Loss of zinc finger homeobox-3 (ZFHX3) affects rhythmic gene transcription in
mammalian central clock

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ABSTRACT

The mammalian suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN), situated in the ventral hypothalamus, directs

daily cellular and physiological 24-hr rhythms across the body. Spatiotemporal gene

transcription in the SCN is vital for daily timekeeping to sustain the molecular circadian

clock and clock-controlled genes (CCGs). A key SCN transcription factor, ZFHX3 (zinc

finger homeobox-3), is implicated crucial for the synchronization and maintenance of the

circadian timekeeping. So far, the resultant aberrant circadian behaviour after the loss of

ZFHX3 is well-characterized, but the molecular mechanisms affecting the central clock, and

the SCN transcriptome at large is poorly defined. Here, we used ZFHX3 targeted chromatin

immunoprecipitation (ChIP-seq) to map the genomic localization of ZFHX3 in the SCN. In

parallel, we conducted a comprehensive SCN RNA sequencing at six distinct times-of-day,

and compared the transcriptional profile between the control and ZFHX3-conditional null

mutants. Our rigorous efforts highlighted the genome wide occupancy of ZFHX3

predominantly around the gene transcription start site (TSS), co-localizing with the known

histone modifications, and preferentially partnering with the core-clock TFs

(CLOCK,BMAL1) to regulate the clock gene(s) transcription., we clearly showed a drastic

effect of the loss of ZFHX3 on the SCN transcriptome, intensely reducing the level of

neuropeptides responsible for inter-cellular coupling, along with abolishing rhythmic (24-h)

oscillation of the clock TF, *Bmal1*. A systematic rhythmicity analysis further showed change

in phase (peak expression) and amplitude of the various clock genes including *Per (1-3), Dbp*

in ZFHX3 deficient mice, corroborating with the noted atypical advancement in daily

behaviour under 12hr light- 12hr dark conditions. . Taken together, these findings shed light

on genome-wide regulation conferred by ZFHX3 in the central clock that is necessary to

orchestrate daily timekeeping in mammals.

<u>INTRODUCTION</u>

Circadian (approximately one day) clocks is an internal biological clock, which enables

molecular, behavioural and physiological processes to synchronize with changing daily

environmental conditions and produce a coherent 24-hour rhythm. In mammals, the circadian

clock mechanism consists of cell-autonomous transcription-translation feedback loops

(TTFLs) that drive rhythmic, 24-h (hour) expression patterns of canonical clock components

[1]. The first negative feedback loop is a rhythmic transcription of period genes (*Per1*, *Per2*,

and *Per3*) and cryptochrome genes (*Cry1* and *Cry2*). PER and CRY proteins form a

heterodimer, which acts on the CLOCK (circadian locomotor output cycles kaput) / BMAL1

(brain and muscle ARNT-Like 1) heterodimer to repress its own transcription. The second

loop is a positive feedback loop driven by the CLOCK/BMAL1 heterodimer, which initiates

transcription of target genes containing E-box cis-regulatory sequences.

The circadian processes are directed by suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) of the

hypothalamus, which synchronizes robust 24-hour oscillations in peripheral tissues[2-4]. In the

SCN, the TTFL drives the molecular clock in individual cells, which in turn are synchronized

through intercellular coupling and forms a coherent oscillator[5,6]. This intercellular coupling is

driven by several neuropeptides, such as vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP), arginine

vasopressin (AVP) and gastrin-releasing peptide (GRP) [7], besides Prokinetin2 (PROK2) that

serves as a pace making element in the SCN[8]. Along with the neuropeptides, a key zinc finger

homeobox-3; ZFHX3, transcription factor is found to be highly prevalent in the discrete

populations of the SCN cells, in adults, and shown to robustly control circadian rhythms.

Intriguingly, while a dominant missense mutation in *Zfhx3* gene (short circuit, *Zfhx3$^{Sci/+}$*)

causes mice to express a short circadian period [9], a complete conditional null *Zfhx3* mutation

results in arrhythmicity [10]. Given the crucial role of the SCN in orchestrating daily

timekeeping in mammals, it is imperative to fully understand the role of ZFHX3 in fine

tuning the rhythmic processes.

Although the effect of *Zfhx3* mutation is known at the circadian behaviour level, the

molecular defects underpinning perturbed daily timekeeping are not well-characterized.

Therefore, we set out to systematically assess the functional significance of ZFHX3 by

employing a multiomics approach in the SCN. Primarily, we focussed to analyse the genomic

binding pattern of ZFHX3 in the central pacemaker by conducting ZFHX3 targeted

chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP-seq). In parallel, we implemented a detailed

transcriptional profiling of the *Zfhx3* conditional null mutants, specifically in the SCN using

vibratome based microdissection[11], to infer the effect on tissue specific gene expression and

rhythmic gene transcription. Overall, with our concerted efforts we are able to successfully

pin-point genome-wide occupancy of ZFHX3 to specific gene regulatory regions in the SCN,

potentially controlling vital SCN functions, including circadian timekeeping. Furthermore,

our in-depth gene expression profiling has revealed a central role of *Zfhx3* in the SCN

transcriptome*,* regulating various key tissue specific processes. Remarkably, we noted altered

rhythmic transcriptional profile of the genes involved in the positive and negative loops of the

24-h driven feedback mechanisms at distinct levels in the ZFHX3-deficient mice,

highlighting the importance of ZFHX3 in fine-tuning the molecular clockwork.

RESULTS

ZFHX3 *binds to active promoter sites in the SCN*

Genome-wide binding of transcription factor (TF) ZFHX3 was profiled in the

suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) using chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) sequencing.

Briefly, genomic DNA was extracted from C57BL/6J mice raised in standard 12-h/12-h light-

dark conditions at two distinct time-points; ZT3 and ZT15, and subjected to ChIP-Seq

(Methods). The sequenced reads were aligned to mouse genome (mm10) and significant

peaks corresponding to ZFHX3 occupancy were assessed in conjunction with previously

identified histone modification regions[12] in the SCN. We noticed that majority of ZFHX3

peaks coincided with H3K4me3 and H3K27ac occupancy (48.9% of total ZFHX3 peaks at

ZT3), and were focussed near the transcription start sites (TSS $\pm$ 3kb) (Fig. 1a,b).

Presumably, these sites are responsible for active transcription as they are jointly occupied by

H3K4me3 and H3K27ac [13], suggesting a potential role of ZFHX3 in regulating gene

transcription in the SCN. On further inspection, the genes potentially regulated by ZFHX3 at

the TSS were seen to be involved in synaptic processes and signalling pathways, including

circadian timekeeping (Supplementary fig. 1a), which is a key function of the SCN.

On the other hand, genomic regions co-operatively bound by ZFHX3 and H3K4me3

(no H3K27ac, 20.7%), indicative of poised regulatory sites[14,15], or with ZFHX3 alone (22%)

(Fig. 1d, e), were found to regulate genes involved in several fundamental biological

processes, but not circadian rhythm (Supplementary fig. 1b, c). Therefore, it is plausible

ZFHX3 binds at the TSS and regulates actively transcribing genes, particularly those

involved in tissue-specific functions such as daily timekeeping. This was further tested by

examining the enrichment of DNA binding motifs at genomic sites occupied by ZFHX3

alone, and with specific histone modifications (H3K4me3, H3K27ac). As expected, we found

overrepresentation of AT- rich known motifs at ZFHX3 sites[9], with ARNT(bHLH) domain

enriched only where ZFHX3 peaks were seen adjacent to H3K27ac and H3K4me3 (active

promoters). This clearly points towards the possibility of shared binding of ZFHX3 with the

circadian clock TFs BMAL1/CLOCK at E-box (*CACGTG*) to regulate circadian gene

transcription in the central pacemaker (Supplementary fig. 1d). Moreover, it is worth noting

that CCCTC-binding factor (CTCF), known to attract both conserved and tissue-specific TFs

[16,17], was also found to be enriched at ZFHX3 sites. Co-localization of CTCF with the SCN

enriched transcription factor ZFHX3 could play an important role in chromatin organization

and dynamic gene regulation, as seen previously in other tissues[18].

ZFHX3 *knock-out (KO) invariably affects SCN transcriptomics*

To study the role of ZFHX3 on the SCN transcriptome we employed total directional RNA

sequencing on the SCN tissue collected from $Zfhx3^{Flox/Flox}$;UBC-Cre$^-$ (Cre-neg) and

$Zfhx3^{Flox/Flox}$;UBC-Cre$^+$ (Pre-tam) , both serving as independent control groups, and

tamoxifen administered $Zfhx3^{Flox/Flox}$;UBC-Cre$^+$ (Post-tam) mutant group, at six distinct time-

of-day (Methods). Alongside conducting RNA sequencing, we also measured the expression

levels of *Zfhx3* by real-time PCR in control and mutant groups and found dramatic reduction

in *Zfhx3* mRNA expression in the mutants (Supplementary fig. 2a). Overall, RNA sequencing

revealed that 5,929 genes were affected in the SCN (FDR $\leq$ 0.05), with 2,878 downregulated

and 3,051 upregulated post ZFHX3-KO (Supplementary table 1, Fig. 2a, b). As expected,

both the control groups (Cre-neg and Pre-tam) showed consistent differential gene expression

levels when compared to the mutant and mitigated any downstream effect of tamoxifen

dosing (Fig. 2b,c). We, then sub-selected highly differential genes ($\log_2$FC ≥ 1, FDR < 0.05)

and conducted functional gene enrichment analysis. Consistent with the previous

studies[9,10,19,20], genes that were downregulated were seen to be involved in neuropeptide

signalling pathways (*Vip, Grp*), neuron differentiation, circadian rhythm etc., while those that

were upregulated showed functional enrichment for cell differentiation and extracellular

matrix organization processes. Interestingly, our comprehensive assessment also highlighted

an effect of loss of ZFHX3 on the genes involved in learning and memory (*Grpr, Ghsr*),

psychomotor behaviour (*Grp*), fear response and feeding behaviour (*Nmu*). Therefore, it is

conceivable that loss of AT-motif binding ZFHX3 leads to drastic physiological impairment

both at the tissue- and –system level in mammals.

Loss of Zfhx3 weakens the daily clock affecting rhythmic gene transcription at multiple

levels

Recent studies investigating the circadian behaviour after the loss of ZFHX3, either due to a

missense mutation (*Zfhx3^{Sci}*) [9] or knock-out (*Zfhx3*^{Flox/Flox};UBC-Cre^+) [10], have successfully

shown severe deficits in daily timekeeping resulting due to shortening of 24-h period (*tau =*

23.0) and arrhythmic locomotor activity, respectively. In order to further investigate the

effect of ZFHX3 on the molecular circadian clock, we assessed the gene expression levels in

the SCN at six distinct time-of-day[21], starting at zeitgeber time (ZT) = 2 for every 4 hours

(Methods). In total, we analysed daily transcriptional profile of 24,421 genes in the SCN and

compared the rhythmicity index between the control (Cre-neg) and mutant (Post-tam) groups

using an R-based statistical framework *dryR* (https://github.com/naef-lab/dryR) [22].

Specifically, the analysed genes resulted into 5 distinct modules; module 1 referred to genes

with no detected 24-h rhythm in their expression levels in both conditions (n = 16945,

Supplementary fig. 3a), module 2 constituted genes that lost rhythmic expression after

ZFHX3-KO (n =1630, fig. 3a), module 3 constituted genes that gain daily rhythmicity after

ZFHX3-KO (n = 431, Supplementary fig. 3b), module 4 was composed of genes with no

change in rhythmicity between the control and mutants (n = 1742, fig. 3b), and module 5

included genes that retain rhythmic expression with change in either amplitude or phase

(peak expression) in the mutant group (n = 73) (Supplementary table 2, fig. 3c). For each

module, we compiled the gene list and assayed the functional enrichment pathways.

Interestingly, we found that almost all the canonical clock genes belonged to module 5,

including *Per2*, and showed change in phase and/ amplitude.

Intriguingly, this systematic approach did not only highlighted the genes that lost 24-

h rhythmic oscillations, such as *Bmal1* and the SCN neuropeptide *Avp* (module 2, fig. 3a), but

also identified genes that retained rhythmicity with change in their waveform (module 5).

Given the fact that ZFHX3 deficient mice do not lose rhythmic behaviour in daily LD cycle [10]

(Supplementary fig. 2b), but results in arrhythmia in free-running (complete darkness: DD)

condition, we believe our targeted SCN specific assessment shed light on the dynamics of the

daily gene expression pattern linked to the knock-out condition. Although the clock genes did

not lose rhythmic expression under LD condition, they all showed characteristic phase (peak

expression) advance that perfectly corroborated with advancement in the locomotor activity

(at onset of dark; ZT12), seen for the mutants. Therefore at the molecular level, loss of

ZFHX3, results in loss of rhythmic gene expression of clock TF- such as *Bmal1* and phase

advance for core-clock genes, with the exception of CRY family genes *(Cry1, Cry2)* that did

not reveal any obvious change and resulted in module 4.

<u>DISCUSSION</u>

The SCN is distinctive in its ability to sustain autonomous rhythmicity which is driven by circadian cascades of transcription that direct metabolic, electrophysiological and signalling rhythms. Our current finding highlights the instrumental role of transcription factor, ZFHX3 in driving the daily timekeeping mechanism. Through the targeted ChIP-seq we pinpointed the genome-wide occupancy of ZFHX3 in the SCN, which was found to be co-localized with histone modifications (H3K4me3, H3K27ac) and concentrated near the gene TSS. That said, a vast majority of ZFHX3 sites were also seen at distal intergenic regions (Fig. 1c, e), devoid of the promoter histone methylation mark, and enriched for CTCF binding sites. This hints on the potential accessory role of ZFHX3 in modifying genome topology and chromosomal looping to bring about change in target gene expression by regulating the promoter-enhancer interactions[23]. Interestingly, along with the CTCF binding sites, ZFHX3 bound sites were also enriched for other SCN domineering regulatory factors; RFX, LHX, ZIC [24,25] (Supplementary fig. 1d), suggesting a well-coordinated tissue-specific gene regulation.

Next, given the crucial role of ZFHX3 in daily timekeeping, we speculated a dynamic change in its genomic occupancy and compared the binding intensity of the transcription factor at two anti-phasic (12-h apart, zt3 vs zt15) time-points (Methods). Surprisingly, we did not detect any differential binding site(s) between the tested time-points, but rather noticed a uniform and coherent localization. This suggests towards ZFHX3 belonging to a family of poised transcription factors, who either could act as a co-activator/mediator to regulate the target gene transcription or responsible for chromatin accessibility. Indeed, in a recent unpublished study by Baca et al[26], ZFHX3 was shown to be associated with chromatin remodelling and mRNA processing. Nonetheless, in our study we clearly noted ZFHX3

bound active TSS to be enriched for BMAL1 binding site (CACGTG) that could clearly

explain the control of circadian gene transcription by ZFHX3.

Along with the ChIP-seq, we executed a detailed RNA sequencing to study the effect of

loss of ZFHX3, particularly in the SCN. Crucially, ZFHX3 affected the SCN transcriptome at

varied levels, to an extent where advancement in rhythmic behaviour is resonated in the

resultant altered amplitude/phase (peak expression) of canonical clock genes in ZFHX3

deficient mice under 12-h light and 12-h dark (daily) conditions. Broadly speaking, the

majority of clock genes did not lose 24-h rhythmicity *(as Bmal1)*, but showed an even early

peak in expression, ranging between ~0.4 – 2 hours. It is, however, noteworthy that the CRY

family of genes *(Cry1, Cry2)* did not show the advancement in expression levels, and is

supposedly shielding the molecular clock as shown by Abe et al[27]. This provides a critical

insight about how deeply coordinated and regulated circadian gene transcription is in the

SCN.

METHODS

Mice

All animal studies were performed under the guidance issued by Medical Research Council

in Responsibility in the Use of Animals for Medical Research (July1993) and Home Office

Project Licence 19/0004. Adult specific knock out *Zfhx3* mice were generated using an

inducible Cre line as described by Wilcox et al[10]. Briefly, tamoxifen inducible Cre mice

(UBC-Cre) were crossed to *Zfhx3* floxed (*Zfhx3*Flox) mice to produce an initial stock of

*Zfhx3*Flox/+;UBC-Cre+ mice. These were subsequently crossed to *Zfhx3*Flox/+ mice to generate

experimental cohorts [28]. Out of the 6 possible genotype combinations, 2 genotypes;

Zfhx3^{Flox/Flox};UBC-Cre$^-$ (mice homozygous for *Zfhx3*^{Flox} allele but not carrying the Cre allele)

and *Zfhx3*^{Flox/Flox};UBC-Cre$^+$ (mice homozygous for *Zfhx3*^{Flox} allele and hemizygous for Cre

allele) were assigned as "control" (Cre-neg) and "experimental" (Post-tam) groups,

respectively and dosed with tamoxifen.   In addition, we also included a cohort of

Zfhx3^{Flox/Flox};UBC-Cre$^+$ mice before tamoxifen treatment as a secondary control (Pre-tam).

Animals were group housed (4-5 mice per age) in individually ventilated cages under 12:12hr

light-dark conditions with food and water available ad libitum.

Experimental Design

Mice (aged between 8 to 12 weeks) from control (Cre-neg and Pre-tam) and *Zfhx3* knock out

(Post-tam) cohorts were used for SCN tissue collection at 6 distinct time-points starting from

ZT2 at every 4 hours, where lights on at 7 am (ZT0) and lights off at 7 pm (ZT12). For SCN

RNA-Seq, four biological replicates per time-point were collected independently from the

control and experimental groups. For the second control group viz. Pre-tam; 2-4 biological

replicates were collected due to time constraints.   Furthermore, each biological replicate for

all the three tested condition constituted 3 individual SCN samples.

SCN tissue collection

Animals were sacrificed at the aforementioned time-points by cervical dislocation and brains

were removed and flash frozen on dry ice. The frozen brains were placed on dry ice along

with the brain matrix (Kent Scientific, Torrington CT, USA) and razor blades to chill. The

brain dissection was performed on a vibrating microtome (7000smz-2 Vibrotome, Campden

Instruments) under chilled conditions [11]. First, the frozen brain was placed on the chilled

brain matrix and ca. 3mm thick region was removed using razor blade from the caudal end to

remove the cerebellum and attain flat surface. Then, the dissected brain was super-glued to a

chilled (2 –3°C) metal chuck and placed into the metal specimen tray of the Vibratome. The

metal specimen tray was filled with pre-chilled 1X RNase free PBS (phosphate buffered

saline, ThermoFisher Scientific, #AM9625). Coronal slices measuring 250 uM in thickness

were cut from rostral to caudal at slow speed (0.07mm/s) and pre-tested specifications ;

Frequency: 70Hz, Amplitude: 1.00mm. Once cut, the slice with intact optic chiasm, third

ventricle and bilateral SCN tissues (Fig. S1) was selected and transferred on to pre-chilled

glass slides (ThermoFisher Scientific SuperFrost Plus Adhesion slides) with the help of paint

brush. The glass slide was placed on top of cold block and SCN tissues were collected by pre-

chilled forceps and dissection needles under dissection microscope (Nikon SMZ645 Stereo

Microscope).

RNA extraction

Total RNA from each sample replicate was extracted using RNeasy Micro Kit (QIAGEN,

#74004) following the protocol for microdissected cryosections as per manufacturer's

guidelines and stored at -80°C. Quality and quantity of RNA were measured using an Agilent

Bioanalyzer (Pico chip) and a Nanodrop1000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA

USA), respectively.

RNA Sequencing and data analysis

PolyA RNA-Seq libraries were prepared by Oxford Genomics Centre, University of Oxford

using NEBNext Ultra II Directional RNA Library Prep Kit (NEB, #E7760) and sequenced on

NovaSeq6000_150PE (150 bp paired-end directional reads: ~40 million reads/sample)

platform. Paired-end FASTQ files were quality assessed (Phred<20 removed) with FastQC

and Illumina adapters were trimmed with TrimGalore (v0.4.3). Then, the reads were aligned

to mm10 genome assembly using STAR (v2.7.8a) with MAPQ value for unique mappers set

to 60. Binary alignment map (BAM) files were used to generate read counts per gene by

FeatureCounts via Samtools (v1.11). Finally, limma-voom method (Liu et al. 2015) from the

Bioconductor package-limma (v3.48.0) was adopted to quantify differential gene expression

and normalised logarithmic CPM values were generated for downstream analysis.

Differential rhythm analysis

The read counts per gene for each analysed sample was obtained by FeatureCounts and

arranged in sample matrix by using coreutils (v8.25). The matrix file was used as an input for

dryR (R package for Differential Rhythmicity Analysis) available at https://github.com/neaf-

lab/dryR . Normalized transcripts from "control" (Cre-neg) and "experimental" (Post-tam)

groups were categorized into 5 modules with a threshold of BICW (Bayes information

criterion weight) > 0.4 based on their time-resolved expression pattern.

Gene annotation

The gene list were derived from Bioconductor-based package ChIPseeker v1.28.3 [29] was fed

into the Database for Annotation, Visualization, and Integrated Discovery (DAVID) tool [30].

The functional annotation chart based on KEGG pathway, Gene Ontology (GO): biological

processes (BP) was plotted with the help of the ggplot2 package in Rv4.0.5

(https://ggplot2.tidyverse.org/).

HOMER motif analysis

The findMotifsGenome.pl function within the HOMER v4.11 package [31] was used to identify

enriched motifs and their corresponding TFs with options size 200 –len 8, 10, 12 –mask –

preparse –dumpfasta, with default background regions.

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<u>AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION</u>

AB, GB and PMN conceived the study. AB and GB were involved in sample collection and

processing. AB and PMN carried out the investigation with AB conducting the formal data

analysis. Data visualization was performed by AB, GB, MHH and PMN. Supervision of the

research was carried out by MHH and PMN. The original draft was written by AB.

Manuscript was reviewed, edited and finalised by AB, GB, MHH and PMN.

<u>COMPETING INTERESTS</u>

Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Figure 1

A

Overlap of ZFHX3 binding with histone modifications

Category	Number of sites
Only H3K27ac	47552
Only H3K4me3	35673
Only ZFHX3	9512
H3K4me3 + ZFHX3	8992
H3K27ac + ZFHX3	3570
H3K27ac + H3K4me3	36819
H3K27ac + H3K4me3 + ZFHX3	21162

B H3K27ac+H3K4me3+ZFHX3

- Promoter (<=1kb) (70.69%)
- Promoter (1–2kb) (5.6%)
- Promoter (2–3kb) (2.26%)
- 5' UTR (0.23%)
- 3' UTR (0.53%)
- 1st Exon (0.01%)
- Other Exon (1.58%)
- 1st Intron (2.62%)
- Other Intron (4.52%)
- Downstream (<=300) (0.08%)
- Distal Intergenic (11.88%)

chr1:91,405,146-91,470,160 20 kb mm10

Per2
H3K4me3
H3K27ac
ZT3 ZFHX3
ZT15 ZFHX3

C H3K27ac+ZFHX3

- Promoter (<=1kb) (7.2%)
- Promoter (1–2kb) (3.73%)
- Promoter (2–3kb) (2.49%)
- 5' UTR (0.14%)
- 3' UTR (2.02%)
- Other Exon (3.73%)
- 1st Intron (10.7%)
- Other Intron (32.84%)
- Downstream (<=300) (0.22%)
- Distal Intergenic (36.93%)

chr12:109,385,255-109,398,349 5 kb mm10

H3K4me3
H3K27ac
ZT3 ZFHX3
ZT15 ZFHX3

D H3K4me3+ZFHX3

- Promoter (<=1kb) (59.84%)
- Promoter (1–2kb) (9.21%)
- Promoter (2–3kb) (3.49%)
- 5' UTR (0.13%)
- 3' UTR (1.03%)
- 1st Exon (0.03%)
- Other Exon (3.06%)
- 1st Intron (2.16%)
- Other Intron (4.05%)
- Downstream (<=300) (0.12%)
- Distal Intergenic (16.87%)

chr3:103,560,990-103,622,359 20 kb mm10

Syt16
H3K4me3
H3K27ac
ZT3 ZFHX3
ZT15 ZFHX3

E ZFHX3 ONLY

- Promoter (<=1kb) (13.37%)
- Promoter (1–2kb) (7.19%)
- Promoter (2–3kb) (5.17%)
- 5' UTR (0.2%)
- 3' UTR (2.63%)
- 1st Exon (0.03%)
- Other Exon (6.34%)
- 1st Intron (6.18%)
- Other Intron (19.52%)
- Downstream (<=300) (0.32%)
- Distal Intergenic (39.04%)

chr2:103,547,126-103,547,732

200 bases mm10

H3K4me3
H3K27ac
ZT3 ZFHX3
ZT15 ZFHX3

Figure 1. Genomic occupancy of ZFHX3 in the SCN. (A) left- Venn-diagram illustrating overlap of ZFHX3 peaks with histone marks, H3K4me3 and H3K27ac, right- table showing number of sites co-occupied by ZFHX3 and histone marks. (B,C,D and E) left- Genomic feature distribution of ZFHX3 peaks with histone marks (ChIPSeeker), right- UCSC genome browser tracks showing histone modifications H3K4me3(pink), H3K27ac (blue) and ZFHX3 (ZT3 = dark grey and ZT15 = light grey) normalized ChIP-seq read coverage at representative examples for each category. The chromosome location and scale (mm10 genome) indicated at the top.

Figure 2

Figure 2. Effect of ZFHX3-KO on SCN transcriptome. (A) Mean-difference plot (MD-plot) showing downregulated (red) and upregulated (blue) gene expression after the loss of ZFHX3. (B) Heatmap showing normalized expression of top 25 (by adj pvalue) differential genes for the compared groups. (C) Stripcharts of differentially expressed genes (*Dpy19l13, Grp, Vip*). (D) Functional annotation of downregulated (red) and upregulated (blue) genes after ZFHX3-KO using the GO::BP (biological processes) terms by DAVID.

Figure 3

Figure 3. Effect of ZFHX3-KO on rhythmic gene expression . (A) Left- Heatmap showing loss of rhythmic gene expression after *Zfhx3-KO* (module 2) as computed by dryR statistical framework , Right- Illustrative examples of daily abundance of module 2 genes, *Bmal1 and Avp,* in cre-neg and post-tam conditions. (B) Left- Heatmap showing no effect on rhythmic gene expression after *Zfhx3-KO* (module 4) , Right- Illustrative examples of module 4 genes, *Cry1 and Cry2,* in cre-neg and post-tam conditions.