF-

independent genes.

Figure 3 | Many genes depend on CTCF for upregulation upon DNMT1 inhibition

A. Boxplot showing log$_2$(fold-change) in gene expression in DNMT1i vs. DMSO (y-axis) for genes overlapping no CTCF peak, reactivated CTCF peaks, or non-reactivated CTCF DNMT1i peaks (x-axis) for HCT116 cells.

B. Western blot showing the depletion of CTCF in HaloTag-CTCF knock-in cell line in a HaloPROTAC3-dependent and DNMT1i-independent manner (330 nM HaloPROTAC3, 10uM DNMT1i)

C. Left: Heatmap showing z-score normalized r-log transformed counts for genes that are differentially expressed in DNMT1i vs. DMSO non-HaloPROTAC3 conditions (Padj <0.05, |log$_2$Foldchange| > 0.5) clustered by K-means. Number of genes per cluster are as follows: cluster 1: 33, cluster 2: 48, cluster 3: 6 cluster 4: 54. Right: Average log2(fold-change) in CTCF binding in DNMT1i vs. DMSO for all CTCF peaks on genes within the four gene clusters.

D. Boxplot showing normalized SON TSA-seq signal (20 kb bins, y-axis, 4D Nucleome 4DNFIBY8G6RZ) in wildtype HCT116 cells over genes within the different clusters identified in **C**.

For (**A**, **D**), the interquartile range (IQR) is depicted by the box with the median represented by the center line. Outliers are excluded. P values were calculated by a Mann-Whitney test and are annotated as follows: ns: not significant; *: 0.01 <p ≤ 0.05; **: 0.001 <p ≤ 0.01; ***: 0.0001 <p ≤ 0.001; ****: p ≤ 0.0001.

Reactivated peaks and their highly-looping partners are located near nuclear speckles

Our findings suggest an interplay between CTCF reactivation and gene expression, particularly for genes located near nuclear speckles. Moreover, we also had found that reactivated peaks loop to highly-looping partners in active genomic regions and stripe anchors. As such, we considered whether reactivated CTCF peaks and their highly-looping partners were also located near nuclear speckles. Recent studies have shown that nuclear speckles are hubs of DNA-DNA contacts and regions near speckles exhibit high CTCF occupancy (Spector and Lamond 2011; Brown et al. 2008; Ilık and Aktaş 2021; Ilik et al. 2020; Faber et al. 2022; Quinodoz et al. 2018; Kim et al. 2020). Additionally, CTCF can form stress-responsive clusters near nuclear speckles in some cell types, and genomic subcompartments associated with speckles have been correlated with increased CTCF binding and looping (Jabbari et al. 2019; Wang et al. 2021; Lehman et al. 2021). However, a causal and direct connection between nuclear speckles and CTCF binding and looping has not been explored.

To determine if reactivated peaks and highly-looping CTCF peaks are preferentially located near speckles, we performed Cut&Tag for SON in K562 and HCT116 cells with and without DNMT1 inhibition (**Fig 4A**) (Kaya-Okur et al. 2019; Chen et al. 2018; Zhang et al. 2020; Ilik et al. 2020). Consistent with localization near speckles, reactivated peaks appeared in regions of higher SON signal compared to all CTCF peaks (**Fig 4B**). This trend is particularly evident for looping reactivated CTCF peaks (**Fig S4A**). This enrichment of looping reactivated peaks near speckles is further corroborated by publicly available SON TSA-seq data (**Fig S4B**) (Zhang et al. 2020) and by an enrichment of K562 reactivated peaks in the A1 genomic subcompartment, which is known

to be located near speckles (**Fig S4C**) (Xiong and Ma 2019). Moreover, upon 24 hours of DNMT1i

treatment in our HaloTag-CTCF HCT116 knock-in cell line, reactivated peaks gain SON Cut&Tag

signal (**Fig 4C**). This gain in SON signal is blocked when CTCF is degraded by HaloPROTAC3

treatment, suggesting that SON association of these sites upon DNMT1 inhibition is dependent

on CTCF. Thus, in addition to reactivated CTCF peaks occurring closer to nuclear speckles in

comparison to non-reactivated peaks, these regions also gain SON association in a CTCF-

dependent manner.

Strikingly, relative to all CTCF peaks, highly-looping CTCF peaks are enriched at nuclear speckles

(**Fig 4D, S4D**). More broadly, the number of different loops a CTCF peak engages in and their

corresponding looping strength are positively correlated with SON Cut&Tag signal (**Fig 4E, F**). In

addition, we observed that CTCF peaks with strong Cut&Tag SON signal preferentially engage in

strong shorter-range interactions in published Hi-C interaction data (**Fig 4G**). Overall, our results

reveal that CTCF-dependent genes, reactivated CTCF peaks, and their highly-looping partners

are preferentially located near nuclear speckles.

Figure 4 | Reactivated peaks and CTCF loops are located near nuclear speckles

A. Example IGV tracks depicting SON Cut&Tag signal (top), SON TSA-seq normalized counts (middle), CTCF ChIP-seq (bottom), and CTCF HiChIP for a region on chromosome 11 for K562 DMSO.

B. Boxplot showing replicate-averaged SON Cut&Tag signal (RPKM, 20 kb bins, y-axis) after DNMT1i treatment in the respective cell type over reactivated peaks vs. all other CTCF peaks called in DNMT1i treatment for K562 and HCT116 cells.

C. Aggregate profile of replicate-averaged SON Cut&Tag signal (RPKM) over 1-day reactivated CTCF peaks in HaloTag-CTCF HCT116 cells with and without CTCF degradation through HaloPROTAC3.

D. Same as **B**, but for highly-looping peaks vs. all other CTCF peaks.

E. Density plot showing the correlation between SON Cut&Tag signal (RPKM, 20 kb bins) over a given CTCF peak (y-axis) vs. the number of different loops (partners) assigned to that CTCF peak (x-axis) for K562 DNMT1i treatment.

F. Boxplot showing average $\log_2$(counts per million (CPM) loop strength) (y-axis) for CTCF HiChIP loops relative to SON Cut&Tag signal decile (x-axis). logCPM defined by Diffloop across all conditions (DMSO and DNMT1i). Loops are segregated into equally sized deciles by Cut&Tag signal in DMSO (RPKM, 20kb bins).

G. Heatmap depicting $\log_2$(mean observed/expected) Hi-C interaction frequency centered on CTCF peaks at speckles (top) and not at speckles (bottom) for DMSO (left) and DNMT1i (right) treatment. K562 Hi-C data from Siegenfeld et. al., 2022.

For boxplots, the interquartile range (IQR) is depicted by the box with the median represented by the center line. Outliers are excluded. P values were calculated by a Mann-Whitney test and are annotated as follows: ns: not significant; *: $0.01 < p \le 0.05$; **: $0.001 < p \le 0.01$; ***: $0.0001 < p \le 0.001$; ****: $p \le 0.0001$.

Acute disruption of nuclear speckles alters gene expression without disrupting CTCF

To explore the observed connection between speckles and CTCF looping, we tested whether

nuclear speckles might play a causal role in promoting CTCF occupancy and/or looping. To

accomplish this, we sought to acutely degrade speckles to evaluate whether speckles actively

maintain CTCF loops while mitigating confounding factors associated with mitotic arrest caused

by long-term SON depletion (Ahn et al. 2011). Consequently, we engineered a K562 knock-in cell

line with the core speckle proteins, SON and SRRM2, both endogenously tagged with FKBP12[F36V]

for use with the dTAG degradation system (Ilik et al. 2020; Nabet et al. 2018). Upon addition of

dTAG-13, FKBP12[F36V]-tagged proteins are recruited to the CRBN-Cul4-Ring E3 ligase and

undergo acute proteasomal degradation (**Fig 5A**). Treatment of the K562 FKBP12[F36V] double

knock-in cell line with dTAG-13 resulted in near-complete degradation of both SON and SRRM2

within 6 hours (**Fig 5B, S5A, S5B**).

We next assessed if speckle disruption directly alters gene expression by performing RNA-seq

after 6 hours of dTAG-13 treatment. Upon speckle degradation, 541 genes were down-regulated

and 184 genes were up-regulated (padj < 0.05, |$\log_2$fold-change| > 0.25) (**Fig 5C, S5C**).

Consistent with a role of nuclear speckles in mediating active transcription, a large majority of

down-regulated genes were located within the closest decile to nuclear speckles by TSA-seq (**Fig**

S5D), and genes with the highest SON Cut&Tag signal exhibited the strongest decrease in

expression (**Fig 5D**). These results show that disrupting nuclear speckles has immediate effects

on transcription.

To determine whether speckle disruption alters CTCF binding and/or looping, we performed

CTCF ChIP-seq and HiChIP in the speckle dTAG cell line after treatment with dTAG-13 or DMSO

for 6 hours. In contrast to the immediate transcriptional effects, CTCF occupancy remained

unchanged upon speckle degradation, with only 2 significantly downregulated peaks (**Fig 5E,**

S5E). CTCF HiChIP also revealed that loop strength was largely unchanged across speckle

Cut&Tag and TSA-seq quantiles (**Fig 5F, S5F**) despite a positive correlation between speckle

association and baseline loop strength (**Fig 4E,F**). Even after 12 hours of dTAG treatment, there

was only a very subtle decrease in CTCF looping near speckles (**Fig S5F**). In addition, changes

in loop strength and CTCF binding were not associated with changes in gene expression (**Figure**

S5G,H). Moreover, depleting CTCF for 24 hours in our HaloTag-CTCF HCT116 knockin cell line

did not noticeably change speckle morphology (**Fig S5I**). Altogether, despite the strong

relationship between CTCF looping and speckle association, acute disruption of nuclear speckles

did not appreciably disrupt CTCF binding or looping, suggesting that maintenance of 3D CTCF

loop structure is independent of speckle association.

Figure 5 | Acute depletion of nuclear speckles alters gene expression without disrupting CTCF looping.

A. Schematic illustrating use of the dTAG system to acutely deplete SON and SRRM2, thus disrupting nuclear speckles.

B. Immunofluorescence for SON and SRRM2 for K562 speckle knock-in cells treated with dTAG-13 for 6 or 12 hours to deplete SON and SRRM2.

C. Volcano plot showing $-\log_{10}$(adjusted P-value) (y-axis) vs. $\log_2$(fold-change) in gene expression (x-axis) upon speckle degradation with 6 hours dTAG-13 treatment. Upregulated genes are highlighted in red, and downregulated genes are highlighted in blue (adjusted p-value <0.05, $|\log_2 \text{Foldchange}| > 0.25$).

D. Density plot showing SON Cut&Tag signal in wt K562 cells treated with DMSO (RPKM 20kb bins, y-axis) vs. the change in gene expression (x-axis) for genes that decrease in expression upon dTAG-13 treatment (Spearman R, -0.43).

E. Replicate-averaged input normalized tags between CTCF ChIP-seq in dTAG-13 treatment (x-axis) vs. DMSO (y-axis) for 6 hour K562 speckle dTAG knock-in cells.

F. Boxplot showing $\log_2$(fold-change) in loop strength for CTCF HiChIP loops in speckle knock-in K562 cells treated with dTAG-13 vs. DMSO (y-axis) relative to SON Cut&Tag signal (x-axis). Loops are segregated into equally sized deciles by Cut&Tag signal with 10 representing the decile closes to speckles (RPKM, 20kb bins).

In (**F**), the interquartile range (IQR) is depicted by the box with the median represented by the center line. Outliers are excluded. P values were calculated by a Mann-Whitney test and are annotated as follows: ns: not significant; *: $0.01 < p \leq 0.05$; **: $0.001 < p \leq 0.01$; ***: $0.0001 < p \leq 0.001$; ****: $p \leq 0.0001$.

Discussion

DNA methylation accounts for much of the variation in CTCF binding across cell types (Maurano

et al. 2015), but the functions and features of methylation-sensitive CTCF peaks are incompletely

understood. Here we leveraged a selective DNMT1 inhibitor (Pappalardi et al. 2021; Portilho et

al. 2021) to gain new insights into how reactivated CTCF peaks interface with chromatin looping

and transcription. This new inhibitor is a valuable tool for reactivating CTCF without the

confounding effects caused by the covalent nature and toxicity of earlier hypomethylating agents.

We found that reactivated CTCF peaks preferentially form loops on gene bodies and interact with

promiscuous partner peaks at stripe anchors. Architectural stripes may contribute to transcription

by promoting enhancer contacts with gene bodies (Vian et al. 2018; Yoon et al. 2022; Barrington

et al. 2019; Kraft et al. 2019), and may also represent a mechanism to poise transcription

(Barrington et al. 2019). Thus, we propose that reactivated peaks enable transcriptional activation

by interacting with regulatory elements through highly-looping CTCF partner peaks (**Fig 6**).

However, DNA demethylation causes pleiotropic effects ranging from changes in gene expression

to transcription factor binding (Yin et al. 2017; Portilho et al. 2021), and we cannot rule out that

these other features could contribute to the effects we observe.

To investigate whether CTCF is causatively linked to gene expression, we coupled DNMT1

inhibition with CTCF degradation and unexpectedly found that a large fraction of differentially

expressed genes depend on CTCF for activation upon DNMT1 inhibition. These genes

preferentially gain CTCF binding, consistent with a role of CTCF binding in promoting gene

expression. More broadly, our work unmasked a subset of genes that rely on CTCF for expression

upon global demethylation but do not depend on CTCF under basal conditions. These results

help reconcile observations that CTCF is an essential protein but in cell culture its acute depletion

causes minimal gene expression changes (Nora et al. 2017). Consequently, CTCF-dependent

gene effects may often be obscured because genes are regulated by additional features (such as

DNA methylation). In addition, our results suggest that CTCF may play a role in positioning genes

close to active regulatory regions and stripe anchors to promote gene activation but may not be

strictly necessary for maintaining an active chromatin state.

Strikingly, CTCF-dependent genes, reactivated CTCF peaks, and their highly-looping partners

are located near nuclear speckles, consistent with prior studies showing that subcompartments

near nuclear speckles exhibit increased CTCF binding and looping (Wang et al. 2021; Jabbari et

al. 2019). Moreover, we show that reactivated CTCF peaks gain SON signal upon DNMT1

inhibition in a CTCF-dependent manner, indicating a functional tie between CTCF and speckles.

This is in agreement with a recent preprint reporting that CTCF helps establish basal speckle-

gene contacts (Yu et al. 2023). These findings add to our model by suggesting that reactivated

CTCF peaks could facilitate transcription of genes near speckles, perhaps by mediating the

engagement of genic CTCF sites with speckle-associated stripe anchors and/or splicing factors

(**Fig 6**). A role of CTCF in facilitating gene-body chromatin loops near speckles is synergistic with

proposed models suggesting that intragenic looping contributes to gene splicing (Liao and Regev

2020; Ruiz-Velasco et al. 2017). Thus, reactivated CTCF peaks may reorganize genes near

nuclear speckles as a means of influencing transcription.

Previous work knocking down SRRM2 support a causative role of speckles in modulating

chromatin structure but did not specifically study changes in CTCF binding or looping (Hu et al.

2019). Therefore, to investigate connections between speckles and CTCF, we achieved the first

acute degradation of nuclear speckles using the dTAG system. Although acute disruption of

speckles supports their direct involvement in transcription, we observed minimal impacts on CTCF

binding or looping. This notion is consistent with recent work showing that CTCF clustering and

looping is not dependent on phase separation or nuclear bodies (Lee et al. 2021; Ulianov et al.

2021) and that transcriptional disruption does not immediately impact chromatin looping or CTCF

binding (Jiang et al. 2020; Vian et al. 2018; Luan et al. 2021). Our findings also suggest that the

genome interactions disrupted upon SRRM2 depletion (Hu et al. 2019) are not mediated by CTCF

or only occur after a longer time. However, it is possible that nuclear speckles contribute to the

establishment, but not maintenance, of CTCF loops, which may not be evident in our system due

to the time points employed for speckle degradation. Moreover, other features enriched near

speckles, such as open chromatin, high GC content, and active gene expression, could instead

contribute to increased CTCF binding and looping near speckles. Our knockdown experiments

help clarify the directionality of the relationship between speckles and CTCF.

Taken altogether, our findings highlight a potential mechanism through which DNA methylation

modulates genome architecture — by protecting a subset of genic CTCF sites from engaging with

promiscuous CTCF peaks located near nuclear speckles. In particular, genes near nuclear

speckles may be susceptible to activation through CTCF-dependent mechanisms, and thus might

require this layer of protective regulation. Furthermore, the GC-rich composition of non-intron

gene bodies might increase the likelihood of CTCF motifs in comparison to other genomic regions,

increasing the vulnerability of these sites to ectopic CTCF binding. More broadly, our work

nominates new functions for the known antagonism between gene body methylation and CTCF

occupancy in regulating transcription through remodeling genome architecture.

Figure 6 | Model for methylation-mediated insulation of genes from regulatory elements near nuclear speckles

Methods

Cell culture

K562 was obtained from ATCC. HEK 293 T was obtained from Life Technologies. HCT116 was obtained as a gift from M. Shair. Cells were authenticated by Short Tandem Repeat profiling (Genetica) and tested for mycoplasma (Sigma-Aldrich, MP0035). All cell lines were cultured in a humidified 5% CO_2 incubator at 37 °C with media supplemented with 100 U/mL penicillin and 100 µg/mL streptomycin (Life Technologies, 15070063). K562 was cultured in RPMI-1640 (Life Technologies, 11875119) with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Peak Serum, PS-FB2). HEK 293 T was cultured in DMEM (Life Technologies, 1195073) with 10% FBS (Peak Serum, PS-FB2). HCT116 was cultured in McCoy's 5A media (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 16600082) with 10% FBS (Peak Serum, PS-FB2).

Generating SON, SRRM2, and CTCF knock-in cell lines

To generate an N-terminal Puro-P2A-dtag SON knock-in donor plasmid, SON homology arms of 1 kb were amplified from K562 genomic DNA and cloned into the ph1 backbone Puro-P2A-dTAG, sub-cloned from pCRIS-PITChv2-Puro-dTAG, a gift from J. Bradner and B. Nabet (Addgene # 91793). The SON sgRNA, 5'-CACCGCTGCTCGATGTTGGTCGCCA-3' that was previously used for N-terminal SON knock-in was cloned into PX459 by restriction enzyme digestion (Allen Institute,https://www.allencell.org/cell-catalog.html). To generate a C-terminal dTAG-P2A-blasticidin SRRM2 knock-in donor plasmid, SRRM2 homology arms of 1 kb were amplified from K562 genomic DNA and cloned into the ph1 backbone dTAG-P2A-BSD, sub-cloned from pCRIS-PITChv2- dTAG-BSD, a gift from J. Bradner and B. Nabet (Addgene # 91795). The sgRNA, 5'CACCGCCATGAGACACCGCTCCTCC -3' that was previously validated for C-terminal SRRM2 knock-in was cloned into PX459 by restriction enzyme digestion (Ilik et al. 2020). Notably, this strategy eliminates the last four amino acids of SRRM2, which is necessary due to a sparsity of

guides in the region and has been used to study SRRM2 in the context of speckles (Ilik et al.

2020). Cells were transfected with both the donor and guide plasmids by nucleofection (Lonza,

program T016). Cells were selected 3 days after transfection with puromycin (2 µg/mL) (Thermo

Fisher Scientific, A1113803) or blasticidin (8 µg/mL) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, A1113903) for a

duration of 5-10 days. Single-cell clones were isolated from the bulk cell line through

fluorescence-activated cell sorting. The SON knock-in was generated from wildtype K562 cells,

and then the SRRM2 knock-in was introduced on top of the validated SON knock-in clone. To

generate   the   HT-CTCF   HCT116   knock-in   cell   line,   the   sgRNA   5'-

CACCGTGCAGTCGAAGCCATTGTGG-3' was subcloned into PX459 and HaloTAG-CTCF was

subcloned into PDONR223. The guide and donor plasmids were transfected into cells using

Fugene HD (Promega). After seven days, single cell clones were isolated from the bulk population

through fluorescence-activated cell sorting using HaloTag TAMRA labeling to sort potential

positive clones.

Immunoblotting

Pellets were harvested for western blot analysis and washed with PBS (Corning, 21-040-CV). For

immunoblots of CTCF, cells were lysed on ice using RIPA buffer (Boston BioProducts)

supplemented with fresh HALT Protease Inhibitor (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and the lysates were

cleared through centrifugation. The protein concentration of the lysate was determined using the

BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and immunoblots for CTCF were performed

according to standard procedures with a 6% SureCast acrylamide page gel. For immunoblots of

SON and SRRM2 and corresponding loading controls, 1 million cells per condition were lysed on

ice for 30 minutes in 50uL RIPA buffer (Boston Bioproducts, BP-115) supplemented with 1mM

PMSF, 2mM EDTA, and 1X Halt Protease inhibitors (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 78429).

Subsequently, 50uL of wash buffer was added (50mM Tris pH 8.0, 2mM MgCl, 50mM NaCl, 1mM

phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), 1X Halt Protease inhibitors, 1:500 Benzonase (Millipore-

Sigma, E1014-25KU) and the samples were rotated at room temperature for 20 minutes and then

clarified by full speed centrifugation at 4 °C. The protein concentration of the lysates was

determined using the BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 23225). Immunoblotting

was performed according to standard procedures with the following modifications: a 3-8% tris

acetate gel (Thermo Fisher Scientific, EA03752) was used and samples were run for 2 hours

15min at 80V at 4 °C in 1X tris-acetate running buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, LA0041) except

for the loading control which was run for 90 minutes. Transfer was conducted in 1X transfer buffer

(Research Product International, 501977679) containing 10% methanol and 0.05% sodium

dodecyl sulfate (SDS) onto an activated 0.45um PVDF membrane (Millipore sigma IPVH09120)

for 2 hours at 15V except for loading control which was transferred in 1X transfer buffer with 20%

methanol at 12V for 90 minutes. The primary antibodies used for immunoblotting are as follows:

CTCF (1:2000, Cell Signaling Technology D31H2); SON (1:1000, Abcam ab121759); SRRM2

(1:1000, ThermoFisher PA5-66827); GAPDH (1:2000, Santa Cruz Biotechnology sc-47724);

Vinculin (1:2000, Cell Signaling Technology 13901S).

Immunofluorescence

Immunofluoresence was performed according to standard protocol. Briefly, K562 speckle knock-

in cells treated with 500 nM dTAG-13 or DMSO for the indicated amount of time were cytospun

onto glass coverslips for 5 minutes at 800 x rcf and fixed in 4% PFA for 15 minutes. HCT116 cells

treated with 330 nM HaloPROTAC3 or DMSO were instead grown directly on glass coverslips

and fixed in 4% PFA for 15 minutes. Cells were then washed 3X in PBS, permeabilized with

0.25% Triton-X for 10 minutes, and subsequently washed 3X with PBS. Cells were then blocked

in 10% goat serum (Millipore Sigma, G9023) in PBS-T for 1 hour and incubated overnight in 5%

goat serum in PBS-T with primary antibody at 4°C (SON (1:300, abcam ab121759) or SRRM2

(1:300, ThermoFisher PA5-66827)). Following 3X PBS-T washes, cells were incubated with

secondary antibody for 1 hr (1:2000, Invitrgoen alexafluor488 A-11008), washed 3X in PBS-T,

and mounted on a coverslip with DAPI (Prolong Diamond Anti-Fade, P36961). Cells were imaged

on an LSM180 Confocal microscope. Image quantification was performed using CellProfiler on

raw Tiff images to identify nuclei and then quantify average fluorescence signal within each

nucleus(Carpenter et al. 2006).

Cell growth assays

K562 or HCT116 cells were plated in triplicate in a 96-well plate. Drug or vehicle (DMSO, Sigma

Aldrich, D8418) were dosed at the specified concentration for 3 days. After 3 days of treatment,

cell viability was measured using CellTiter-Glo (Promega, G7572) with the luminescence detector

on the SpectraMax i3x (Molecular Devices) plate reader with the SoftMax Pro (version 6.5.1)

software, and data were processed using Prism.

ChIP-seq

CTCF ChIP-seq was performed in duplicate. For the CTCF reactivation experiments, K562 or

HCT116 wildtype or HT-CTCF HCT116 knock-in cells were treated with 10 µM GSK3482364 or

0.1% DMSO control for the indicated time. For the speckle depletion experiments, K562 speckle

dTAG knock-in cells were treated with 500 nM dTAG-13 or 0.1% DMSO control for 6 or 12 hours.

After drug treatment, cells were resuspended and fixed at a density of 10^6 cells/mL in media

containing 10% FBS (Peak Serum, PS-FB2) and 1% formaldehyde (Sigma Aldrich, F8775) for

10 min with rotation and quenched with 0.2 M glycine and washed in PBS. 5 million cells per

condition were lysed on ice for 10 min in 600 uL of ChIP lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 1%

SDS, 0.25% NaDOC) with HALT protease inhibitors (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 78429). Cells were

then diluted to 2mL with ChIP dilution buffer (50 mM Tris-HCL pH 7.5, 0.01% SDS, 150 mM NCl,

0.25% triton X-100, 1X HALT protease inhibitor) and sonicated at 4 °C with a Branson Sonicator

(45% amplitude, 0.7s on, 1.3s off, total time 5 min). The supernatant was clarified by centrifugation

at 16000 x rcf for 10 min at 4 °C . The sample was then diluted into 6 mL total with ChIP Dilution

Buffer and the final concentration of triton was brought to 1%. 50 µL was removed as an input

sample and kept at 4 °C overnight. Immunoprecipitations were carried out on the remaining

sample overnight at 4 °C with rotation with 5 uL of antibody (Cell Signaling Technology D31H2

anti-CTCF, 3418S). 50uL of Protein G Dynabeads (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 10004D) were

added to each sample and incubated at 4 °C with rotation for 3 hours. Supernatant was discarded

on a magnet and beads were then washed twice with ice-cold RIPA wash buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl

pH 8.1, 0.1% SDS, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1 NaDOC, 1% Triton X-100, 1 mM EDTA), once with ice-cold

LiCl wash buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.1, 250 mM LiCl, 0.5% Triton X-100, 0.5% NaDOC), and

once with ice cold TE buffer (10mM Tris-HCL pH 8.0, 50mM NaCl, 1mM EDTA). Chromatin was

eluted in 100 µL of Elution buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 0.1% SDS, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA)

at 65 °C for 1 hour at 1000rpm. Input samples were brought to 100µL with Elution buffer and

incubated alongside ChIP samples. Supernatant was removed and 50 µg of RNAse A (Sigma

Aldrich, 10109142001) was added and incubated for 30 min at 37 °C. Next, 25 µg of Proteinase

K (Invitrogen, 25530015) was added, and the samples were incubated 63 °C for 3 hours with

1000rpm agitation. DNA was subsequently purified by a 2X SPRI (Omega Bio-Tek, M1378-01).

Sequencing libraries were then prepared from 5 ng of DNA by performing end-repair with the End-

it DNA End-Repair Kit (Lucigen, ER81050), followed by A tailing with NEB Klenow Fragment (3'−5'

exo-) (New England Biolabs, M0212), adapter ligation with NEB DNA Quick Ligase (New England

Biolabs, M2200), and PCR using NEB ultra mastermix (M0544S) and 10X KAPA Library Amp

Primer Mix (Kapa Biosystems, KK2623). Samples were sequenced using a NovaSeq SP kit

(Illumina) with 50 bp paired-end reads at a sequencing depth of approximately 25 million reads

per sample.

HiChIP

Cells were treated in duplicate. For the DNMT1i experiment, K562 or HCT116 cells were treated

with 10 µM GSK3482364 (ChemieTek) or 0.1% DMSO control for 3 days. For the speckle degron

experiment, K562 speckle dTAG knock-in cells were treated with 500 nM dTAG-13 (Sigma

Aldrich, SML2601) (or 0.1% DMSO control for 6 or 12 hours. CTCF HiChIP was performed on

each sample according to a published protocol (Mumbach et al. 2016). Specifically, cells were

resuspended and fixed at a density of 10^6 cell/mL in media containing 10% FBS (Peak Serum,

PS-FB2) and 1% formaldehyde (Sigma Aldrich, F8775) for 10 min with rotation and quenched

with 0.2 M glycine and washed in PBS. 10 million cells per condition were resuspended in ice-

cold Hi-C Lysis Buffer (10mM Tris HCl pH 8.0, 10mM NaCl, 0.2% NP-40, 1X protease inhibitor)

and lysed at 4 °C for 30 minutes. Tubes were centrifuged and the pellets were washed with 500

μL ice-cold Hi-C lysis buffer. Pellets were then resuspended in 100μL of 0.5% SDS and incubated

at 62 °C for 10 minutes, after which they were quenched with Triton X-100 and incubated at 37 °C

for 15 minutes. The samples were then digested with 375 units of DpnII (New England Biolabs,

R0543L) for 2 hours at 37 °C with shaking at 900 rpm and then enzyme was heat inactivated at

65 °C for 20 minutes. Digested ends were filled in with biotinylated dATP (Life Technologies,

19524-016) for 1 hour at 37 °C at 900rpm, and in situ ligation was performed with T4 DNA ligase

(New England Biolabs, M0202L) for 4 hours at room temperature with rotation. Nuclei were

pelleted by centrifugation and resuspended in Nuclear Lysis Buffer (50mM Tris-HCL pH 7.5,

10mM EDTA, 1% SDS, 1X protease inhibitor) and sheared in Covaris Millitubes (cat # 520135)

on a Covaris S220 sonicator with Fill Level 10, Duty Cycle 5, PIP 140, Cycles/Burst 200, for 4

minutes each. Samples were clarified by centrifugation and supernatant was split into two tubes

and diluted with 2X the volume of ChIP Dilution Buffer (0.01% SDS, 1.1% triton X 100, 1.2mM

EDTA, 16.7mM tris pH 7.5, 167mM NaCl). 30ul Pre-washed Protein G Dynabeads (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, 10004D) were then added to each tube and samples were rotated for 1 hour at 4 °C.

Supernatant was transferred to new tubes and antibody was added and allowed to bind overnight

at 4 °C with rotation (15uL antibody per tube, Cell Signaling Technology D31H2 anti-CTCF,

3418S). 30uL of pre-washed Protein G Dynabeads were added to each tube and rotated at 4 °C

for 2 hours. Beads were washed 3X each with Low Salt Wash Buffer (0.1% SDS, 1% triton X 100,

2 mM EDTA, 20 mM Tris HCL pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl), High Salt Wash Buffer (0.1% SDS, 1%

triton X 100, 2 mM EDTA, 20mM Tris HCl pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl), and LiCl Wash Buffer (10mM

tris pH 7.5, 250 mM LiCl, 1% NP-40, 1%Na-DOC, 1mM EDTA) at room temperature. Tubes for

each sample were recombined and chromatin was eluted into 100 μL of Elution Buffer (50mM

NaHCO$_3$, 1% SDS) per sample by incubating at room temperature for 10 minutes with rotation

followed by 3 minutes at 37 °C shaking. Elutions were repeated for 200 μL total volume. 10 μL of

Proteinase K were added per sample (Invitrogen, 25530015 10mg/mL) and the samples were

incubated at 55 °C for 45 minutes at 900rpm followed by 67 °C for 2 hours at 900rpm. Samples

were purified (Zymo #D4014) and eluted in 10 μL water and quantified by dsDNA qubit

quantification. Biotinylated DNA was then enriched with 5 μL pre-washed Streptavidin C1 beads

per sample (Life Technologies, 65001) in biotin binding buffer (5mM Tris-HCL pH 7.5, 1mM EDTA,

1M NaCl) for 15 minutes at room temperature with rotation. Beads were washed twice with Tween

Wash Buffer (5mM Tris-HCL pH 7.5, 0.5mM EDTA, 1M NaCl, 0.05% tween 100) at 55 °C for 2

minutes at 900rpm and were then washed with TD buffer (10mM Tris-HCL pH 7.5, 5mM MgCl2,

10% Dimethylformamide). Beads were resuspended in TD buffer and Tn5 (Illumina, 20034198)

was added at the suggested dilutions and tagmentation was allowed to occur at 55 °C for 10

minutes with 900 rpm shaking. Supernatant was removed and beads were washed in 50 mM

EDTA for 30 minutes at 50 °C and twice more for 3 minutes each. Beads were then washed twice

in Tween Wash Buffer at 55 °C for 2 minutes and once in 10mM Tris. DNA was amplified by PCR

with Phusion HF 2X MM and Nextera universal barcodes described previously and was purified

by two-sided SPRI purification (Omega Bio-Tek, M1378-01). Samples were sequenced using a

NovaSeq SP kit (Illumina) with 100bp or 50 bp paired-end reads at a sequencing depth of

approximately 100 million reads per sample.

RNA-seq

In triplicate separate cultures, cells were treated with the indicated compounds. For the 3-day

RNA-seq experiment, wildtype K562 or HCT116 cells were treated with 10 µM GSK3482364 or

0.1% DMSO control for 3 days. For the degron experiment, HaloTag-CTCF HCT116 knock-in

cells were pretreated with 330 nM HaloPROTAC3 (AOBIOUS AOB36136) or 0.1% DMSO control

for 8 hours, and then were treated with 10µM GSK3482364 or 0.1% DMSO in addition to +/-330

nM HaloPROTAC3 for 24 more hours. For the speckle knockdown experiment, K562 speckle

dTAG knock-in cells were treated with 500 nM dTAG-13 or 0.1% DMSO control for 6 hours. Total

RNA was isolated from 1 million cells per condition using the RNeasy Plus Mini Kit (Qiagen,

74104). mRNA was isolated using the Poly(A) RNA Selection Kit V1.5 (Lexogen, 157.96) and

total RNA seq libraries were prepared using the CORALL Total RNA-Seq Library Prep Kit

(Lexogen, 095.24). Samples were sequenced using a NovaSeq SP kit (Illumina) 50 bp paired-

end reads at a sequencing depth of approximately 30 million reads per sample. For the HaloTAG

CTCF degron experiments, samples were instead sequenced to a depth of approximately 15

million reads per sample with 100bp paired end reads.

SON Cut&Tag

For the wildtype cell line experiments, K562 or HCT116 wildtype cells were treated in duplicate

with either 10 uM GSK3482364 or 0.1% DMSO control for 3 days. For the CTCF degron

experiment, HaloTag-CTCF HCT116 knock-in cells were pretreated with 330 nM HaloPROTAC3

(AOBIOUS AOB36136) or 0.1% DMSO control for 8 hours, and then were treated with 10 µM

GSK3482364 or 0.1% DMSO in addition to +/- 330nM HaloPROTAC3 for 24 more hours. Cut&Tag

was performed according to published protocol (Kaya-Okur et al. 2019). 1 million cells were

harvested and washed in PBS. Cells were resuspended in ½ volume ice-cold NE1 buffer (20 mM

HEPES-KOH pH 7.9, 10 mM KCl, 0.5mM spermidine, 0.1% Triton-X-100, 20% glycerol with

Roche Complete Protease Inhibitor EDTA-free) and lysed on ice for 10 minutes. Nuclei were

resuspended in PBS and fixed with 0.1% formaldehyde (Sigma Aldrich, F8775) for 2 minutes at

room temperature and quenched with 75 mM glycine. Nuclei were centrifuged, drained, and

resuspended in wash buffer (20 mM HEPES-NaOH pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM spermidine,

Roche Complete Protease Inhibitor EDTA-free) to ~1 million cells per mL, and 250,000 nuclei per

condition (as determined by hematocytometer) were used per condition moving forward.

Concavalin A beads (Cell Signaling Technologies, 93569S) were then activated with binding

buffer (20 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.9, 10 mM KCl, 1 mM $CaCl_2$, 1 mM $MnCl_2$) and 10 µL were

added per sample and incubated for 10 minutes at room temperature with rotation. Liquid was

removed on a magnet and beads were resuspended in 50uL ice-cold antibody buffer (wash buffer

with 2 mM EDTA and 0.1% BSA) and 1 µL of antibody (anti-SON Abcam #ab121759) was added

and incubated upright with gentle nutating overnight at 4 °C. Beads were resuspended in

secondary antibody in wash buffer (1:100 guinea pig anti-rabbit ABIN101961) and tubes were

nutated at room temperature for 1 hour. Liquid was removed and beads were washed three times

with wash buffer. pA-Tn5 (purified in-house according to published protocol (Priore et al. 2021))

was mixed 1:50 in Dig-300 buffer (without digitonin, 20 mM HEPES-NaOH pH 7.5, 300 mM NaCl,

0.5mM spermidine, Roche Complete Protease Inhibitor EDTA-free) and beads were resuspended

in 100 uL and nutated at room temperature for 1 hour. Beads were washed three times in Dig-

300 buffer. Beads were resuspended in 300 uL Tagmentation Buffer (Dig-300 buffer with 10 mM

$MgCl_2$) and incubated at 37 °C for one hour. 16 mM EDTA, 0.1% SDS, and 50 µg of Proteinase

K (Invitrogen, 25530015) was added per sample and incubated at 55 °C for one hour and then

DNA was purified by PCI-chloroform extraction. DNA was amplified by PCR with NEBNext HiFi

2x PCR Master Mix (NEB M0541S) and library was purified by 1.3X SPRI purification (Omega

Bio-Tek, M1378-01). Samples were sequenced using a NextSeq1000 (Illumina) with 50bp paired

end reads at a sequencing depth of approximately 10-20 million reads per sample.

CTCF ChIP-seq data processing and peak calling

Reads were aligned to hg38 using Burrow-Wheeler Aligner (BWA-mem, v 0.7.15)(Li 2013). Sam

files were converted to bam files and sorted using Samtools view and sort (v 1.5)(Li et al. 2009).

Identical ChIP-seq sequence reads were collapsed to avoid PCR duplicates using Picard Tools

MarkDuplicates(v 2.18.5) with Java (v 1.8.0) with parameters

VALIDATION_STRINGENCY=LENIENTASSUME_SORTED=true

REMOVE_DUPLICATES=true. Reads were converted to tdf files for viewing on IGV using

Igvtools (v 2.3.95) count with -w 25(Robinson et al. 2011). Tag directories were made from

deduplicated bam files with Homer (v. 4.9) makeTagDirectory with Perl (v 5.26.1) (Heinz et al.

2010). Peaks were called using Homer (v. 4.11) getDifferentialPeaksReplicates where -t was

replicate ChIP tag directories, -i was the corresponding replicate input directories, with parameters

-F 10 and -L 4. Reactivated peaks were called using Homer (v. 4.11)

getDifferentialPeaksReplicates where -t was replicate ChIP tag directories for DNMT1i treatment,

-b was the replicate ChIP directories for DMSO treatment, and -p was the peaks called in the

corresponding DNMT1i treatment condition. These peaks were further restricted to those only

called in DNMT1i and not DMSO by using bedtools (v 2.26.0) intersect with the -v and -wa options

(Quinlan and Hall 2010). For aggregate analyses, DeepTools was used to convert deduplicated

bam files to RPKM normalized bigwigs and to compare bigwigs to one another.

HiChIP data preprocessing and loop calling

HiChIP reads for each sample were aligned to hg38 and processed with HiC Pro (v 3.0.0) using

the default settings with a DpnII digested genome generated with the digest_genome script

(Servant et al. 2015). For most analyses, HiCPro output .allvalidpairs files for replicate samples

were then pooled. Loops were called using Hichipper (v 0.7.7) in call mode with default

parameters and the flag --input-vi, and loops for each condition were kept if they had FDR< 0.01

and > 4 PETs(Lareau and Aryee 2018b). For downstream foldchange and CPM analysis using

Diffloop, Hichipper was instead used to call loops from HiCPro outputs without pooling replicates

and the unfiltered loop list was used as input to Diffloop. For all Hichipper analyses, merged peak

files containing all peaks from DMSO and DNMT1i for a given cell line were used as the input

peak file.

Hi-C analysis

Published LIMe-Hi-C data for three replicates of DMSO and DNMT1 inhibitor treatment conditions

in K562 were employed for the analysis (Siegenfeld et al. 2022). The same treatment conditions

were used as employed in this study. LIMe-Hi-C samples were generated as previously

described(Siegenfeld et al. 2022) and sequenced to a depth of approximately 600 million reads

per sample. Hi-C data were processed as previously described (Siegenfeld et al. 2022) using

JuiceMe (v 1.0.0) to generate merged_nodups.txt.gz pairwise contact files. Contacts from all three

replicates were subsequently pooled together using the JuiceMe CPU "mega" script (v 1.0.0).

These files were then converted to the cool format at 10 kb resolution using cooler (v 0.8.11).

These cool files were normalized using the cooler (v 0.8.11) "balance" function and were directly

utilized for aggregate pileup analysis. To perform pileup analysis, CTCF peaks, identified as

described above, were filtered based upon the presence of a CTCF motif using the motif file

MA0139.1.tsv.gz downloaded from the JASPAR database and assigned to the motif with the

strongest signal using the bioframe (v 0.3.3) "overlap" function. In addition, CTCF sites that were

located within 1000 bp of a previously identified blacklisted region (ENCFF356LFX.bed.gz) were

removed using the bioframe "subtract" function. Pileup analysis was then performed using the

cooltools (v 0.5.1) "pileup" function on peaks deduplicated through the bioframe "cluster" function

with a "min_dist" threshold set to a resolution of 10 kb to remove duplicate peaks located within

the same genomic bin. Peaks for which motifs mapped to the – strand were reflected across the

diagonal and the pileup matrix was then plotted in python (v 3.7) using standard matplotlib (v

3.5.2) functions. Highly-looping and reactivated peaks were defined as specified below. Speckle

associated peaks were defined to be those with an average speckle SON Cut&Tag signal greater

than or equal to the 90th percentile genome-wide 20 kb bin average speckle signal.

The stripenn (v 1.1.65.7)(Yoon et al. 2022) "compute" function was used to identify stripes from

the merged DNMT1 inhibitor 10 kb cool file with the following parameters: --norm KR -m

0.95,0.96,0.97,0.98,0.99. The distances of highly-looping peaks and normal-looping peaks to

stripe anchors tabulated in the stripenn "result_filtered.tsv" output were calculated using

pybedtools (v 0.8.1) "closest" function and visualized in python (v 3.8) using standard plotting

functions.

CTCF binding scatterplots and aggregate profile plots

To make scatterplots of CTCF normalized tags, RPKM normalized bigwigs were generated for

ChIP samples and matched input controls from deduplicated bam files (see above) using

deepTools (v 3.4.3) bamCoverage. ChIP files were normalized to their matched input controls

using deepTools (v 3.4.3) bigwigCompare with the log2 option. A merged peak list was made by

combining peak files from DNMT1i and DMSO and collapsing the list with bedtools (v 2.26.0)

merge, and normalized ChIP-seq signal per condition was annotated onto these peaks using

deepTools multiBigwigSummary. To make aggregate profile plots of CTCF ChIP-seq signal over

genes or peak subsets, bigwig files of CTCF ChIP-seq signal were generated for each condition

from deduplicated bam files (see above) with deepTools (v 3.4.3) bamCoverage with flag --

normalizeUsing RPKM. To make aggregate plots over peak subsets, deepTools (v 3.4.3)

computeMatrix and plotProfile were used with the following computeMatrix parameters:

reference-point --referencePoint center -bs 50 -a 1000 -b 1000 --skipZeros. To make aggregate

plots over genes, deepTools (v 3.4.3) computeMatrix and plotprofile were used with the following

parameters: --scale-regions --regionBodyLength 1000-bs 50 -a 1000 -b 1000 --skipZeros.

Downstream processing was completed in python (v 3.7.0) (www.python.org) with pandas (v

1.0.3), matplotlib (v 3.2.1) and seaborn (v 0.11.2).

Annotating CTCF peaks

CTCF peaks were annotated using Homer (v 4.11) annotatePeaks using the -gtf option with an

Ensembl gtf file (v 104) with the standard priority order assigned (Heinz et al. 2010). Motifs were

assigned to CTCF peaks using gimmemotifs gimme scan function with -b and -f 0.1 and the

JASPAR motif pfm as input. Strand-aware motif methylation heatmaps were made using

Deeptools. To assess overlap of categories of CTCF peaks with a bed file of predefined

subcompartments from SNIPER (Xiong and Ma 2019) bedtools (v 2.26.0) map was used with the

– o distinct flag, and data were further processed in python (v 3.7.0) (www.python.org) and any

peaks overlapping multiple subcompartments were discarded. To assess overlap of categories of

CTCF peaks with normalized TSA-seq counts, UCSC's function bigWigToBedGraph was first

used to convert a bigwig file of normalized SON TSA-seq counts to a bedgraph in 20kb bins, and

then bedtools (v 2.26.0) map was used with – o mean flag to map TSA-seq counts onto CTCF

peak list and the data were further processed in python (v 3.7.0). The following published files

were used from 4D Nucleome for TSA-seq figures: 4DNFIVZSO9RI.bw 4DNFIBY8G6RZ.bw.

Assigning number of loops (partners) per CTCF peak

CTCF peaks were annotated with the number of different loops (partners) per peak by using

pgltools (v 2.2.0) intersect1D to list each loop-peak interception followed by bedtools (v 2.26.0)

merge on the list of peaks to sum the number of different loops in which each peak falls within an

anchor (Greenwald et al. 2017; Quinlan and Hall 2010). To annotate peaks with the number of

different loops their maximally-looping partner makes, pgltools (v 2.2.0) intersect1D was again

used to list each loop-peak interception. Bedtools (v 2.26.0) map was used to annotate the

number of different loops the peak in each partner anchor makes from the previous file using the

-o max flag. This resulted in one entry per loop that lists the "original" peak and the number of

loops its partner anchor makes. The maximally-looping partner per original peak was mapped

back onto the original peak list with bedtools (v 2.26.0) map using the -o max flag so that each

peak was listed once.

Calling and characterizing highly-looping peaks

Highly-looping peaks were called by adapting code used previously to define methylation rich

regions (MRRs) and superenhancers (Cai et al. 2020). Specifically, peaks were ordered by rank

with respect to the number of different loops they make. The tangent line was drawn where the

slope becomes 1 and any peaks above this cutoff were considered highly-looping for a given

condition. To generate aggregate profile plots of public K562 histone modification bigwig files (see

source data) over CTCF peaks, deepTools (v 3.4.3) computeMatrix was used with the following

parameters: reference-point --referencePoint center -bs 50 -a 5000 -b 5000 --skipZeros and

results were visualized with deepTools (v 3.4.3) plotProfile. Overlap of peaks with

subcompartments and TSA-seq was performed as described above for all CTCF peaks. The

following published files were used from the ENCODE consortium for the peak characterization

pileups: ENCFF239EBH.bigWig, ENCFF469JMR.bigWig, ENCFF600FDO.bigWig.

Calculating looping changes across conditions

To calculate foldchange and mean CPM loop strength between conditions, mango Hichipper

output files for individual replicates were input into Diffloop (v 1.16.0) and processed with the

loopsmake mango function (Lareau and Aryee 2018a). The full loop list was then filtered for loops

with FDR <0.01 and with at least 8 PETs across samples for a given cell type and loops that

appeared strongly (>5 PETs) in only one replicate but 0 PETS in the other were removed. The

quickAssoc function was then used to get loop strength foldchange and CPM values for each

loop. Diffloop output files obtained from the summary() function were then intersected with

genomic features (such as reactivated peak overlap, subcompartment, Cut&Tag signal) for further

analyses using pgltools (v 2.2.0) intersect1D and redundant loops were merged using pgltools (v

2.2.0) merge and files were further processed in python (v 3.7.0) (www.python.org) with pandas

(v1.0.3), matplotlib (v 3.2.1) seaborn (v 0.11.2) and statannot (v 0.2.3) (Greenwald et al. 2017).

Cut&Tag data processing

Paired end reads were aligned to hg38, deduplicated and converted to bam and tdf files as

described above for ChIP-seq. To generate aggregate profile plots of SON Cut&Tag signal over

CTCF peaks, normalized bigwig files averaging both replicates were generated from deduplicated

bam files with deepTools (v 3.4.3) bamCompare with --operation mean --normalizeUsing RPKM

--scaleFactorsMethod None. Then, deepTools (v 3.4.3) computeMatrix and plotProfile were used

to plot SON Cut&Tag signal over categories of CTCF peaks with the following computeMatrix

parameters: reference-point --referencePoint center -bs 50 -a 1000 -b 1000 –skipZeros. To

compare Cut&Tag binned signal to peak and gene sets, replicate-averaged bedgraph files were

generated with deepTools (v 3.4.3) bamCompare with --normalizeUsing RPKM --operation mean

-of bedgraph --binSize 20000 --scaleFactorsMethod None. Binned Cut&Tag signal was mapped

onto genes/peaks with bedtools map (v 2.26.0) with -o mean. To compare loop strength and loop

foldchange from Diffloops summary file (described above) to binned Cut&Tag signal, the

replicate-averaged Cut&Tag bedgraphs in 20 kb bins were intersected with loop files using

pgltools (v 2.2.0) intersect1D with -wa -wb -allA followed by pgltools merge with -o mean

(Greenwald et al. 2017). For all plots with deciles, equal deciles for each plot were determined in

python (v 3.7.0) with pandas (v 1.0.3) qcut with duplicates ='drop'.(Ramírez et al. 2016)

Subsequent processing for all plots was completed in python (v 3.7.0) (www.python.org) with

pandas (v1.0.3), matplotlib (v 3.2.1), seaborn (v 0.11.2) and statannot (v 0.2.3).

RNA-seq processing and differential expression analysis

RNA-seq data were analyzed following Lexogen's recommended protocol. First, UMIs were extracted with umi-tools (v 1.1.1) extract (Smith et al. 2017). Adapters were then trimmed with cutadapt (v 2.7) (Martin 2011). Trimmed reads were aligned to hg38 using Star aligner (v 2.6.0) with a genome generated using the Ensembl hg38 primary assembly and Ensembl GTF file v 104 with the following settings: --outFilterMultimapNmax 20 --alignSJoverhangMin 8 --alignSJDBoverhangMin 1 --outFilterMismatchNmax 999 --outFilterMismatchNoverLmax 0.6 --alignIntronMin 20 --alignIntronMax 1000000 --alignMatesGapMax 1000000 --peOverlapNbasesMin 40 --peOverlapMMp 0.8 --outSAMattributes NH HI NM MD(Dobin et al. 2013). Reads were then deduplicated with umi-tools dedup (v 1.1.1) with flags multimapping-detection-method=NH and unpaired-reads=discard. For gene expression analysis, HTseq – count (v 0.11.2) was used to count reads in genes (Anders et al. 2015). Count files were then processed in DEseq2 (v 1.28) with R (v 4.0.2) using the standard workflow to get foldchange values and using alpha=0.05 (Love et al. 2014; Zitovsky and Love 2019). Hierarchical clustering was performed on the regularized $\log_2$-transformed counts using Euclidean distance as a metric and the complete clustering method. All genes with both an adjusted P < 0.05, calculated using the Benjamini-Hochberg correction, and |$\log_2$(fold-change)| > 0.5 between wildtype DNMT1i and DMSO were included in the clustered heatmap. The regularized $\log_2$-transformed counts for the variable genes were grouped by k-means clustering (k = 4) and the Z-scores for the variable genes, ordered according to their cluster identity, are depicted. For differential exon analysis, Dexseq (v 1.34.1) was used. Files were then imported into R and foldchange values were computed according to the standard Dexseq workflow. BioMart was used to map the genomic ranges for each gene onto RNA-seq differential expression output files. Gene expression changes were compared with Cut&Tag signal and CTCF peak overlap using bedtools (v 2.26.0) map with -o mean. Gene Ontology analysis was completed on the online DAVID portal by filtering for goterm_direct and goterm_BP_5 results with FDRj<0.2 (Sherman et al. 2022; Huang et al. 2009).

Further analysis, including volcano plots, was completed in python (v 3.7.0) (www.python.org)

with pandas (v 1.0.3), matplotlib (v 3.2.1) seaborn (v 0.11.2) and statannot (v 0.2.3).

Data Access

All sequencing data has been deposited on NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus under the super

series accession code GSE217760. Custom code is available at https://github.com/liaulab.

Competing Interests

B.B.L. holds a sponsored research project with AstraZeneca is a shareholder and member of the

scientific advisory board of Light Horse Therapeutics. The remaining authors declare no

competing interests.

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Supplemental Figures
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814 **Figure S1** | DNMT1 inhibition reactivates looping CTCF peaks
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A. Dose-response curve in K562 (left) and HCT116 cells (right) of percent growth (y-axis) in
varying doses of DNMT1i treatment (x-axis) relative to DMSO-treated control cells after 3 days
of treatment. Data represent mean ± s.e.m.
B. Percent methylation in wildtype cells on CpG sites within 300 bp CTCF peak regions for
reactivated peaks and all other CTCF peaks.
C. Loop anchor-to-anchor width for loops with or without at least one anchor overlapping a
reactivated peak. Loops that overlap reactivated peaks are separated into motif methylation
clusters from **Fig 1D**.
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For (**C**), the interquartile range (IQR) is depicted by the box with the median represented by the
center line. Outliers are excluded. P values were calculated by a Mann-Whitney test and are
annotated as follows: ns: not significant; *: 0.01 <p ≤ 0.05; **: 0.001 <p ≤ 0.01; ***:
0.0001 <p ≤ 0.001; ****: p ≤ 0.0001.

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827 **Figure S2** | Reactivated CTCF peaks loop from gene bodies and interact with stripe anchors
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A. Genomic annotations of CTCF peaks in each cluster from **Fig 1D**.
B. log$_2$(fold-change) ratio of the fractions of each annotation within looping vs. nonlooping
reactivated peaks. Ratio of bars from **Fig 2A**.
C. Number of different partner peaks each CTCF peak interacts with (y-axis) for reactivated K562
(left) and reactivated HCT116 (right) peaks in DNMT1i by peak annotation (x-axis).
D. Number of different partner peaks the maximally-looping partner interacts with (y-axis) for all
K562 (left) and all HCT116 (right) peaks in DNMT1i by peak annotation (x-axis).
E. Number of different partner peaks (*y*-axis) assigned to each peak by rank (*x*-axis) in DNMT1i
for K562 (left) and HCT116 (right). Highly-looping peaks reside above the red dashed line.
F. Boxplot showing the log$_2$(fold-change) in loop strength DNMT1i vs. DMSO (y-axis) for loops
connecting reactivated peaks to highly-looping partners vs all other loops (x-axis) for K562
and HCT116.
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For boxplots, the interquartile range (IQR) is depicted by the box with the median represented by the center line. Outliers are excluded. P values were calculated by a Mann-Whitney test and are annotated as follows: ns: not significant; *: $0.01 < p \leq 0.05$; **: $0.001 < p \leq 0.01$; ***: $0.0001 < p \leq 0.001$; ****: $p \leq 0.0001$.

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845 **Figure S3 |** Many genes depend on CTCF for upregulation upon DNMT1i
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A. Volcano plot showing -log$_{10}$(adjusted P-value) (y-axis) vs. log$_2$(fold-change) in gene
expression (x-axis) upon 3 days DNMT1i treatment for K562 (left) and HCT116 (right).
Upregulated genes are highlighted in red, and downregulated genes are highlighted in blue
(p-adj < 0.05, |log$_2$Foldchange| > 1).
B. Boxplot showing log$_2$(fold-change) in gene expression in DNMT1i vs. DMSO (y-axis) for genes
overlapping no CTCF peak, reactivated CTCF peaks, or non-reactivated CTCF DNMT1i
peaks (x-axis) for K562 cells
C. Western blot for CTCF levels over a dose/time course of HaloPROTAC3 in HaloTag-CTCF
knock-in HCT116 cells. GAPDH is shown as a loading control. 330nM was chosen as the final
dose.
D. Aggregate profile plot of replicate-averaged RPKM normalized CTCF binding in DMSO over
the transcription start sites of differential HaloPROTAC3 genes.

E. Boxplot showing expression levels of genes within clusters from **Fig 3C** in Fragments Per
Kilobase per Million mapped fragments (FPKM). Expression in cells treated with vehicle (-
HaloPROTAC3, - DNMT1i) is shown.
F. Bar plot showing the -$\log_{10}$(p-value) for the top enriched gene ontology terms determined
through DAVID for Cluster 2 genes from **Fig 3C**.
G. Heatmap of per-CTCF site $\log_2$(fold-change CTCF binding) after 1 day of DNMT1i treatment
vs. DMSO control centered over all CTCF peaks overlapping genes in the clusters from **Fig**
3C. Each gene could have multiple CTCF peaks on it.
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For boxplots, the interquartile range (IQR) is depicted by the box with the median represented by
the center line. Outliers are excluded. P values were calculated by a Mann-Whitney test and are
annotated as follows: ns: not significant; *: $0.01 < p \le 0.05$; **: $0.001 < p \le 0.01$; ***:
$0.0001 < p \le 0.001$; ****: $p \le 0.0001$.

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Figure S4 | Reactivated CTCF peaks loop gene bodies to stripe anchors

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A. Boxplot showing replicate-averaged DNMT1i SON Cut&Tag signal (RPKM, 20 kb bins, y-axis) in the respective cell type over reactivated peaks vs. all other CTCF peaks called in DNMT1i for K562 and HCT116 cells broken down by whether the CTCF peak is in a loop anchor.

B. Boxplots showing SON TSA-seq normalized counts (y-axis) for reactivated vs. non-reactivated CTCF DNMT1i peaks for K562 and HCT116 (left) broken down by whether the CTCF peak is in a loop anchor.

C. Proportion of all, reactivated, and highly-looping CTCF K562 DNMT1i peaks in each published subcompartment (y-axis) assigned by SNIPER for wildtype K562 cells.

D. Boxplots showing SON TSA-seq normalized counts (*y*-axis) for highly-looping vs. normal-looping CTCF DNMT1i peaks for K562 and HCT116 (right). SON TSA-seq normalized counts were analyzed from public data in the untreated, wildtype respective cell type (see methods).

For boxplots, the interquartile range (IQR) is depicted by the box with the median represented by the center line. Outliers are excluded. P values were calculated by a Mann-Whitney test and are annotated as follows: ns: not significant; *: $0.01 < p \leq 0.05$; **: $0.001 < p \leq 0.01$; ***: $0.0001 < p \leq 0.001$; ****: $p \leq 0.0001$.

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Figure S5 | Acute depletion of nuclear speckles does not disrupt CTCF binding or looping

A. Separate western blots for SON and SRRM2 in speckle dTAG knockin and wildtype (wt) K562 cells ± 6 hours of 500 nM dTAG-13 treatment. Vinculin was used as a loading control.

B. Per-nucleus mean fluorescence following immunofluorescence for SON/SRRM2 double dTAG knock-in K562 cells treated with dTAG-13 for 6 or 12 hours or DMSO for 12 hours.

C. log$_2$(fold-change in gene expression) (y-axis) vs. baseMean gene expression for both
conditions (x-axis) for 6 hr dTAG-13 vs. DMSO treatment for all genes. APEGLM shrinkage
was applied for visualization.
D. Proportion of all nonzero (left) and all 6 hr dTAG-13 downregulated (right, padj<0.05) genes
(y-axis) in each SON TSA-seq decile (x-axis) from wildtype cells. 10 is the decile closest to
speckles.
E. Aggregate profile plot of CTCF ChIP-seq signal (RPKM) in speckle knock-in K562 cells with
and without 6 hr speckle degradation (y-axis) over all CTCF peaks (x-axis).
F. Boxplot showing log$_2$(fold-change) loop strength for dTAG-13 treated vs. DMSO treated
speckle dTAG knock-in cells relative to TSA-seq decile after 6 or 12 hours of dTAG-13
treatment with matched DMSO controls. Speckle refers to the decile closest to speckles, and
non-speckle refers to the deciles 1-9 that are furthest from speckles.
G. Aggregate profile plot of CTCF ChIP-seq signal (RPKM) in speckle dTAG knock-in K562 cells
with dTAG-13 vs. DMSO treatment (y-axis) across expressed genes (top) and genes that are
downregulated with dTAG-13 treatment (bottom) (x-axis).
H. Boxplot showing log$_2$(fold-change) loop strength for 6 hr dTAG-13 treated vs. DMSO treated
speckle dTAG knock-in cells (y-axis) for loops with anchors that do not overlap any genes,
overlap only genes that do not change expression, and overlap genes that increase or
decrease in expression in at least one anchor (x-axis).
I. Representative SON and SRRM2 immunofluorescence images (green, alexafluor488) in
HCT116 cells with 24 hours of 330 nM HaloPROTAC3 treatment to deplete CTCF or vehicle
control. Overlaid on DAPI in blue.
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For boxplots, the interquartile range (IQR) is depicted by the box with the median represented
by the center line. Outliers are excluded. P values were calculated by a Mann-Whitney test and
are annotated as follows: ns: not significant; *: $0.01 < p \leq 0.05$; **: $0.001 < p \leq 0.01$; ***:
$0.0001 < p \leq 0.001$; ****: $p \leq 0.0001$.

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