Brain and cancer associated binding domain mutations provide insight into CTCF's relationship with chromatin and its contribution to gene regulation

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Abstract 150 words.

Here we used a series of CTCF mutations to explore CTCF's relationship with chromatin and its contribution to gene regulation. CTCF's impact depends on the genomic context of bound sites and the unique binding properties of WT and mutant CTCF proteins. Specifically, CTCF's signal strength is linked to changes in accessibility, and the ability to block cohesin is linked to its binding stability. Multivariate modelling reveals that both CTCF and accessibility contribute independently to cohesin binding and insulation, however CTCF signal strength has a stronger effect. CTCF and chromatin have a bidirectional relationship such that at CTCF sites, accessibility is reduced in a cohesin-dependent, mutant specific fashion. In addition, each mutant alters TF binding and accessibility in an indirect manner, changes which impart the most influence on rewiring transcriptional networks and the cell's ability to be reprogrammed. Collectively, the mutant perturbations provide a rich resource for determining CTCF's site-specific effects.

Introduction

The CCCTC-binding factor (CTCF) is an eleven zinc finger DNA-binding protein that plays a key role in chromatin organization and gene regulation. Key insight into the mechanisms underlying CTCF's function were revealed by molecular studies showing that cohesin binding overlaps CTCF sites on chromatin in a CTCF dependent manner [1,2]. A more coherent picture of the co-operative function of these two factors emerged from subsequent analyses showing that acute depletion of CTCF in cell lines leads to loss of highly self-interacting topologically associated domain (TAD) structures and redistribution of cohesin on chromatin [3]. It is now well established that CTCF and cohesin play a key role in organizing chromatin into TAD structures by promoting the formation of loops and boundaries that are important for gene regulation. This involves a loop-extrusion mechanism in which cohesin complexes create chromatin loops by actively extruding DNA until movement of the complex is blocked by two CTCF binding sites in convergent orientation [5,6]. The requirement for orientation specific CTCF binding can be explained by the underlying structure of the interaction between the two proteins, which occurs between the SA2-SCC1 component of cohesin and the N terminal region of CTCF [7-10]. CTCF, in conjunction with cohesin, is enriched at TAD boundaries that function as insulators, contributing to gene regulation by restricting the interaction of regulatory elements to promoters of target genes located within the same TAD[11,12].

While the above studies provide critical insight into CTCF's global contribution to chromatin folding and gene regulation, the role of CTCF in regulating individual loci in a context specific manner is unclear. Since CTCF's binding profiles are known to be cell type-specific, chromatin accessibility is presumed to be important for CTCF attachment. However, the mechanisms underlying CTCF's ability to bind and act as a chromatin organizer are incompletely elucidated. CTCF has been degraded by auxin in numerous cell types, and although these studies provide important insight into its role in gene regulation, these models are insufficient for (i) analyzing the contribution of genomic context to site-specific CTCF binding and function, or (ii) distinguishing direct from indirect effects that can be a confounding issue for interpreting site specific impact. Instead, information related to CTCF's direct effects on individual loci has come from the genetic ablation of CTCF binding sites at specific regions in the genome in a given cell type. Indeed, disruption of TAD boundaries by deletion of one or more proximal binding sites can alter gene regulation because of aberrant enhancer promoter contacts, and this can have dramatic consequences on developmental processes and cancer initiation [13-18]. However, deletion of CTCF boundary elements can be contextual, impacting gene expression in certain cell types but not in others. Furthermore, interrogating the general mechanisms underlying the crosstalk between CTCF

function and the cell- and locus-specific context of its binding by genetic manipulation of individual

CTCF binding sites is laborious and has the limitation of providing insight into the control of only

a limited number of loci in the neighboring region.

The *CTCF* locus, located on chromosome 16q band 22, corresponds to one of the smallest

regions of overlap for common deletions in breast and prostate cancers [18,19]. Moreover, point

mutations and deletions have been identified in many other tumors. Together these findings

indicate that CTCF acts as a tumor suppressor [20]. Consistent with this, deletion of one *Ctcf* allele

predisposes mice to spontaneous B-cell lymphomas as well as radiation- and chemically-induced

cancer in a broad range of tissues [21]. Additionally, genetic alterations in *Ctcf* and changes in

dosage are associated to varying degrees with intellectual disability and microcephaly, and thus

CTCF is thought to play an important role in brain development and neurological disorders [22-24].

CTCF binds to chromatin through a subset of its eleven zinc fingers (ZFs) [25,26]. Specifically, ZFs3-

7 make sequence specific contacts with a 12-15 base-pair (bp) core consensus binding site. ZF1

and ZF10, contain RNA binding domains (RBDs) that contribute to binding of CTCF and CTCF-

mediated looping at a subset of sites through an unknown mechanism [27]. While the crystal

structure of CTCF in complex with a known DNA binding site has revealed new insights into the

contribution of each ZF to sequence-specific binding in an *in vitro* setting, there has been no

complementary, comprehensive analysis of cancer associated CTCF mutants and it is thus not

known how mutations within each ZF impact binding stability and DNA sequence specificity, and

the consequences this has on binding profile, cohesin overlap, accessibility, chromosome

architecture and gene regulation. Given this lack of information, we have no context in which to

determine the functional relevance of mutations.

Using an inducible mouse ESC complementation system, we combined genetic, imaging,

molecular and bioinformatic analyses to examine the impact of nine, high frequency cancer

associated CTCF mutations in eight amino acid residues of ZFs that contact the core consensus

binding motif. A subset of these is also associated with neurological disorders. Collectively, the

nine mutations have a graded impact and can act as CTCF perturbations, providing an elegant

system with which to investigate, (i) the relationship between WT and mutant CTCF and

chromatin, and (ii) direct or indirect site-specific mutant effects on accessibility, TF binding,

cohesin overlap, chromatin interactivity and gene expression. Compared to a complete knockout

of CTCF or deletion of a CTCF binding site, the mutants offer a more subtle and in-depth approach

for teasing out the contribution of CTCF to chromatin organization and gene regulation, since
each mutation produces its own unique effect.

Here we demonstrate that the functional impact of WT and mutant CTCF depends both on the
genomic context of bound sites and the unique binding properties of each WT and mutant CTCF
protein. Analyses of the relationship between CTCF, cohesin and accessibility revealed that
although CTCF can bind both accessible and inaccessible sites, inaccessible bound sites
predominantly have weaker signals and are less competent at blocking cohesin. Multivariate
modelling reveals that both CTCF and accessibility contribute independently to cohesin binding,
however CTCF signal strength has a stronger effect, linked to a stronger insulation score. Indeed,
CTCFs ability to block cohesin is linked to the residence time or 'OFF' rate of each mutant on
chromatin as determined by FRAP experiments, while occupancy or 'ON' rate is correlated with
their binding at common accessible sites, indicating that accessibility dominates the search space.
Together, the mutants highlight the fact that occupancy and residence time can be uncoupled
such that although some mutants have fewer binding sites than WT CTCF, they have a stronger
residence time at these locations which increases their ability to block cohesin and contribute to
chromatin folding. The reverse situation also occurs such that mutants which occupy more sites
than WT, do so in an unstable manner with low residence times that impair their ability to engage
cohesin and form loops. Our analyses also highlight that in contrast to CTCF-bound sites, cohesin
binding at CTCF-free sites is weak and does not track with accessibility. This is also true at highly
accessible CTCF-free sites, such as enhancers and promoters which are involved in dynamic
looping events, and where cohesin signals are smaller than those found at inaccessible CTCF-
bound sites, perhaps because TFs that block cohesin have considerably shorter residence times
compared to CTCF (lasting seconds compared to minutes).

Interestingly, although accessibility can impact CTCF binding, CTCF can in turn reduce
accessibility in a cohesin-dependent manner, suggesting a role for loop extrusion in this process.
The mutations enable us to determine that CTCF binding drives the reduction in accessibility,
rather than the other way around, because each mutant has a distinct impact. Overall, reduced
accessibility at loop bases correlates with the fraction bound, consistent with CTCF functioning in
a dose-dependent manner. The unique properties of WT and mutant CTCF also perturb TF
binding and cancer, brain, immune and metabolic gene expression pathways. Mutants have a
more pronounced effect on transcriptional networks than auxin inducible degradation, because of
indirect effects that can be explained by altered TF binding profiles. Changes in each mutant's

transcriptional program in turn have an impact on the cell's ability to exit from pluripotency and

undergo reprogramming. Thus, while we do not investigate the pathogenesis of human disorders,

our investigations offer insight into cancer and brain-related effects. Collectively, the mutants offer

a rich resource to investigate site specific CTCF-mediated effects on chromatin folding and gene

regulation, while distinguishing cause from consequence and direct from indirect outcomes.

RESULTS

CTCF complementation system

To explore CTCF's relationship with chromatin and its contribution to gene regulation, we made

use of a small-molecule auxin inducible degron (AID) mouse ESC (mESC) system [3,8]. In these

cells, both endogenous CTCF alleles are tagged with AID as well as eGFP (CTCF-AID-eGFP)

and the auxin-activated ubiquitin ligase TIR1 (from *Oryza sativa*) is constitutively expressed from

the *Rosa26* locus (**Fig. 1A**)*. Addition of indole acetic acid (IAA, an analogue of auxin) leads to

rapid poly-ubiquitination and proteasomal degradation of the proteins tagged with the AID domain.

To study the impact of CTCF mutations, we established a rescue system wherein the mESC

degron cell line was modified to express either a stable doxycycline-inducible control wild-type

Ctcf or a mutant *Ctcf* (*mCtcf*) transgene in the absence of endogenous CTCF[9]. Transgenes,

knocked into the *Tigre* locus, have a 3 x FLAG tag, which allows us to distinguish mutant or wild-

type transgenic CTCF from endogenous CTCF using a FLAG antibody in Western blot and ChIP-

seq analysis. An mRuby fluorescent tag enables us to accurately determine expression levels of

mutant or wild-type transgenic CTCF by flow cytometry (**Fig. 1A**). The three conditions used for

our analysis are shown in **Fig. 1B**, and an example of the FACS profile for cells expressing a WT

CTCF transgene in each condition is shown in **Fig. 1C**. This system was previously used by us

to study the interplay between CTCF and CTCFL, the paralog of CTCF [8].

We selected a subset of missense mutations that occur at high frequency in cancer patients

(**Extended Data Fig. 1A**), focusing on those found in ZFs that contact the 12-15bp consensus

CTCF binding motif (**Fig. 1D** and highlighted with an asterisk in **Extended Data Fig. 1B**). We

analyzed mutations in **(i)** amino acids that make base-specifying contacts with the alpha helix of

DNA (at locations -2, 2, 3 and 6 on the ZF), **(ii)** residues that coordinate the zinc ion which are

essential for providing stability to ensure the proper folding of the ZF domain, **(iii)** two other

classes of amino acid residues in the ZFs: boundary residues (that are important for interactions

between ZFs), and residues that contact the sugar phosphate backbone of DNA, and **(iv)** other

Figure 1

Fig. 1: CTCF **complementation system**. (**A**) Scheme of genetic modifications in the *Ctcf* locus and the doxycycline inducible knocked-in WT and mutant transgenic *Ctcf* at the *Tigre* locus. The endogenous *Ctcf* contains the auxin inducible degron (AID) and the eGFP tag on both alleles. All transgenes harbor an N terminal 3 X FLAG tag and *TetO-3G* element as well as a C terminal mRUBY2 and *rtTA3G* for doxycycline induced expression. (**B**) Experimental strategy for expression of dox-inducible WT and mutant transgenic CTCF in the absence of endogenous CTCF using the auxin inducible degron system. Addition of indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) a chemical analog of auxin leads to transient and reversible degradation of endogenous CTCF, while addition of doxycycline (Dox) leads to induction of transgene expression. The three conditions used in our analysis are: U, untreated cells; I, IAA treated for CTCF depletion; ID, IAA plus Dox treated for depletion of endogenous CTCF and induction of WT or mutant transgenic CTCF expression. (**C**) Flow cytometry showing the level of GFP (endogenous CTCF) and mRuby (transgenic WT CTCF) under the different conditions shown in (**B**). (**D**) Left, scheme showing the locations of the different types of CTCF mutations within a ZF. Amino acids that make base-specifying contacts with the alpha helix of DNA (at locations -2, 2, 3 and 6 on the ZF) are shown in different shades of pink, residues that coordinate the zinc ion are shown in red, boundary residues are shown in purple, and residues that contact the sugar phosphate backbone of DNA are shown in blue. Right, schematic representation of CTCF showing the locations of each mutation under investigation. (**E**) Bar graph showing the expression levels (mean fluorescence intensity) of endogenous CTCF (GFP labelled) and transgenic WT or mutant CTCF (mRuby2 labelled) after treatment with IAA and Dox (ID). The presence of the IAA leads to degradation of GFP labelled endogenous CTCF. The error bars represent the standard deviation between the two replicates. (**F**) Western blot showing degradation of endogenous CTCF as detected with an antibody to CTCF, and the induction of transgenic CTCF as detected using an antibody to FLAG. The second replicate is shown in Extended Data Fig. 2.

highly mutated residues in the region. Each class of mutation is color-coded as shown in **Fig. 1D**

(left) **and Extended Data Fig. 1A, B** and the color code is maintained throughout the figures.

Mutations were identified from cBioPortal [28-30] and COSMIC [31]

(http://www.sanger.ac.uk/genetics/CGP/cosmic/)

In total, we analyzed mutations in eight amino acid residues and for R377, the most highly mutated

residue in cancer, we included two distinct mutations of R377, both of which (R377H and R377C)

are equally represented in patients (**Extended Data Fig. 1B**). Selected mutations (R339Q,

R342C, R448Q, R377H and R377C) have also been shown to be implicated in

neurodevelopmental disorders (**Extended Data Fig. 1B**) [4,24]. To analyze the impact of each CTCF

mutation, individual clones with comparable levels of transgene expression (mutant and WT) were

selected based on flow cytometry and Western blot analysis (**Fig. 1E, F and Extended Data Fig.**

2).

Retained binding sites are enriched in accessible regions with strong CTCF signals

To investigate the impact of each mutation on CTCF binding, we analyzed the profiles of mutant

versus WT CTCF at the molecular level by performing a FLAG ChIP-seq using cells expressing

transgenic WT and mutant CTCF in the absence of endogenous CTCF (ID). Briefly, we degraded

endogenous CTCF-mAID-GFP by IAA addition, induced WT or mutant transgene expression with

Dox for 48 hours, and then performed FLAG ChIP-seq. We identified three groups of binding sites

for each mutation: WT only (sites bound by WT CTCF that mutants can no longer bind), common

sites (sites that are bound by both WT and mutant proteins) and mutant only sites (*de novo* sites
that only mutant proteins bind)**.**

The location of each mutation and the complementary DNA triplet that the relevant ZF binds is
marked by a box in the consensus motif shown in **Fig. 2A** and **Extended Data Fig. 3A**. Below
that we highlight the motif identified by MEME [32] for the set of *de novo* sites that each mutant
binds**.** These motifs differ from that of the consensus sequence by either (i) a diminished
requirement for DNA bases that contact the zinc finger that is mutated (**Fig. 2A**), or (ii) an
alteration to the sequence of the consensus motif, which could be explained by the impact of
mutations on DNA-base interacting zinc finger residues crucial for DNA sequence recognition.
For example, K365 binds to the second guanine in the triplet GGC of the consensus motif and
the de novo motif found in K365T mutant is consistent with the loss of hydrogen bonds with the
central guanine due to the threonine substitution, as previously demonstrated by
crystallography[33]. Each mutant displays their own unique binding profiles including the two distinct
mutations of residue R377, which is located in the linker region between ZF3 and ZF4. R377C
binds to less common and more *de novo* sites compared to R377H and each mutant binds a motif
that is similar to the consensus motif but lacking bases associated with ZF3 (**Fig. 2A** and
Extended Data Fig. 3A).

The bar graphs show the percentage of the three groups of binding sites for each mutant, while
the heatmaps reveal the number of binding sites for each subset and highlight differences in
binding strength between WT and mutants at the three locations. CTCF signal strength is
strongest at common sites, however, it is of note that even at these retained sites, the strength of
CTCF binding is altered in a mutant specific manner, suggesting that a 'binding dosage effect'
could contribute to their functional impact. As expected, the H455R mutation in the zinc
coordinating residue of ZF7 loses the most binding sites and has a high percentage of WT only
sites.

To determine whether differences in peak intensity in the different groups could be explained by
differences in accessibility, we performed omniATAC [34] (**Fig. 2A and Extended Data Fig. 2A**).
Indeed, the profiles for the different binding groups indicate that CTCF binding strength is a
function of chromatin accessibility, with common sites that predominantly have the strongest
CTCF signal, being the most accessible. In sum, ChIP-seq analysis reveals that CTCF mutants
lose, retain and gain a subset of binding sites throughout the genome with mutant specific profiles.

Figure 2

Fig. 2: **CTCF mutations have unique chromatin binding profiles**. (**A**) Scheme showing the locations of the different CTCF mutations within the ZF. The consensus CTCF motif highlights the triplet to which each mutant zinc finger binds (top) as well as the motif identified by MEME for the *de novo* mutant only binding sites (bottom). Each graph shows the percentage of WT and mutant CTCF binding at WT only, common and mutant only sites and heatmaps show the profile of CTCF binding and ATAC-seq signal for WT only, common and mutant only sites. The remaining mutants are shown in **Extended Data Fig. 3A.** (**B**) Profiles of ATAC-seq in WT and mutant CTCF expressing cells are shown for sites, with (color-coded for each mutant) or without (green) CTCF binding in the presence or absence of Smc3. The remaining mutants are shown in **Extended Data Fig. 3B.**

Loss and gain of CTCF binding occurs predominantly at weak inaccessible CTCF sites, while

binding is retained at the stronger common binding sites which have high accessibility, although

binding strength and accessibility can vary depending on the mutant.

CTCF reduces ATAC-seq signal in a cohesin-dependent manner

To further investigate the link between accessibility and CTCF binding, we compared the ATAC-

seq signal at CTCF-bound versus unbound sites in the presence or absence of Smc3, a subunit

of the cohesin complex (**Fig. 2B** and **Extended Data Fig. 3B**). Surprisingly, accessibility was

reduced in an Smc3-dependent manner at CTCF-bound sites. This was observed for both WT

and mutant proteins. Each CTCF mutant exhibited a differential ability to decrease the height and

breadth of ATAC-seq peaks, suggesting that CTCF is driving the change in accessibility and that

the relationship between CTCF and accessibility is bidirectional. We do not observe the same

phenomenon at sites without Smc3, which lends support to the idea that loop formation decreases

accessibility, suggesting that unique chromatin structures form at loop bases. The same

phenomenon is observed at enhancer and promoter sites, although the effect is weaker,

particularly at promoters (**Extended Data Fig. 3C**). The weakened effect may be due to

interference of TF binding at these sites and a competition between CTCF and TF-mediated loop

extrusion. These results highlight the usefulness of the mutants in distinguishing cause from

effect: without the mutants it would not be possible to conclude that binding of CTCF involved in

loop extrusion drives changes in accessibility.

Mutations reduce the chromatin residence time and bound fraction of CTCF

To elucidate the impact of the mutations on CTCF's binding dynamics, we performed fluorescence

recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) on the 9 mutants and WT CTCF [35,36], using the same auxin

and Dox conditions as described for the ChIP-seq and ATAC-seq experiments. We performed

FRAP by bleaching a circular 1 μm diameter circle, and monitored recovery for over 10 minutes,

recording 30 movies per condition over three replicates. While the recovery of WT CTCF largely

matched   prior   CTCF   FRAP   results   [35],   all   mutants   exhibited   faster   recovery

Fig. 3: **Each mutation uniquely impacts CTCF's chromatin bound fraction, residence time and interaction with DNA.** (**A**) Plots of FRAP dynamics for WT and mutant mRuby-CTCF overlaid with a two-state binding model. The scatterplots show the average recovery across all movies analyzed, and the outlines give 95% CI. The bold line shows the fitted model. (**B**) Violin plots of specific bound fraction distributions. (**C**) Violin plots of specific residence time (min) distributions. Specific bound fraction and specific residence time distributions were determined by bootstrapping (n=2500). (**D**) Heatmaps show the proportion and number of CTCF-cohesin versus CTCF only binding sites. All CTCF peaks correspond to the peaks found in mutant or WT CTCF expressing cells. (**E**) From left to right, correlation (R^2=0.8) between residence time and the percentage of CTCF-cohesin overlap for each mutant, correlation (R^2=0.6) between the chromatin bound mutant versus WT fraction detected by FRAP and the fraction of mutant binding at common CTCF sites relative to all FLAG ChIP-seq and ATAC-seq peaks, correlation (R^2=0.7) between the chromatin bound mutant versus WT fraction detected by FRAP and the effect of CTCF binding on ATAC-seq signal at Smc3 overlapping sites (shown in Figure 2**B**).

consistent with reduced and/or less stable DNA-binding (**Fig. 3A**). To quantitatively extract dynamic parameters, we fit the FRAP curves to a reaction-dominant kinetic model [35,36] and

estimated the residence time (duration of CTCF binding to DNA) and bound fraction (proportion
of total CTCF bound to DNA) of each mutant with subsequent comparison to the WT (**Fig. 3B,**
C). As shown in **Fig. 3B, C** there is a general reduction in the residence time and/or bound fraction
across each mutant, with WT CTCF exhibiting the largest specific bound fraction and residence
time and the mutants showing a lower or similar residence time. Each mutant displayed unique
parameters, regardless of the mutant category. The R377H and R377C mutants – both mutations
in the phosphate contacts – have similar bound fractions, but distinct residence times. The
mutations in the amino acids making direct contact with DNA (R339Q of ZF3, K365T of ZF4,
Q418R of ZF6, and R448Q of ZF7) have varied residence times and bound fractions, despite
belonging to the same group. The R448Q mutant of ZF7 showed the second lowest bound
fraction, despite exhibiting a residence time comparable to WT. The Q418R mutant of ZF6 had
the lowest residence time of all mutants examined with an intermediate bound fraction.
Conversely, the K365T mutant of ZF4 exhibited a bound fraction and residence time most closely
comparable to WT. The H455R mutation of ZF7, which assists in coordinating the zinc, had the
lowest bound fraction and the second lowest residence time of all examined mutants, accurately
reflecting the most deleterious mutation to canonical CTCF function. The R342C mutation of ZF3,
which occurs in a boundary residue between the two zinc-ligand histidine residues of ZF3, showed
a residence time similar to that of wild type, but had a lower bound fraction, possibly suggesting
a role for boundary residues in binding efficiency. Lastly, the S354F mutant of ZF4, located
between the two zinc-ligand cysteine residues of ZF4, which substitutes a bulky phenylalanine in
place of a serine in ZF4, showed both a moderate decrease in bound fraction as well as residence
time.
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In summary, our FRAP results demonstrate that all mutants show changes in DNA binding either
through an altered residence time or bound fraction. Surprisingly, some mutations strongly affect
either the residence time or the bound fraction, with minimal effects on the other. This suggests
that the CTCF target search mechanism (ON-rate) can be decoupled from binding stability (OFF
rate) [37], such that some mutants affect the efficiency of CTCF search for binding sites, without
affecting the residence time of CTCF once bound.
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CTCF mutations have a graded impact on binding and function
To further understand the relationship between FRAP and ChIP-seq data, we asked whether the
residence time detected by FRAP is linked to CTCF's binding stability and ability to block cohesin.

As shown in the heatmaps (**Fig. 3D**), the proportion of global CTCF-cohesin versus CTCF only
binding sites is graded across mutants, to some extent mirroring a gene dosage effect that could
occur as a consequence of altered residence time (**Fig. 3E**). Indeed, analysis of Smc3 ChIP-seq
revealed that the residence time was strongly associated (R^2=0.8, p=0.002) with the percentage
of CTCF-cohesin overlap for each mutant (**Fig. 3D**) which reflects the impact of binding stability
on CTCF's function in loop extrusion.

Fig. 4. Effect of CTCF binding and accessibility on Smc3 overlap. (A) Bar graph showing the independent effect of CTCF (top) and ATAC-seq (bottom) signal strength on Smc3 enrichment, estimated using a multivariate logistic model on data from WT cells. CTCF is associated with an enrichment in Smc3 in a dose dependent manner, while only strong accessible sites are associated with a significant enrichment (bottom). The enrichment in Smc3 is estimated using the log2 odd ratios. The error bars correspond to the 95% confidence interval. NS, Not significant. (**B**) Percentage of Smc3 overlap in WT and CTCF mutants, stratified by ATAC-seq and CTCF signal strengths. **(C)** Profiles of Smc3 binding in WT and mutant CTCF expressing cells is shown for accessible (top) and inaccessible (bottom) sites with (color-coded for each mutant) or without (green) CTCF binding. The remaining mutants are shown in **Extended Data Fig. 4A**.

We next compared the specific bound fraction estimated by FRAP, to the bound fraction using

FLAG ChIP-seq and ATAC-seq peaks to define all potential binding sites. While we did not find a

good correlation when assessing the overall CTCF ChIP-seq bound fraction, we found a strong

and significant correlation (R^2=0.6, p=0.008) between the chromatin bound fraction of the mutants

detected by FRAP and the fraction of mutant binding at common CTCF sites (**Fig. 3E**). These

data suggest that the FRAP bound fraction mostly captures the effect of the mutations on the

strong, accessible binding sites. Furthermore, when we analyzed the overall ability of CTCF/

cohesin overlapping sites to reduce accessibility, we found a strong correlation with the fraction

bound (R^2=0.7, p=0.003), consistent with CTCF functioning in this context in a dosage dependent

manner (**Fig. 3E**).

The relationship between cohesin and accessibility at CTCF-bound and CTCF-free sites

The ChIP-seq and FRAP data demonstrate that accessibility contributes to CTCF binding, and

that CTCF binding stability/residence time is linked to cohesin overlap. To separate out the

contribution of CTCF and ATAC strength on Smc3 signals, we performed multivariate modelling

to determine (i) the effect of CTCF strength on Smc3 overlap, adjusted for the effect of ATAC

signal, and (ii) the effect of ATAC strength on Smc3 overlap, adjusted for the effect of CTCF

signal. **Figure 4A** (top) shows that Smc3 enrichment independent of ATAC-seq signal, is strongly

associated with CTCF signal strength in a dose-dependent manner. Only strong accessibility

significantly influences Smc3 binding independent of CTCF, however, accessibility has much less

contribution compared to CTCF binding stability **(Figure 4A**, bottom). Thus, CTCF signal strength

plays a dominant role in determining the probability of CTCF/cohesin overlap, consistent with the

FRAP and ChIP-data (**Figure 3E**).

The heatmap in **Figure 4B** and **Table S1**, further shows that, in contrast to CTCF-bound sites,

the percentage of Smc3 overlap at CTCF-free sites is increased with increasing accessibility,

however signal strength at highly accessible sites is much lower than sites overlapping even weak

CTCF-bound sites. The same effect is observed for the mutants, but in some cases Smc3 overlap

at CTCF-bound sites is weaker than WT CTCF, in line with their reduced residence times.

Figure 5

Fig. 5: **CTCF mutations alter gene expression, cellular reprogramming and TF binding.** (**A**) Heatmap showing unsupervised clustering of standardized and normalized expression levels of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in cells that have endogenous CTCF degraded in the absence or presence of WT or mutant CTCF transgenes. Genes are considered differentially expressed in comparison to cells expressing the WT CTCF transgene in the absence of endogenous CTCF. (**B**) Gene set enrichment analysis of DEGs. Examples shown are cells with endogenous CTCF degraded in the absence (IAA), and presence of the mutant CTCF transgene, H455R. All other mutants are shown in **Extended Data Fig. 5A**. For each condition, bar graphs show significantly enriched KEGG pathways. The volcano plots below highlight the DEGs belonging to these enriched pathways with genes outside of these pathways shown in black. Brain related pathways are shown in purple, cancer in pink, immune in green and metabolism in mustard. (**C**) Radar plots showing the average expression of developmental germ layer genes in WT and mESCs cultured in pluripotency (LIF) and exit from pluripotency (no LIF) conditions. (**D**) Heatmap showing differentially bound TFs (predicted from footprinting analysis of ATAC-seq data using the TOBIAS pipeline) in cells which have endogenous CTCF degraded in the absence (IAA) or presence of WT or mutant CTCF transgenes (ID condition). For this analysis replicates were merged and compared with cells expressing the WT CTCF transgene in the absence of endogenous CTCF. (**E**) Volcano plots show examples of two differentially bound TFS (CTCF, MBD2) overlapping the promoters of DEGs in CTCF degraded (IAA) and CTCF mutant expressing cells (ID). The remaining mutant comparisons are shown in **Extended Data Fig. 5B**. The enrichment of the TF target genes among the up- and down-regulated genes are reported on top on the volcanos (Odds Ratios (ORs), and p-values). (**F**) Examples of altered CTCF binding at the promoter of differentially expressed *Rerg* and predicted differentially bound MYC at the promoter of differentially expressed *Brdt*.

Overall Smc3 profiles at CTCF-bound sites confirmed that CTCF is most effective at blocking

cohesin at accessible sites enriched with strong CTCF signals, and they further highlight that each

mutant CTCF performs this function with variable ability, depending on their residence time (**Fig.**

3E, 4C and Extended Data Fig. 4A). A comparison of Smc3 profiles at CTCF bound versus

unbound sites, demonstrates that other factors such as TFs, contribute very little compared to

CTCF, regardless of accessibility and likely because residence times of TFs on chromatin are

much shorter than CTCF's [38]. Indeed, at CTCF-free sites, the Smc3 profiles are similar at

accessible and inaccessible sites, suggesting that accessibility has little contribution to cohesin

binding in the absence of CTCF. A similar trend was observed at enhancers and promoters where

accessibility is higher and TFs are known to be enriched (**Extended Data Fig. 4B**). These data

suggest that for a given cell type, the subset of strong and accessible CTCF binding sites are

predominantly involved in loop extrusion. However, inaccessible CTCF binding sites might still

have a role in loop formation. In support of this, a subset of inaccessible sites (16% in the WT)

have strong CTCF signals. Furthermore, similar to the dynamic TF-mediated loops previously

described between enhancers and promoters [39,40], weaker inaccessible CTCF binding sites could

also be involved in more transient, dynamic looping events with a reduced loop lifetime [41,42],

especially given that they exhibit an overall stronger Smc3 overlap than TFs.

Each CTCF mutation alters gene expression and TF binding in a unique manner.

To determine how CTCF mutations impact gene expression we performed RNA-seq and did an

unsupervised clustering analysis, comparing gene expression in cells in which endogenous CTCF

was degraded in the absence (IAA) or presence of the WT or mutant CTCF transgenes (ID).

Alterations in transcriptional output were determined by comparison with cells expressing WT

transgenic CTCF (ID) (**Fig. 5A**). Overall, 6474 genes had altered gene expression across all

mutants and including the IAA condition (**Table S2**). Of note is the difference in gene expression

changes between R377C and R377H, two distinct mutants of the same residue which give rise to

different sets of differentially expressed genes (DEGs).

Gene set enrichment analysis using the KEGG database [43] showed a strong enrichment in

functional pathways related to cancer, brain, immune and metabolic processes (color coded in

Fig. 5B, with genes outside these pathways represented in black**)** among DEGs across mutants.

This finding is compatible with the human diseases associated with CTCF mutations. The top

differentially expressed genes of those pathways are shown in volcano plots below with the same

color-code. Examples in **Fig. 5B** show changes in pathway and gene expression in the absence

of CTCF (IAA condition) and in cells expressing the mutant CTCF transgenes, H455R of ZF7,

S354F of ZF4, R448Q of ZF7 and R339Q of ZF3 (ID condition). All other mutants are shown in

Extended Data Fig. 5A.

The data in **Figures 5A, B** demonstrate that each mutant displays a distinct profile of gene

expression changes linked to alterations in a unique set of functional pathways. Interestingly, cells

in which endogenous CTCF is degraded (IAA condition) show fewer gene expression changes

compared to mutant expressing cells, except for the R377C mutation (**Extended Data Fig. 5A**).

Some of the mutants have alterations in many pathways (R399Q of ZF3), while others highlight

changes in only a few (Q418R of ZF6 and R377C of ZF4) as shown in **Fig. 5B and Extended**

Data Fig. 5A, suggesting that for those mutants, the alteration in gene expression may not

accumulate in specific pathways.

Mutant specific alterations in transcriptional networks impact reprogramming

The findings from **Figure 5A, B** indicate that each mutant has a distinct transcriptional network,

that could potentially affect exit from pluripotency and the ability to be reprogrammed, To

investigate, we compared expression profiles of WT and a selection of mutant CTCF expressing

cells before and after 72 hours of LIF withdrawal [44]. RNA-seq revealed that each mutant

demonstrated a distinct differentiation trajectory compared to WT cells, which are most skewed

towards a neuroectodermal fate (**Figure 5C** and **Table S3**). These data highlight the significance

of CTCF mutant expression changes in the context of cellular reprogramming and development,

findings that provide insight into their disease associated effects, especially in the context of
neurodevelopmental disorders.

Transcriptional changes correspond to predicted alterations in TF binding at promoters

To investigate whether mutant specific transcriptional changes could be explained by altered TF

binding, we performed a footprinting analysis of ATAC-seq data using the TOBIAS pipeline [45] in

cells which have endogenous CTCF degraded in the absence (IAA) or presence of WT or mutant

transgenes (ID). For this analysis replicates were merged and comparisons made with WT ID

cells. Overall, 195 TFs had predicted differential binding across all mutants and including the IAA

condition. As a proof of principle, we detected predicted differential binding for CTCF, which we

know from our analyses has altered binding in the mutants. Consistent with the RNA-seq

analyses, we found that the two R377 mutants give rise to distinct profiles of predicted differential

CTCF binding. Numerous other predicted differentially bound TFs (n = 194) were identified as

shown in **Fig. 5D** and **Table S4**.

We overlapped predicted differentially bound TFs with a region of 2kb around the promoters of

DEGs in cells expressing different CTCF mutants, to analyze the impact of predicted differential

binding of TFs on gene expression (**Fig. 5E**). Although TF binding at gene promoters regulates

gene expression, TFs can also bind distal and proximal enhancers to exert transcriptional control.

However, since we cannot connect enhancers to their target genes with any certainty, these

regulatory elements are excluded from our analysis and we focus only on DEGs with predicted

differentially bound TFs at their promoters, where we observed a strong enrichment among the

DEGs. It is of note, that the majority of the predicted changes in TF binding at the promoters of

DEGs do not overlap CTCF ChIP-seq peaks or predicted differential CTCF binding as shown

further below in the direct versus indirect effect analyses. This data suggests that many of the

transcriptional changes associated with CTCF mutations could be explained by indirect effects

resulting from the disruption of specific TF pathways.

Fig. 5E and Extended Data Fig. 5B highlight the impact of two of the top predicted differentially

bound TFs (CTCF and MBD2) at promoters of DEGs in different mutants. These are shown in

volcano plots for cells in which endogenous CTCF is degraded (IAA) and in cells expressing

different CTCF mutations (ID). The identification of CTCF among the top differentially bound TFs

highlights the biological relevance of the footprinting approach. Interestingly, MBD2 is a methyl-

sensitive factor that belongs to the NurD chromatin remodeling complex, that has been implicated

Figure 6

Fig. 6: CTCF mutations alter chromatin interactivity. (A) Aggregated analyses. The top panels show the aggregated differential TAD analysis (ATA) for WT and each CTCF mutant. The middle square represents the aggregated TAD flanked by the upstream and downstream TAD**. (a)** Reflects the intra-TAD interaction, while **(b)** and **(c)** highlight the inter-TAD interactions**.** The lower panels show the aggregated differential peak analysis (APA). For the ATA, we performed a pairwise comparison using the union of the boundaries detected in WT and the corresponding mutant. For the APA, we performed a pairwise comparison using the union of loops found in WT and the corresponding mutant. The gain of interactions is color-coded in red and the loss of interactions in blue. These analyses were performed at 10 kb resolution. (**B**) Correlation between the normalized interaction count (at the aggregated loops as described in **Fig. 6A**) relative to WT estimated by Hi-C and the specific residence time detected by FRAP. These analyses were performed at 10 kb resolution. (**C**) Correlation between the insulation at score at CTCF peaks and the specific residence time detected by FRAP. (**D**) Correlation between the loop extrusion length estimated by the P'max values derived from Hi-C and the specific bound fraction detected by FRAP. These analyses were performed at 10 kb resolution. (**E**) Example of differential interactions between CTCF mutant and WT. The left matrix shows the interaction in WT within a 10 Mb region at 40 kb resolution. The graphs on the side of the matrix represent the insulation score. The differential matrices are shown for IAA, H455R, S354F and R448Q as examples. Gained interactions are color-coded in red and lost interactions in blue. (**F**) Profiles show the aggregated insulation score at WT only, common and mutant only binding sites for four mutants. The profiles for the remaining mutants are shown in **Extended Data Fig. 6A.** (**G**) Profiles show the aggregated insulation score at CTCF binding sites with weak, intermediate and strong CTCF signals for three mutants. The profiles for the remaining mutants are shown in **Extended Data Fig. 6B.** The bar graph on the right shows the independent effect across samples of CTCF strength (compared to weak signal) on insulation score. (**H**) Profiles show the aggregated insulation score at CTCF binding sites with no, weak, intermediate and strong ATAC signals for three mutants. The profiles for the remaining mutants are shown in **Extended Data Fig. 6C.** The bar graph on the right shows the independent effect across samples of ATAC strength (compared to inaccessible sites) on insulation score. The estimates for the bar graphs in (**G**) and (**H**) were obtained using a mixed multivariate model. The error bars correspond to the 95th confidence intervals.

in cancer and neurodevelopmental disorders. NurD is also required for the exit from pluripotency

of ESCs and their lineage commitment [46-49]. Consistent with our finding that each mutation alters

TF binding and gene expression in a unique manner, we show that for each CTCF mutant,

predicted differentially bound TFs target the promoters of a distinct set of up (red) and down (blue)

regulated genes. Both CTCF and MBD2 exhibit an overall activator profile with a positive

association between binding and expression (**Fig. 5E and Extended Data Fig. 5B**). However, for

some mutants, a weaker but significant negative association was also observed suggesting that

both factors can act as activators or repressors depending on the cell-specific genomic context,

consistent with previous reports[48,50].

Examples of (predicted and validated) altered CTCF binding at the promoter of differentially

expressed *Rerg* and predicted differentially bound MYC at the promoter of differentially expressed

Brdt, are shown in **Fig. 5F.** Loss of CTCF binding at the promoter of the *Rerg* gene leads to a

decrease in its expression, while expression of *Brdt* increases in line with increased predicted

binding of MYC at its promoter. The latter is an example of an indirect effect because there is no

CTCF bound at the promoter of this gene. In sum, combined analysis of RNA-seq and ATAC-seq

highlight the variable effects of each CTCF mutation, connecting gene expression changes with

195 predicted differentially bound TFs, to provide a deeper understanding of the factors that

underlie the unique transcriptomic profile of each CTCF mutation and their impact on

developmental processes, that are particularly relevant to brain disorders.

Chromatin interactivity and insulation are linked to mutant binding property

To determine how CTCF mutants impact chromatin interactions we performed Hi-C. We found that each mutant has a distinct interaction profile and exhibits (i) variable loss of intra TAD interactions and boundary strength as well as (ii) aggregated loop strength. The IAA condition, in which CTCF is degraded shows a loss of intra TAD interactions and a gain of inter TAD interactions as well as the most reduction in aggregated loop strength (**Fig. 6A**), while mutants display their own unique effects on TAD interactions and loop strength.

Consistent with our finding that cohesin overlap is correlated with CTCF mutant residence time as determined by FRAP analysis (**Fig. 3E**), we found that residence time is also associated with chromatin interactivity and insulation score (**Fig. 6B, C**).The correlation with the latter was modest and did not reach significance, probably because of the lower Hi-C resolution (10 kb) compared to ChIP-seq. Gassler et al., showed that the first derivative of the relative contact probability curve after log-log transformation (P'max) provides an estimate of the average loop size and cohesin density [51]. Here we show that the loop extrusion length (P'max) for each mutant is associated with the fraction that is bound to chromatin (**Fig. 6D**), and the longest loops are associated with mutants that have the lowest bound fraction indicating a lower density of CTCF-cohesin anchors in these mutants (**Fig. 3B**). The variability in the interaction profile of each mutant can be clearly seen across a 10Mb region of chromosome (**Fig. 6E**).

To further examine the impact of each mutant on chromatin organization, we analyzed the aggregated insulation score at WT only, common and mutant only binding sites using a 2Mb window centered on CTCF peak summits (**Fig. 6F and Extended Data Fig. 6A**). The insulation scores were generated from Hi-C data at a 10kb resolution. This analysis revealed that the strong, common accessible binding sites with the highest cohesin overlap, have the highest insulation (lowest insulation score) compared to WT only and mutant only sites. Whether insulation scores at WT only and mutant only sites are lower or higher than each other appears to depend on the residence time and cohesin overlap of each mutant, in line with what we observed in **Fig. 3C, E and 6C**. These studies further demonstrate that imaging and molecular analyses can be functionally integrated to provide new insight into mutant specific effects.

Since WT and mutant only sites are associated with weaker CTCF peaks and lower accessibility, we examined the insulation score at CTCF binding sites, stratified by CTCF and ATAC-seq

 strength. The profiles in **Fig. 6G** and **H** indicate that stronger CTCF signal is associated with

Fig. 7: Changes in gene expression are linked to changes in chromatin interactivity but to a lesser extent than changes in TF binding at gene promoters: (**A**) Bar graphs showing the enrichment in over-expressed (top) or under-expressed (bottom) genes among gained (top) or lost (bottom) loops with one anchor overlapping the promoter of the DEGs in IAA and CTCF mutants. (**B**) Example of 2 loci (blue and red rectangles) with a direct effect of gain in CTCF binding and chromatin interactivity. The left panel shows the Hi-C interaction matrices in WT, Q418R, K365T and R377C with both gain of intra- and inter-TAD interactions in the mutant compared to WT. The left panels show the zoom-in tracks of CTCF (blue) Smc3 (green), ATAC (red) and significant differential chromatin loops (purple) with one anchor overlapping the differential CTCF binding sites at both loci. Overexpressed genes are highlighted in red. Of note, only gained interactions were detected at these loci. This analysis was performed at 10 kb resolution. **C**) Bar graph showing the percentage of DEGs associated with differential TF binding, differential loops or both, stratified by direct and indirect effect. Direct effect was defined as differential TF binding with a predicted differential CTCF binding or ChIP-seq peak at the gene promoter and/or differential loop with a CTCF peak at either anchor.

stronger insulation, while accessibility has a more modest impact. To quantify their independent

effects, we performed a mixed multivariate model, the results of which are consistent with the

analysis of Smc3 overlap shown in **Fig. 4A**.

Changes in gene expression are linked to changes in chromatin interactivity

To determine if changes in gene expression are linked to altered chromatin folding, we analyzed

interactions involving the promoters of genes that were differentially expressed. We found that

the promoters of overexpressed genes were enriched in gain of chromatin loops (**Fig. 7A**). This

enrichment was not observed among the under-expressed genes, suggesting that under-

expression observed in mESC expressing mutant CTCF might be an indirect effect, independent

of CTCF's function in chromatin organization, while overexpression might reflect a direct CTCF-

mediated effect on loop extrusion as depicted in the examples showing the gain of interactions

from CTCF binding sites toward the promoters of overexpressed genes, including *Msh6*, *Epcam*,

Foxn2 and *Cox7a2l* (**Fig. 7B** and **Extended Data Fig. 7A)**. Interestingly, all these genes are

implicated in tumorigenesis. Indeed, MSH6 is a mismatch repair factor and its mutation is

associated with Lynch syndrome and cancer susceptibility [52]. Overexpression of MSH6 might also

exert an oncogenic function in glioblastoma by promoting cell proliferation [53]. *Epcam* encodes for

a membrane glycoprotein involved in epithelial cell adhesion and has been described as both an

oncogene and tumor suppressor depending on the microenvironment [54]. FOXN2 acts as a tumor

suppressor in multiple cancers, including breast, lung and liver [55-57]. Overexpression of COX7A2L

might promote hypoxia tolerance in breast and endometrial cancer [58].

Most of the change in expression are the result of indirect effects.

Our data showed that most CTCF mutations have more impact on gene expression than the IAA

condition. Indeed, CTCF degradation has been shown to induce limited gene expression changes

[3,8]. To ask whether this could be explained by indirect effects which depend on the cell-specific

transcriptomic context, we estimated the direct versus indirect effect of CTCF mutations on gene

expression. Since CTCF can act as a traditional transcription and chromatin regulator [50], we

defined indirect CTCF effects as (i) differentially expressed genes (DEGs) with a predicted

differentially bound TF at gene promoters not overlapping a CTCF ChIP-seq peak, or a

differentially bound CTCF site, and (ii) DEGs with differential looping without CTCF binding at any

loop anchors.

Figure 7C shows that the indirect effects account for approximately twice as many DEGs
compared to the direct effects, except for Q418R. This mutant shows a weak residence time but
a high number of peaks supporting the hypothesis that unstable peaks might be involved in
dynamic and functional looping. In addition, a higher percentage of DEGs can be explained by
changes in TF or CTCF binding at gene promoters, rather than by changes in chromatin
interactivity in all the mutants. For the IAA condition, the contribution of differential loops in
expression changes is higher. A similar result was observed when segregating up- and down--
regulated genes but with a higher proportion of direct versus indirect effects in the IAA condition
for down-regulated genes consistent with loss of loops upon CTCF degradation (**Extended data**
Fig. 7B). These findings suggest that although CTCF mutations induce changes in chromatin
looping, the primary mechanism driving alterations in gene expression is loop-independent and
is instead mediated by changes in transcription factor binding. This indicates that cell-specific
transcriptional programs may modulate the effects of CTCF mutations.

DISCUSSION
Using a combination of imaging, structural and molecular approaches we have examined the
impact of nine, high frequency cancer associated CTCF mutations in ZFs that make contact with
the core consensus binding motif. Collectively the graded mutant perturbations offer a platform
for investigating the molecular and epigenetic features that govern CTCF's choice of binding sites,
and the degree of stability with which CTCF binds at individual locations and is able to function
as a chromatin organizer. Since the mutants allow us to distinguish direct from indirect CTCF-
mediated effects and cause from consequence, they provide a deeper understanding of CTCF's
downstream impact on chromatin and gene expression.

Our studies reveal that the specificity of interaction between the ZFs in CTCFs binding domain
and its target DNA sequence is a key determinant of attachment. However, if the same sequence
is found in both accessible and inaccessible chromatin, CTCF will preferentially bind the
accessible sites as highlighted by the fact that mutants bind common accessible sites in
preference to less accessible WT only sites. Thus, sites in open chromatin dominate the search
space. This is underscored by the strong correlation between the fraction of chromatin bound
mutants detected by FRAP, and mutant binding at common, accessible CTCF sites. These
findings are consistent with studies from Dirk Schubeler's group showing that CTCF can bind both
accessible and inaccessible sites, but that the latter are less likely to be involved in insulation [59,60].
We also observed a good correlation between each mutant's residence time and CTCF-cohesin

overlap, suggesting a model in which binding stability is important for blocking cohesin movement
on chromatin. A similar, but more modest correlation was found between residence time and
chromatin interactivity as well as insulation score, linking binding stability with cohesin overlap as
well as loop and boundary formation.
560
By dissecting out the contribution of CTCF signal strength and accessibility to Smc3 overlap, we
were able to reveal the dominant effect of CTCF. Smc3 overlap at accessible and inaccessible
CTCF-bound sites is stronger than overlap at accessible, CTCF-free sites, including enhancers
and promoters, likely because TFs have a short residence time compared to CTCF [38]. Our data
demonstrate that strong accessible CTCF bound sites are associated with higher insulation,
consistent with higher Smc3 stalling and more stable loops. Previous studies showed that when
RAD21 (a component of the cohesin complex) levels are decreased upon degradation, CTCF-
mediated loop lifetime is reduced [41,42], suggesting that inaccessible CTCF-bound sites, where we
observed weaker cohesin signals, might participate in more transient looping events similar to the
CTCF-independent and Smc3-dependent dynamic loops described between distal enhancers
and promoters [39,40].
572
In principle, these features could have been uncovered by analyzing WT CTCF in the context of
cohesin overlap and accessibility. However, collectively the graded effects of the mutants act as
perturbations that lend support to our models, underscoring how different aspects of CTCFs
binding properties contribute. Moreover, they reveal that each mutant's search for binding sites
can be decoupled from its chromatin bound residence time, which reflects binding stability. For
example, the Q418R mutant binds an intermediate number of sites but at these sites it is has a
very low residence time and is less competent at blocking cohesin. In contrast, R448Q binds
fewer sites with a similar residence time compared to WT CTCF, and it is slightly better at blocking
cohesin than WT protein. Furthermore, H455R and R448Q, which have very different chromatin
residence times, have similarly low chromatin bound fractions, correlated to their P'-max. The
increased loop length of both mutants can be explained by the unobstructed passage of cohesin
past what would normally be a bound CTCF site. Uncoupling of residence time and fraction bound
was previously demonstrated for a mutant form of CTCF with ZF8 deleted [61].
586
The crosstalk between accessibility and CTCF binding goes in both directions, such that
accessibility affects binding and binding affects accessibility. Binding at accessible sites, narrows
and reduces the ATAC-seq peak. Evidence for this being a CTCF driven effect comes from

analysis of the CTCF mutants. Those with low fraction bound (H455R and Q418R) are unable to

function in this capacity, while the R342C mutant has a stronger effect compared to WT CTCF.

We speculate that these differences reflect decreased accessibility at the bases of CTCF-Smc3-

mediated loops, because in the absence of Smc3, when loops cannot form there is no reduction

in accessibility.

While loss or gain of CTCF binding at promoters can account for direct mutant specific effects on

accessibility and gene expression, we could only demonstrate a direct effect of gained CTCF

binding associated with gained loops involving the promoters of over-expressed genes. Under-

expression could, therefore, more often reflect indirect effects of CTCF binding alterations.

Indeed, all mutants have their own unique indirect impact in globally changing accessibility at sites

where CTCF is not bound. This effect links changes in TF footprinting with altered transcriptional

output, explaining most of the mutant specific effects that we observed. We also identified a

higher proportion of DEGs mediated by changes in TF or CTCF binding at the gene promoters

than by changes in chromatin looping, suggesting that the primary mechanism driving alterations

in gene expression might be loop independent. However, we cannot rule out that our estimation

of loop-dependent expression changes might be underestimated due to the lower resolution of

Hi-C data. Furthermore, the impact of each mutant on TF expression and altered TF binding at

the promoters of differentially expressed genes is less likely to give rise to detectable changes in

interactivity by Hi-C, consistent with our finding that Smc3 signals at CTCF-free sites are far

weaker than at CTCF-bound sites, and thus likely to be involved in weaker, more dynamic loops.

Aside from the R377C mutant, we observed fewer changes in gene expression in IAA treated

cells compared to cells expressing CTCF mutants, which could be explained by the predominant

contribution of indirect changes mediated by TF binding on the mutant-specific transcriptomic

profile. Although the mutants all uniquely affect gene expression pathways, we detected

enrichment in pathways affecting the brain, immune system, cancer and metabolism, which is

consistent with the clinical setting in which the mutations are found, namely cancer and brain

disorders. The added effect on immune and metabolic pathways provides insight into other

changes that could occur in CTCF mutant-mediated diseases. Furthermore, we showed that

CTCF mutations might also affect the trajectory of exit from pluripotency. Indeed, while upon LIF

withdrawal both WT and CTCF mutant cells tend to acquire a neuroectodermal expression profile,

we observed mutant-specific transcriptional signatures of other germ layers, suggesting a more

heterogenous differentiation trajectory, which could be confirmed in future works by scRNA-seq.

This finding provides a potential mechanism for CTCF mutation-associated neurodevelopmental

disorders. Indeed, while CTCF has been involved in neuro-progenitor maintenance and survival[62],

our analyses suggest that CTCF mutations might also alter brain development by affecting germ

layer commitment.

Taken together the binding domain mutants we have analyzed here, provide a new appreciation

of CTCF's bidirectional relationship with chromatin, its ability to bind and function in different

contexts as well as the potential impact of each mutation in clinical settings. Furthermore, our

analyses provide a better understanding of how any genetic or epigenetic disorder that alters the

landscape of chromatin can in turn impact CTCF binding and function.

EXTENDED DATA FIGURES AND SUPPLEMENTARY TABLE:

Supplementary Table 1: Number and percentage of Smc3 peaks overlapping a CTCF or ATAC-

seq peak, stratified by CTCF and ATAC signal strength.

Supplementary Table 2: Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) identified using DE-seq. DEGs

were defined as adjusted genes with p-value<0.05 and absolute log2 fold change $\geq$ log2(1.5)

compared to WT.

Supplementary Table 3: Expression of germ layer genes (TPM) in LIF and no LIF condition.

Supplementary Table 4: Differentially bound transcription factors predicted by footprinting

analyses.

Extended Data Fig. 1A. Prevalence of missense CTCF mutations on ZF3-ZF7 in human cancers.
Schematic representation of CTCF showing the location and frequency of each mutation under investigation.

Extended Data Figure 1B

Mutations reported in > than 2 samples	Zinc Finger	No. of samples	Associated cancers	Associated neurological disorder
Mutations in phosphate contacts (positions -5, 4th position of the linker between adjacent ZFs)				
R377C*	5	27	Breast, Colorectal, Endometrial, Haematopoietic And Lymphoid, Skin Cancer	ASD, CRD
R377H*	5	26	Breast, Colorectal, Endometrial, Esophagogastric, Haematopoietic And Lymphoid, Urinary Tract	ASD, CRD
R320C	3	6	Colorectal, Endometrial, Prostate Cancer	
R320H	3	3	Colorectal, Esophagogastric, Head And Neck Cancer	
K349E	4	2	Endometrial Cancer	
R377L	5	2	Breast, Esophagogastric Cancer	
Y358C	4	2	Colorectal, Endometrial Cancer	
Mutations in the amino acid that make direct contact with DNA (positions -1, +2, +3 and +6)				
R339W	3	20	Colorectal, Endometrial, Haematopoietic And Lymphoid, Renal Cancer	
R339Q*	3	12	Endometrial, Esophagogastric, Haematopoietic And Lymphoid Cancer	CRD,ASD,DD
Q418R*	6	5	Embryonal Tumor, Glioma, Hepatobiliary Cancer	
R448Q*	7	5	Endometrial, Haematopoietic And Lymphoid, Renal Cancer	CRD,ASD,DD
K365T*	4	4	Endometrial Cancer	
R368C	4	4	Colorectal, Esophagogastric, Haematopoietic And Lymphoid Cancer	DD,NDD,CRD,ASD
D451H	7	3	Skin, Urinary Tract Cancer	
D451V	7	3	Haematopoietic And Lymphoid Cancer	
R368H	4	3	Breast, Ovary, Prostate Cancer	CRD,ASD,DD
E362K	4	2	Haematopoietic And Lymphoid Cancer	
D390N	5	2	Haematopoietic And Lymphoid Cancer	CRD,ASD
Mutations in the amino acids in the other regions of the zinc finger				
S354F*	4	21	Breast, Endometrial, Esophagogastric, Head And Neck, Hepatobiliary, Skin, Urinary Tract Cancer	
P378L	5	10	Endometrial, Haematopoietic And Lymphoid Cancer	NDD, CRD, DD
S388N	5	6	Haematopoietic And Lymphoid, Hepatobiliary, Urinary Tract Cancer	
S402L	5	6	Breast Cancer	
P378A	5	5	Breast, Urinary Tract Cancer	
F351L	4	5	Breast, Urinary Tract Cancer	
G375V	4	5	Endometrial, Haematopoietic And Lymphoid Cancer	
A359T	4	4	Colorectal, Ovary, Prostate Cancer	
A387V	5	4	Breast, Endometrial Cancer	
R415W	6	4	Colorectal, Endometrial, Penile Cancer	
F416L	6	4	Endometrial, Glioma Cancer	
E376K	4	4	Breast, Haematopoietic And Lymphoid, Urinary Tract Cancer	
K352N	4	3	Endometrial Cancer	
D328N	3	3	Colorectal, Endometrial Cancer	
S461F	7	3	Skin Cancer	
E348K	3	3	Colorectal, Haematopoietic And Lymphoid Cancer	
F379I	5	2	Haematopoietic And Lymphoid Cancer	
P440S	7	2	Skin Cancer	
I411V	6	2	Urinary Tract Cancer	
H413Y	6	2	Colorectal Cancer	
D443G	7	2	Hepatobiliary Cancer	
F331Y	3	2	Haematopoietic And Lymphoid Cancer	
R341C	3	2	Colorectal, Skin Cancer	
R341H	3	2	Head And Neck Cancer	
Q428E	6	2	Haematopoietic And Lymphoid Cancer	
K344E	3	2	Breast, Haematopoietic And Lymphoid Cancer	
G375A	4	2	Haematopoietic And Lymphoid, Urinary Tract Cancer	
G375R	4	2	Head And Neck, Lung Cancer	
Mutations in boundary residues (position -2 and +9)				
R342C*	3	13	Breast, Endometrial, Esophagogastric, Haematopoietic And Lymphoid, Skin, Urinary Tract Cancer	NDD,CRD,DD
R371H	4	8	Colorectal, Endometrial, Haematopoietic And Lymphoid, Lung Cancer	
R342H	3	7	Endometrial, Haematopoietic And Lymphoid Cancer	CRD
R371C	4	4	Endometrial, Skin, Urinary Tract Cancer	
R457Q	7	4	Colorectal, Esophagogastric Cancer	
R389S	5	2	Breast, Skin Cancer	
Mutations in the amino acid that co-ordinate the zinc (position -10, -7, +7, +11 or +12 depending on ZF)				
C356R	4	3	Esophagogastric Cancer	
H373L	4	3	Endometrial Cancer	NDD,ASD
H455R*	7	2	Haematopoietic And Lymphoid Cancer	
C324Y	3	2	Haematopoietic And Lymphoid Cancer	
C356F	4	2	Haematopoietic And Lymphoid, Head And Neck Cancer	
H345P	3	2	Breast Cancer	
H345R	3	2	Colorectal, Prostate Cancer	

Extended Data Fig. 1B: Table of CTCF mutations. Table showing CTCF mutations identified from cBioPortal[27,29] and COSMIC (http://www.sanger.ac.uk/genetics/CGP/cosmic/). We selected a subset of mutations that occur at high frequency in cancer patients, focusing on those found in ZFs that make contact with the 12-15bp consensus CTCF binding motif. These are highlighted with an asterisk and color coded as in **Fig. 1D.** Mutations analyzed included those found in **(i)** amino acids that make base-specifying contacts with the alpha helix of DNA (at locations -2, 2, 3 and 6 on the ZF), **(ii)** residues that coordinate the zinc ion which are essential for providing stability to ensure the proper folding of the ZF domain, **(iii)** two other classes of amino acid residues in the ZFs: boundary residues (that are important for interactions between ZFs), and residues that contact the sugar phosphate backbone of DNA, and **(iv)** other highly mutated residues in the region. The table identifies which zinc finger each mutation is found in, the number of patients it was identified in and the cancers each is associated with. Mutations were annotated for neurodevelopmental or neurological disorders using the CTCF variant catalog published in Price et al. [4]. ASD, autism spectrum disorder; CRD, CTCF related neurodevelopmental disorder; DD developmental disorder; NDD, neurodevelopmental disorder.

Extended Data Figure 2

Extended Data Fig. 2: **Flow cytometry analysis of mutant expression**. (**A**) Flow cytometry showing the level of GFP (endogenous CTCF) and mRuby (transgenic CTCF) in the IAA and Dox treated cells (ID). (**B**) Bar graph showing the percentage of GFP (endogenous CTCF) and mRuby2 (transgene WT and mutant CTCF) positive cells after treatment with IAA and Dox (ID). The presence of the IAA leads to degradation of GFP labelled endogenous CTCF. The error bars represent the standard deviation between the 2 replicates. (**C**) Western blot showing degradation of endogenous CTCF as detected with an antibody to CTCF, and the induction of transgenic CTCF as detected using an antibody to FLAG. The first replicate is shown in **Fig. 1**.

Extended Data Figure 3

Extended Data Fig. 3: **CTCF mutations have unique chromatin binding profiles:** Scheme showing the locations of the different CTCF mutations within the ZF. The consensus CTCF motif highlights the triplet to which each mutant zinc finger binds (top) as well as the motif identified by MEME for the *de novo* mutant only binding sites (bottom). Each graph shows the percentage of WT and mutant CTCF binding at WT only, common and mutant only sites and heatmaps show the profile of CTCF binding and ATAC-seq signal for WT only, common and mutant only sites. The remaining mutants are shown in **Fig. 3**. (**B**) Profiles of ATAC-seq in WT and mutant CTCF expressing cells are shown for sites, with (color-coded for each mutant) or without (green) CTCF binding in the presence or absence of Smc3. The remaining mutants are shown in **Fig. 2B**.

Extended Data Figure 3

C

ATAC-seq signal at enhancers

ATAC profiles at sites with Smc3, with or without CTCF binding

ATAC profiles at sites without Smc3, with or without CTCF binding

ATAC-seq signal at promoters

ATAC profiles at sites with Smc3, with or without CTCF binding

ATAC profiles at sites without Smc3, with or without CTCF binding

Extended Data Fig. 3: **CTCF mutations have unique chromatin binding profiles:** (**C**) Profiles of ATAC-seq in WT and mutant CTCF expressing cells are shown for sites, with (color-coded for each mutant) or without (green) CTCF binding in the presence or absence of Smc3 at gene enhancers (top) and gene promoters (bottom). In the absence of Smc3, only mutants with enough number of accessible CTCF peaks to generate an accurate signal profile at enhancers or promoters are shown. Of note, the WT profile is shown for reference although very few accessible CTCF peaks were identified at enhancers and promoters.

Extended Data Figure 4

A

Extended Data Fig. 4: **The relationship between CTCF binding, cohesin overlap and accessibility. (A)** Profiles of Smc3 binding in WT and mutant CTCF expressing cells is shown for accessible (top) and inaccessible (bottom) sites with (color-coded for each mutant) or without (green) CTCF binding. The remaining mutants are shown in **Fig. 4C**.

Extended Data Figure 4

B
At enhancers

Extended Data Fig. 4: **The relationship between CTCF binding, cohesin overlap and accessibility. (B)** Profiles of Smc3 binding in WT and mutant CTCF expressing cells is shown for accessible and inaccessible sites with (color-coded for each mutant) or without (green) CTCF binding at enhancers (top) and gene promoters (bottom)

Extended Data Figure 5

Extended Data Fig. 5: **CTCF mutations alter gene expression and TF binding.** (**A**) Gene set enrichment analysis of DEGs. All other mutants are shown in **Fig. 5B**. For each condition, bar graphs show significantly enriched KEGG pathways. The volcano plots below highlight the DEGs belonging to these enriched pathways with genes outside of these pathways shown in black. Brain related pathways are shown in purple, cancer in pink, immune in green and metabolism in mustard. (**B**) Volcano plots show examples of two differentially bound TFS (CTCF, MBD2) overlapping the promoters of DEGs in CTCF mutant expressing cells (ID). The remaining mutant comparisons are shown in **Fig. 5E**. The enrichment of the TF target genes among the up- and down-regulated genes are reported on top on the volcanos (Odds Ratios (ORs), and p-values).

Extended Data Fig. 6: **CTCF mutations alter insulation and chromatin interactivity.** (**A**) Profiles show the aggregated insulation score at WT only, common and mutant only binding sites for four mutants. The profiles for the remaining mutants are shown in **Fig. 6F.** (**B**) Profiles show the aggregated insulation score at CTCF binding sites with weak, intermediate and strong CTCF signals for different mutants. The profiles for the remaining mutants are shown in **Fig. 6G.** (**C**) Profiles show the aggregated insulation score at CTCF binding sites with no, weak, intermediate and strong ATAC signals for different mutants. The profiles for the remaining mutants are shown in **Fig. 6H.**

Extended Data Figure 7

Extended Data Fig. 7: **Indirect effects and change in TF binding at gene promoters account for the majority of CTCF mutation-mediated changes in expression.** (**A**) Example of a locus on chromosome 7 (red rectangles) with a direct effect of gain in CTCF binding and chromatin interactivity. The left panel shows the Hi-C interaction matrices in WT, Q418R and K365T with both gain of intra- and inter-TAD interactions in the mutant compared to WT. The left panels show the zoom-in tracks of CTCF (blue) Smc3 (green), ATAC (red) and significant differential chromatin loops (purple) with one anchor overlapping the differential CTCF binding sites. Overexpressed genes are highlighted in red. Of note, only gained interactions were detected at these loci. This analysis was performed at 10 kb resolution. (**B**) Bar graphs showing the percentage of UP and DOWN DEGs associated with differential TF binding, differential loops or both, stratified by direct and indirect effect. Direct effect was defined as differential TF binding with a predicted differential CTCF binding or ChIP-seq peak at the gene promoter and/or differential loops with a CTCF peak at either anchor.

Methods

Cell lines

Mouse embryonic stem cells E14Tg2a (karyotype 19, XY; 129/Ola isogenic background) and all
clones derived from these were cultured under feeder-free conditions in 0.1% gelatin (Sigma ES-
006-B) coated dishes (Falcon, 353003) at 37°C and 5% CO_2 in a humidified incubator. The cells
were grown in DMEM (Thermo Fisher, 11965-118) supplemented with 15% fetal bovine serum
(Thermo Fisher, SH30071.03), 100 U/ml penicillin - 100 µg/ml streptomycin (Sigma, P4458), 1 X
GlutaMax supplement (Thermo Fisher, 35050-061), 1 mM sodium pyruvate (Thermo Fisher,
11360-070), 1 X MEM non-essential amino-acids (Thermo Fisher, 11140-50), 50 µM b-
mercaptoethanol (Sigma, 38171), 10^4 U/ml leukemia inhibitory factor (Millipore, ESG1107), 3 µM
CHIR99021 (Sigma, SML1046) and 1 µM MEK inhibitor PD0325901 (Sigma, PZ0162). The cells
were passaged every alternate day by dissociation with TrypLE (Thermo Fisher, 12563011). For
the exit from pluripotency experiments, mESCs were cultured for 3 days in the same medium but
without the addition of LIF (leukemia inhibitory factor, CHIR99021 (Sigma, SML1046)) and MEK
inhibitor (PD0325901).

DNA constructs

Construction of vector for cloning transgenic, doxycycline-inducible expression of WT and mutant
mouse *Ctcf* cDNA were obtained from GenScript in pUC19 vectors. The cDNA was amplified such
that it harbors an AflII sequence at the 3' end of the gene and fused to a FLAG tag (that harbors
NotI sequence) at the 5' end with the help of a fusion PCR. The resultant fragment was digested
with NotI and AflII. The *Ctcf* gene was removed from pEN366 [3] by digesting with the same
enzymes. This backbone was used for insertion of each *Ctcf* mutant.

In brief, the cDNA region corresponding to each of the C and N terminals and zinc fingers were
PCR amplified in such a way that it included a short stretch of the 5′ and/or 3′ region of the
neighboring fragment to be connected. The desired PCR products were then annealed, amplified
by PCR and cloned into the NotI and AflII sites of the pEN366 backbone (Addgene #156432). All
of the constructs were verified by DNA sequence analysis. For all transgenes, the final vector
harbors an N terminal 3 X FLAG tag and a C terminal *mRuby* as in-frame fusion to WT and mutant
Ctcf. The vector also harbors a *TetO-3G* element and *rtTA3G* for doxycycline induced expression
of the transgene, and homology arms surrounding the sgRNA target site of the *Tigre* locus for
locus-specific insertion. The selection of stable integrants was achieved by virtue of *FRT-PGK-*
puro-FRT cassette. Further details of the vector are described elsewhere [3]. The vector pX330-

EN1201 [3] harboring spCas9 nuclease and *Tigre*-targeting sgRNA was used for targeting of *Tigre*

locus (Addgene #92144).

Gene targeting

Mouse embryonic stem cell E14Tg2a harboring *Ctcf-AID-eGFP* on both alleles and a knock-in of

pEN114 - *pCAGGS-Tir1-V5-BpA-Frt-PGK-EM7-PuroR-bpA-Frt-Rosa26* at *Rosa26* locus was

used as the parental cell line for making all the transgenes [3]. pEN366 derived vectors harboring

the rescue transgenes (WT and mutant *Ctcf*) were used for targeting transgenes to the *Tigre* locus

(clone ID# EN156.3.5) [8]. For nucleofections, 15 µg each of plasmids harboring the transgenes

and 2.5 µg of those with sgRNA targeting the *Tigre* locus was used. Nucleofection were performed

using Amaxa P3 Primary Cell kit (Lonza, V4XP-3024) and 4D- transfector. 2 million cells were

transfected with program CG-104 in each case. The cells were recovered for 48 h with no

antibiotic followed by selection in puromycin (1 µg/mL) (Thermo Fisher, A1113803). Single

colonies were manually picked and expanded in 96 well plates. Clones were genotyped by PCR

and flow cytometry was performed to confirm that the level of expression of transgenes were

comparable. All the clones that were used for the analyses were homozygous for the integration

of the transgenes and their levels of expression were comparable.

Induction of auxin inducible degradation of CTCF and doxycycline induced expression

731   For degradation of endogenous CTCF, the auxin-inducible degron was induced by adding 500

732   µM indole-3-acetic acid (IAA, chemical analog of auxin) (Sigma, I5148) to the media. Expression

733   of transgenes was achieved by the addition of doxycycline (Dox, 1 µg/ml) (Sigma, D9891) to the

734   media. The cells were treated with IAA and/or Dox for 2 days.

Western Blotting

mESCs were dissociated using TrypLE, washed in PBS, pelleted and used for western blotting.

Approximately 2 million cells were used to prepare cell extract. Cell pellets were resuspended in

RIPA lysis buffer (Thermo Fisher, 89900) with 1X HALT protease inhibitors (Thermo Fisher,

78430), incubated on ice for 30 min, spun at 4^OC at 13,000 rpm for 10 min and supernatant was

collected. For the western blot of CTCF, low salt lysis buffer (0.1 M NaCl, 25 mM HEPES, 1 mM

$MgCl_2$, 0.2 mM EDTA and 0.5% NP40) was used supplemented with 125 U/ml of benzonase

(Sigma E1014). Protein concentration was measured using the Pierce BCA assay kit (Thermo

Fisher, 23225). 20 µg of protein were mixed with Laemmli buffer (Biorad, 1610737) and β-

mercaptoethanol, heated at 95^OC for 10 min and run on a Mini-protean TGX 4%-20%

polyacrylamide gel (Biorad, 456-1095). The proteins were transferred onto PVDF membranes

using the Mini Trans-Blot Electrophoretic Transfer Cell (Bio-Rad, 170-3930) at 80 V, 120 mA for

90 min. PVDF membranes were blocked with 5% BSA in 1 X TBST prior to the addition of

antibody. The membranes were probed with appropriate antibodies overnight at 4^OC, anti-mouse

FLAG antibody (Sigma, F1804; 1: 1,000 dilution), anti GAPDH (BioLegend,W17079A; 1:5,000

dilution), anti CTCF (active motif, 61311; 1: 2,000 dilution). Membranes were washed five times

in PBST (1 × PBS and 0.1% Tween 20) for 5 min each and incubated with respective secondary

antibodies in 5% BSA at room temperature for 1 h. The blots were rinsed in PBST and developed

using enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) and imaged by Odyssey LiCor Imager (Kindle

Biosciences).

Flow cytometric analysis

Cells were dissociated with TrypLE, washed and resuspended in MACS buffer for flow cytometric

analysis on LSRII UV (BD Biosciences). Analysis was performed using the FlowJo software.

Cell culture – FRAP

Control cells expressing H2B-mRuby were engineered using the same background as the CTCF

transgene expressing cells, E14Tg2a mESCs. Briefly, pEN114 - *pCAGGS-Tir1-V5-BpA-Frt-PGK-*

EM7-PuroR-bpA-Frt-Rosa26 was used as the parental cell line to be nucleofected by the

pASH40-mRuby-neo with the PiggyBac transposase vector. For the FRAP experiment, CTCF

and H2B expressing cells were cultured for two days on 35 mm no 1.5H glass-bottom imaging

dishes (MatTek, Ashland, MA, P35G-1.5-14C) coated with Geltrex (Gibco, A1413201) according

to manufacturer's instructions. 48 hours prior to the experiment, the culture medium was changed

to medium supplemented with 500 µM 3-Indoleacetic acid (IAA; Sigma-Aldrich, I2886-5G) and 1

µg/mL doxycycline (Sigma-Aldrich, D3072-1ML). Just prior to imaging, the medium was changed

to imaging medium: phenol red free DMEM with all other aspects of the medium the same.

Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP)

FRAP experiments were performed on an LSM900 confocal microscope (Zeiss, Germany)

equipped with a full, humidified incubation chamber that was maintained at 37°C with 5.5% CO_2.

The time series were acquired in confocal mode using two-stage acquisition with the following

excitation parameters: 561 nm excitation laser at 0.8% power, 53 µm pinhole size corresponding

to 1 AU, scan speed 7, and 3x crop factor corresponding to a pixel dwell time of 3.06 µs. During

the first phase, we imaged 25 frames with 0.5 seconds between frames, and during the second

phase we imaged 160 frames with 4 seconds between frames, resulting in a total movie length of

657 seconds. For bleaching, a 1μm diameter ROI was selected. Bleaching was performed after

frame 8 using both the 488nm and 561nm lasers at 100% power, 53μm pinhole size, and scan

speed 7 corresponding to a pixel dwell time of 3.06μs. For each condition, 30 movies were

acquired and between 3 and 11 were excluded due to drift.

Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) analysis

FRAP analysis was performed using custom Python scripts. Briefly, movies were loaded into a

custom Python GUI (https://github.com/ahansenlab/FRAP-drift-correction-GUI). The bleached

nucleus was segmented using manually selected segmentation parameters, and was used to

estimate – the average nuclear intensity – and – the average background intensity. To correct

for cell drift, the ROI positions were manually updated at a number of frames and the ROI position

was linearly interpolated between manual updates. Cells with excessive drift were manually

excluded and the mean fluorescence intensity of the bleach – – was taken as the average

intensity within the ROI.

To correct for photobleaching, $I_{nonbleach}(t)$ was smoothed using an averaging filter, and

a series of correction factors ($C(t)$) were computed as the ratio of these values to their average

prebleach value as follows:

799
$$C(t) = \frac{I_{nonbleach,smooth}(t) - I_{background}(t)}{\langle I_{nonbleach}(t) - I_{background}(t)\rangle_{prebleach}}$$

800
801   Subsequently, the FRAP curves were normalized according to the following equation:
802
803

804
$$\underline{I_{bleach}(t)} = \frac{C(t)(I_{bleach}(t) - I_{background}(t))}{\langle C(t)(I_{bleach}(t) - I_{background}(t))\rangle_{prebleach}}$$

805
806   where $\underline{I_{bleach}(t)}$ is the normalized, background-subtracted, and photobleaching corrected FRAP

807   signal.

808   Finally, since previous measurements of CTCF's free diffusion coefficient have indicated

809   a reaction-dominant model is most appropriate, we fit the following, previously demonstrated

810   model(Sprague, Pego et al. 2004, Hansen, Pustova et al. 2017).

811
812
$$FRAP(t) = 1 - C_{eq,fast}e^{-k_{off,fast}t} - C_{eq,slow}e^{-k_{off,slow}t}$$
813

where $k_{off,slow} < k_{off,fast}$. $C_{eq,slow}$ was taken as the specific bound fraction and the specific

residence time was taken as $\frac{1}{k_{off,slow}}$. To estimate parameter distributions, we implemented a

bootstrapping routine in which a set of 16 movies were randomly resampled from the full dataset

2500 times with replacement. For each sample, the above equation was fit and the parameter

values were taken as one data point. The 2500 resampled points were then used as distributions

for plotting the specific bound fraction and residence time. For ease of comparison, the specific

bound fractions were normalized to the average WT value when plotting.

ChIPmentation

mESCs were dissociated using TrypLE (Thermofisher #12605010) and washed once in 1X PBS.

After counting, cells were divided in 10 million aliquots and resuspended in fresh 1X PBS (1million

cells/1ml). For double cross linking 25mM EGS (ethylene glycol bis(succinimidyl succinate);

Thermofisher #21565) were added and cells were put in rotation for 30 min at room temperature,

followed by addition of 1% formaldehyde (Tousimis #1008A) for 10 min also in rotation at room

temperature. Quenching was performed by adding glycine to a final concentration of 0.125 M

followed by incubations of 5 min at room temperature in rotation. Fixed cells were washed twice

with 5 ml of 1 X PBS containing 0.5% BSA and centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 5 min at 4°C. Pellets

were finally resuspended in 500 μl 1X PBS containing 0.5% BSA, transferred to 1.5 ml Eppendorf

and centrifuged at 3000rpm for 3 min at 4°C. Supernatant was completely removed, pellets were

snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. Fixed cells (10 million) were thawed on ice,

resuspended in 350 μl ice cold lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA

(pH 8.0), 0.5 mM EGTA (pH 8.0), 0.1% sodium deoxycholate, 0.5% N-lauroysarcosine and 1X

protease inhibitors) and lysed for 10 min by rotating at 4° C. Chromatin was sheared using a

bioruptor (Diagenode) for 15 minutes (30 sec on, 30 sec off, high output level). 100 μl of cold

lysis buffer and 50 μl of 10% Triton X-100 (final concentration of 1) were then added and the

samples were centrifuged for 5 min at full speed at 4°C. Supernatant was collected, transferred

to a new tube (Protein Low Binding tube) and shearing was continued for another 10 min, then

the chromatin was quantified. FLAG M2 Magnetic Beads (Sigma, M8823) were used for FLAG

immunoprecipitation. In other cases, SMC3 (abcam, ab9263) and Rabbit IgG (abcam ab37415),

antibodies were bound to protein A magnetic beads by incubation on a rotator for one hour at

room temperature. 10 μl each of antibody was bound to 50 μl of protein-A magnetic beads

(Dynabeads) and added to the sonicated chromatin for immunoprecipitation at 4°C overnight.

Next day, samples were washed and tagmentation were performed as per the original

847 ChIPmentation protocol (Schmidl et al., 2015). In short, the beads were washed successively

848 twice in 500 µl cold low-salt wash buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM EDTA

849 (pH 8.0), 0.1% SDS, 1% tritonX-100), twice in 500 µl cold LiCl-containing wash buffer (10 mM

850 Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 250 mM LiCl, 1 mM EDTA (pH 8.0), 1% triton X-100, 0.7% sodium

851 deoxycholate) and twice in 500 µl cold 10 mM cold Tris-Cl (pH 8.0) to remove detergent, salts

852 and EDTA. Subsequently, the beads were resuspended in 25 µl of the freshly prepared

853 tagmentation reaction buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 5 mM MgCl2, 10% dimethylformamide)

854 and 1 µl Tagment DNA Enzyme from the Nextera DNA Sample Prep Kit (Illumina #20034198)

855 and incubated at 37°C for 10 min in a thermomixer. Following tagmentation, the beads were

856 washed successively twice in 500 µl cold low-salt wash buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 150 mM

857 NaCl, 2 mM EDTA (pH8.0), 0.1% SDS, 1% triton X-100) and twice in 500 µl cold Tris-EDTA-

858 Tween buffer (0.2% tween, 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 1 mM EDTA (pH 8.0)). Chromatin was eluted

859 and de-crosslinked by adding 70 µl of freshly prepared elution buffer (0.5% SDS, 300 mM NaCl,

860 5 mM EDTA (pH 8.0), 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) and 10 ug/ml proteinase K for 1 hour at 55°C

861 850rpm and overnight at 65°C 850rpm. Next day, the supernatant was collected, transferred to

862 new DNA Low Binding tubes and supplemented with an additional 30 µl of elution buffer. DNA

863 was purified using MinElute Reaction Cleanup Kit (Qiagen #28204) and eluted in 20 ul. Purified

864 DNA (20 µl) was amplified as per the ChIPmentation protocol (Schmidl, Rendeiro et al. 2015)

865 using indexed and non-indexed primers and NEBNext High-Fidelity 2X PCR Master Mix (NEB

866 M0541) in a thermomixer with the following program: 72°C for 5 m; 98°C for 30 s; 14 cycles of

867 98°C for 10 s, 63°C for 30 s, 72°C for 30 s and a final elongation at 72°C for 1 m. DNA was purified

868 using Agencourt AMPure XP beads (Beckman, A63881) to remove fragments larger than 700 bp

869 as well as the primer dimers. Library quality and quantity were estimatred using Tapestation

870 (Agilent High Sensitivity D1000 ScreenTape #5067-5584 and High Sensitivity D1000 reagents

871 #5067-5585) and quantified by Qubit (Life Technologies Qubit™ 1X dsDNA High Sensitivity (HS)

872 #Q33230). Libraries were then sequenced with the Novaseq6000 Illumina technology according

873 to the standard protocols and with around 200 million 150bp paired-end total per sample.

875 **Total RNA-seq**

876 mESCs were dissociated using TrypLE, washed in 1X PBS, pelletted and 2.5 million cells were

877 used for extracting RNA with RNeasy plus kit (Qiagen #74134) in each case. RNA quality was

878 checked in Tapestation (Agilent High Sensitivity RNA ScreenTape #5067-5579, High Sensitivity

879 RNA Sample Buffer #5067-5580 and High Sensitivity RNA Ladder #5067-5581) and quantified

880 by Nanodrop. 500 ng were used for Total RNA libraries preparation using Illumina kit (Illumina

Stranded Total RNA Prep, Ligation with Ribo-Zero Plus #20040529). Library concentrations were

estimated using Tapestation (Agilent High Sensitivity D1000 ScreenTape #5067-5584 and High

Sensitivity D1000 reagents #5067-5585) and quantified by Qubit (Life Technologies Qubit™ 1X

dsDNA High Sensitivity (HS) #Q33230). Libraries were then sequenced with the Novaseq6000

Illumina technology according to the standard protocols and with around 100 million 150bp paired-

end total per sample.

Hi-C

Hi-C was performed in duplicates using around 1 million cells each. mESCs were dissociated

using TrypLE (Thermofishe #12605010), washed once in 1X PBS and resuspended in fresh 1X

PBS (1 million cells/ 1 ml). For double cross linking 25 mM EGS (ethylene glycol bis(succinimidyl

succinate); Thermofisher #21565) were added and cells were put in rotation for 30 min at room

temperature, followed by addition of 1% formaldehyde (Tousimis #1008A) for 10 min also in

rotation at room temperature. Quenching was performed by adding glycine to a final concentration

of 0.125M followed by incubations of 5 min at room temperature in rotation. Fixed cells were

washed twice with 5 ml of 1X PBS containing 0.5% BSA and centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 5 min at

4°C. Pellets were finally resuspended in 500 µl 1X PBS containing 0.5% BSA, transferred to 1.5ml

Eppendorf and centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 3 min at 4°C. Supernatant was completely removed,

pellets were snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. Samples were subsequently

processed using the Arima Hi-C kit as per the manufacturer's protocol and sequenced with the

Novaseq6000 Illumina technology according to the standard protocols and with around 600 million

150bp paired-end reads per sample.

ATAC-seq

We used an improved ATAC-seq protocol (Omni-ATAC) adopted from Corces et al., [34] with small

adaptations. Briefly, cells in culture were treated with 200 U/ml DNase (Worthington # LS002007)

for 30 min at 37°C to remove free-floating DNA and any DNA from dead cells. Cells were then

harvested via trypsinization and resuspended in regular medium. After counting, 500,000 cells

were collected, resuspended in 1X cold PBS and spin down at 500 g for 5 min at 4°C in a fixed-

angle centrifuge. After centrifugation, the supernatant was removed and the pellet resuspended

in 500 µl of cold ATAC-seq resuspension buffer 1 (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM

MgCl$_2$, 0.1% NP-40 and 0.1% Tween-20 in water). 50 µl (50.000 cells) were transferred to a new

1.5 ml Eppendorf tube and 0.5 µl l 1% Digitonin (Promega #G9441) was added by pipetting well

few times. The cell lysis reaction was incubated on ice for 3 min. After lysis, 1 ml of cold ATAC-

seq resuspension buffer 2 (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM $MgCl_2$ and 0.1% Tween-
20 in water) was added. Tube was inverted three times to mix and nuclei were pelleted by
centrifugation for 10 min at 500 g at 4°C. Supernatant was very carefully removed (pellet could
be almost invisible at this step) and nuclei resuspended in 45 μl of transposition mix (25 μl 2X TD
buffer (Illumina #20034198), 16.5 μl 1X PBS, 0.5 μl 1% digitonin, 0.5 μl 10% Tween-20 and 2.5
μl water) by pipetting up and down few times. 5 μl of transposase enzyme (Illumina #20034198)
was then added and the transposition reaction was incubated at 37°C for 30 min in a thermomixer
with shaking at 1000 rpm. Reaction was cleaned up with Zymo DNA Clean and Concentrator-5
kit (Zymo#11-302C). Transposed DNA fragments were then amplified as described previously in
Buenrostro et al., [63]. Final libraries were purified with with Zymo DNA Clean and Concentrator-5
kit (Zymo#11-302C; Note: better to use two separate kits for pre- and post-amplification clean up),
checked by Tapestation (Agilent High Sensitivity D1000 ScreenTape #5067-5584 and High
Sensitivity D1000 reagents #5067-5585) and quantified by Qubit (Life Technologies Qubit™ 1X
dsDNA High Sensitivity (HS) #Q33230). Libraries were then sequenced with the Novaseq6000
Illumina technology according to the standard protocols and with around 50 million 150bp paired-
end reads per sample.
931
932 **QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**
933
ChIP-seq data processing and quality control
Data were processed using Seq-N-Slide pipeline [64]. Briefly, after trimming for NEXTERA adaptor
sequence using trimGalore [65]. The reads were aligned to mm10 genome with Bowtie2 [66].
Ambiguous reads were filtered to use uniquely mapped reads in the downstream analysis. PCR
duplicates were removed using Sambamba [67]). Narrow peaks were called using MACS2 [68] in pair-
end mode and with IgG as control for Smc3 ChIP-seq or WT untreated condition (in which FLAG
CTCF is not expressed) for CTCF FLAG to control for unspecific binding, Peaks overlapping
ENCODE blacklisted regions were filtered out [69]. These procedures allowed us to minimize the
false positive calls, as reflected by the high percentage of called peaks containing CTCF
consensus motifs as detected by MEME [32] with 63% for WT. To ensure comparability between
conditions, FLAG and SMC3 chip-seq samples were down-sampled to the same number of
aligned (100 millions reads per replicates), except for 2 samples R377H-rep1 and R339Q-rep
which were under-sequenced (with 68 and 90 millions reads, respectively) and good quality reads
before peak calling using samtools [70]. Bigwigs were obtained for visualization on individual as well
as merged bam files using Deeptools [71]. For CTCF FLAG visualization, the differential signals

were generated after subtracting non-specific signal present in the WT untreated condition.

Heatmaps and average profiles were performed on merged bigwig files using Deeptools.

RNA-seq data processing and quality control

Data were processed using Seq-N-Slide pipeline [64]. Briefly, after trimming for the Illumina adaptor

and the T overhang as per Illumina recommendation using TrimGalore [65], reads were aligned

against the mouse reference genome (mm10) using the STAR [72] aligner and differentially

expressed genes were called using DESeq2 [73] with an adjusted p-value of 0.05 and a fold change

cutoff of 1.5. Heatmap was performed using pheatmap R package [74] and GSEA using fgsea R

package [75] and KEGG genesets [43]. Developmental germ layer gene sets were downloaded from

Hutchins et al.[76]. Radarplots were generated using the R package fsmb after averaging the

expression level of the genes of each germ layers and of the 2 replicates.

ATAC-seq data processing and quality control

Data were processed using Seq-N-Slide pipeline [64]. Briefly, Reads were aligned to mm10 genome

with Bowtie2 [66]. Ambiguous reads were filtered to use uniquely mapped reads in the downstream

analysis. PCR duplicates were removed using Sambamba [67]. Mitochondrial contamination was

assessed using samtools [70]. All the samples showed less than 0.6% of mitochondrial DNA, Peaks

were called using MACS2 [68] and peaks overlapping ENCODE blacklisted regions were filtered out

[69]. Bigwigs were obtained for visualization on individual as well as merged bam files using

Deeptools [71]. Heatmaps and average profiles were performed on merged bigwig files using

Deeptools.

Hi-C Processing and Quality Control.

HiC-Pro [77] was used to align and filter the Hi-C data. To generate Hi-C filtered contact matrices,

the Hi-C reads were aligned against the mouse reference genome (mm10) by bowtie2 (version

2.3.1) using local mode for the second step of HiC-Pro alignment (--very-sensitive -L 20 --score-

min G,20,8 --local) to ignore the molecular barcode UMI sequences and dark bases introduced

by Arima library prep kit at the 5' end of the read. Singleton, ambiguous and duplicated reads

were filtered out. Ligation sites for Arima HiC kit were set up using

GATCGATC,GANTGATC,GANTANTC,GATCANTC. Low mapping quality (MAPQ<30), self

circle, dangling ends and re-ligation reads were filtered out through the HiC-pro pipeline. Valid

pairs represented more than 80% for all the samples. Samples were downscaled to the same

number of good quality uniquely aligned reads using HiCExplorer [78]. Of note, we did not use the

number of valid pairs to downscale the samples to not overcorrect some conditions such as IAA
and mutant H455R which were expected to show a dramatic biological decrease in valid
interactions.
986
Downscaled interaction matrices were generated separately for each replicate and merged for
visualization and downprocessing as mcool files using cooler [79]. Samples were balanced using
the ICE correction method [80] with HiCExplorer [78]. HiC maps were generated from the merged
downscaled and corrected matrices using GENOVA and HiCExplorer [54,78]. RCP (relative contact
probabilities) and insulation score were generated using GENOVA [54]. After log-log transformation
and Loess smoothing using R, the first derivative (P'max) was estimated as described in Gassler
et al., [51].
994
995   **DOWNSTREAM ANALYSIS:**
996
997   **CTCF peak motif analysis**
998   Motifs were called using MEME [32] with a 1st order background model on CTCF peaks called using
999   MACS2 after separating the peaks into 3 groups for each pairwise comparison between WT and
1000   mutant CTCF: WT only, common and mutant only peaks. Peak intersection sets were generated
1001   using the intervene package [81]and motifs were searched within 100 bp of each peak summit.
1002
Stratified analysis at enhancers and promoters
H3K27ac peaks from 120/Ola mESCs were downloaded from ENCODE (ENCFF519QMV).
CTCF, cohesin and ATAC-seq peaks were classified as active promoter sites when they overlap
with an H3K27ac peak and are located in a gene promoter region, defined as 2kb upstream and
1 kb downstream gene TSSs. Active enhancer sites when they overlap with an H3K27ac peak
and are located outside gene promoter regions.
1009
Multivariate CTCF/Smc3 overlap and insulation score analysis
To test the independent of CTCF and Accessibility on Smc3 overlap, CTCF ChIP-seq and ATAC-
seq signal strengths were categorized into weak, intermediate and strong signal using the inter-
quartile values of the signal across WT and mutant samples. Weak binding or accessibility was
defined as sites with signals inferior to the 1st quartile, intermediate binding or accessibility as
sites with signals between the 2nd and 3rd quartiles and strong binding or accessibility as sites with
signals superior to the 3rd quartile. For Smc3 overlap, a multivariate logistic model testing the

effect of CTCF strength, ATAC strength and their interaction was performed in WT mESCs after

averaging the replicates. The log2 odd ratios were computed to estimate the enrichment in Smc3.

For insulation score a mixed multivariate model testing the effect of CTCF strength, ATAC

strength and their interaction was performed across sample. For both models the marginal effects

and 95th confidence intervals were computed. These analyses was performed using STATA v17.

1022

ATAC-seq footprinting analysis

Footprinting analysis was performed on ATAC-seq signal using TOBIAS [45]. Briefly, ATAC-seq

signals were first corrected for Tn5 cutting sequence bias using the ATACorrect function and

footprinting score calculated using FootprintScores at peaks detected by MACS. Finally

differential footprinting estimated pariwise between WT and mutant CTCF using BINDetect and

HOCOMOCO v11 core motif probability weight matrices [82]. Peaks were annotated for gene

promoter using UROPA [83]and GENCODE version M25 [84]. Gene promoters were defined as

regions within 2kb upstream and 1 kb downstream the gene transcription starting site.

1031

1032   **Loop calling and annotation**

1033   Significant loops (q-value<0.05) were called on the downscaled and corrected interaction

1034   matrices using FitHIC at 10kb resolution [85] and annotated for CTCF peaks and gene TSS using

1035   pairToBed [86].

1036

Differential aggregated peak and TAD analyses

Aggregated peak and TAD analysis on downscaled and corrected interaction matrices was

performed using GENOVA at 10kb resolution [54]. For aggregated peaks analyses, the union of

loops called by FitHIC in WT and mutant CTCF for each pairwise comparison was used to

generate and compare aggregated interaction at loop anchors. For aggregated TAD analyses,

the insulation score was first calculated to identify TAD and TAD boundaries. The union of TADs

called by GENOVA in WT and mutant CTCF was used to generate and compare aggregated intra

and inter-TAD interactions.

1045

Differential loop analysis

Differential loops (adjusted p-value<0.05) were called for each pairwise comparison between WT

and mutant CTCF using MultiHiCCompare which performed a cross-sample normalization before

testing for differential loops using an exact test [87]. Enrichment for differentially expressed genes

among differential loops was tested using logistic regression after annotating loop anchors with

gene TSS.

1052

Direct vs indirect effect analysis.

Direct effect was defined as differential TF binding with a predicted differential CTCF binding

identified using TOBIAS [45] or ChIP-seq peak at the gene promoter and/or differential loops

identified using MultiHiCCompare [87] with a CTCF peak at either anchor. Gene promoters were

defined as regions spanning 2 kb upstream and 1 kb downstream gene TSSs. Overlap between

gene promoters and differential loop were performed using pairToBed [86].

1059

1060 **Data availability**

1061   All raw and processed sequencing data files are deposited at NCBI's Gene Expression

1062   Omnibus (GEO) and will be available to public on publication of the manuscript.

1063

1064 **Code availability**

1065   No custom code/software was used in the study. The publicly available software used is indicated

1066   in the Methods above.

1067

1068 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

1069   Not applicable

1070

1071 **Competing interests**

1072   The authors declare no competing interests.

1073

Author' contributions

These studies were designed by Jane Skok and Catherine Do. The analysis was performed by

Catherine Do, Theodore Sakellaropoulos. Experiments were performed by Guimei Jiang and

Giulia Cova. Aristotelis Tsirigos reviewed and made revisions to the manuscript. FRAP analysis

was performed by Christos C. Katsifis, Domenic N. Narducci and Anders S. Hansen. The paper

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