A progeria-associated BAF-1 mutation modulates gene expression and accelerates aging in *C.*
elegans

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<u>**KEYWORDS**</u>

<u>**ABSTRACT**</u>

Alterations in the nuclear envelope are linked to a variety of rare diseases termed laminopathies.
These include both tissue specific and systemic diseases. A single amino acid substitution in
human barrier to autointegration factor (BAF) at position 12 (A12T) causes Néstor-Guillermo
Progeria Syndrome (NGPS). This premature ageing condition affects a variety of tissues, leading
to growth retardation and severe skeletal defects, including scoliosis. Taking advantage of the
conservation between human and *C. elegans* BAF proteins, we have modified the *baf-1* locus in
C. elegans to mimic the human NGPS mutation (*baf-1(G12T)*). In this work, we characterized the
phenotypes caused by the G12T mutation at molecular, cellular, and organismal scale. We found
that the mutation induced multiple phenotypes related to fertility, lifespan, and stress
resistance. Importantly, nuclear morphology deteriorated faster during aging in *baf-1(G12T)*,
relative to wild-type animals, coinciding with an important hallmark of cells from progeria
patients. Nuclear envelope accumulation of lamin and emerin was reduced whereas localization
of BAF-1(G12T) was similar to wild-type BAF-1. We determined the chromatin binding profiles
for wild-type and mutant BAF-1 and performed transcriptome analyses through tissue-specific
DamID. Although the global profiles for wild-type and G12T BAF-1 resembled one another, we
also identified many discrete regions with altered BAF-1(G12T) association. Most genes
deregulated by the *baf-1(G12T)* mutation were characterized by a change in BAF-1 association,
suggesting a direct relation between BAF-1 binding and gene expression. We conclude that *C.*
elegans is a relevant model to understand how a mutation in an essential protein expressed
throughout development triggers the appearance of symptoms in early childhood.

INTRODUCTION

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The chromosomes in eukaryotic cells are physically enclosed by the nuclear envelope (NE),
which protects them from mechanical stress and serves as an anchoring point for chromatin and
associated factors (Manzo et al. 2022). The NE is composed of outer and inner nuclear
membranes, the nuclear lamina, and nuclear pore complexes to facilitate nucleocytoplasmic
transport. The nuclear lamina is a rigid meshwork that consists mainly of intermediate filament
proteins called lamins as well as a variety of lamin-associated proteins, including integral inner
nuclear membrane proteins. Nuclear organization is dynamic and changes during development
and aging. Moreover, chromatin is differently organized in the diverse cell types within an
organism (Ungricht and Kutay 2017). Furthermore, both environmental stress factors (such as
temperature, pathogens, or nutrient availability) and internal factors (like cellular stress and
mutations) can provoke changes in nuclear organization and gene expression. It is therefore not
surprising that NE alterations are related to dramatic human conditions and attract intensive
biomedical research efforts (Dobrzynska et al. 2016b; Shin and Worman 2022; Fragoso-Luna and
Askjaer 2023).

Barrier to Autointegration Factor 1 (BAF/BANF1) is a small (89 amino acids) chromatin binding
protein enriched at the NE and highly conserved across metazoans (Sears and Roux 2020). BAF
acts as a homodimer that binds simultaneously to DNA, lamins, and inner nuclear membrane
LEM (LAP2, emerin, MAN1) domain proteins, thus serving as an anchoring factor (Bradley et al.
2005; Samson et al. 2018). BAF was initially discovered as a factor required for retroviral
infectivity (Lee and Craigie 1998). Its depletion is lethal during embryogenesis in *Caenorhabditis*
elegans and *Drosophila melanogaster* (Zheng et al. 2000; Furukawa et al. 2003; Margalit et al.
2005) and decreases the survival of mouse and human embryonic stem cells (Cox et al. 2011).
The localization of BAF at the NE is interdependent of its interaction partners, including lamins
(Margalit et al. 2005; Lin et al. 2020), and LEM domain proteins, although BAF is also present in
the nucleoplasm and the cytoplasm (Haraguchi et al. 2001; Margalit et al. 2007). BAF localisation
during the cell cycle is controlled by phosphorylation: at the entry to mitosis vaccinia-related
kinase 1 (VRK1) phospholylates BAF, which reduces its affinity for chromatin (Nichols et al. 2006;
Marcelot et al. 2021). The protein phosphatase 2 (PP2A) complex dephosphorylates BAF at the
end of mitosis, allowing reassociation of BAF to chromatin and NE components (Asencio et al.
2012). Interfering with BAF phosphorylation has severe consequences: when VRK1 is depleted
from *C. elegans* embryos or human cells, BAF remains associated with chromosomes when cells
enter mitosis, which leads to defects in chromosome segregation (Gorjanacz et al. 2007; Molitor
and Traktman 2014). BAF is required for mitotic chromosome coherence and nuclear assembly
towards the end of mitosis (Gorjanacz et al. 2007; Samwer et al. 2017). It localizes on the surface
of the condensed chromosomes to maintain these tightly together, thereby ensuring the
reassembly of a NE that encompasses all chromosomes in a single nucleus (Haraguchi et al. 2008;
Samwer et al. 2017). More recently, BAF was implicated in the repair of NE ruptures (Halfmann
et al. 2019). BAF localizes to the rupture site by binding to the leaking chromatin, and recruits
LEM domain proteins to repair the NE and restore the permeability barrier (Young et al. 2020;
Kono et al. 2022; Barger et al. 2023). Finally, BAF has also been involved in sensing mechanical
stimuli to regulate cell cycle progression and DNA replication (Wang et al. 2018; Unnikannan et
al. 2020).

About a decade ago, an identical homozygous amino acid substitution in human BAF (A12T) was
identified in 2 patients (Néstor and Guillermo) suffering from premature aging symptoms,
leading to the term Néstor-Guillermo progeria syndrome (NGPS) (Puente et al. 2011). NGPS
shares phenotypic similarities with Hutchinson-Gilford progeria syndrome (HGPS), which has
been described in much greater detail and is most often caused by mutation in *LMNA* that
encodes lamin A/C (Gonzalo et al. 2017). However, cardiovascular deficiencies and metabolic

complications have not been described for NGPS patients and the manifestation of the condition occurs later, approximately 24 months after birth (Cabanillas et al. 2011). Similarly to HGPS, nuclear morphology is abnormal in NGPS fibroblast, and can be restored by expression of wild-type BAF (Puente et al. 2011; Janssen et al. 2022). It was proposed that the mutation destabilizes BAF (Puente et al. 2011), although this has been questioned by others (Paquet et al. 2014). The residue mutated in NGPS is situated close to the interface with lamin and the mutation was reported to reduce the affinity between the two proteins (Samson et al. 2018; Janssen et al. 2022). However, another study found that ectopically expressed BAF A12T localized correctly to the NE, and that the mutation modulated the affinity of BAF for DNA, thus possibly interfering with chromatin anchoring at the NE (Paquet et al. 2014). The A12T mutation was demonstrated to also affects NE rupture repair. Although mutant BAF A12T accumulated at rupture sites allowing repair, nuclei were observed to suffer repeated rupture more frequently than in control cells (Janssen et al. 2022). Despite the identification of several cellular defects in NGPS cells, it remains unclear what eventually leads to the patient phenotypes after seemingly normal foetal and postnatal development.

Almost all studies described above were performed with cultured cells. Although the use of patient-derived cell lines is essential to answer many of the open questions about NGPS, cell lines suffer limitations in terms of interplay between tissues and different organs (Yamamoto et al. 2024). To study the effect of the NGPS mutation in a whole-animal model, we introduced the equivalent mutation in the endogenous *baf-1* locus in *C. elegans*. We show that *baf-1(G12T)* mutants recapitulate several phenotypes typical of progerias, including shortened lifespan and accelerated deterioration of nuclear morphology. Moreover, the mutants have reduced fertility, increased sensitivity to irradiation and temperature stress but, surprisingly, are more tolerant to oxidative stress. We observed numerous changes in BAF-1's association with chromatin in hypodermal and intestinal cells, suggesting that the G12T mutation affects the affinity of BAF-1 for chromatin. By focusing on *baf-1's* role in chromatin organization, we identified genes that are both deregulated and differentially bound by BAF-1(G12T). Enriched gene classes include structural components of cuticle and ribosomes, suggesting specific functions of BAF in the regulation of gene expression. We conclude that *baf-1(G12T)* mutants serve as a relevant model to advance our understanding of BAF function and the mechanisms underlying NGPS.

RESULTS

The *baf-1(G12T)* mutation reduces brood size and lifespan

C. elegans and human BAF proteins share 74% amino acid sequence similarity (Margalit et al. 2005) and are predicted to adopt identical three-dimensional structures (**Supplementary Figure S1A**), making the worm a suitable model to study BAF mutations. To evaluate the effect of the NGPS mutation on *C. elegans* health span parameters, we modified the endogenous *baf-1* locus to encode a threonine residue at position 12 instead of the naturally occurring glycine.

We first measured fertility. At 20°C, *baf-1(G12T)* self-fertilizing hermaphrodites produced the same number of descendants as control worms (**Figure 1A**). In contrast, when worms were shifted to 25°C before reaching adulthood, their fertility was reduced by 66% (**FIG 1B**, **Supplementary Figure S1B**), whereas embryonic viability was unaffected (**Supplementary Figure S1C**). We noticed that *baf-1(G12T)* hermaphrodites deposited many unfertilized oocytes (UFOs) on the plates at 25°C (**Figure 1B**). *C. elegans* hermaphrodites usually lay a few UFOs when they run out of sperm (produced during the larval L4 stage) at the end of their reproductive cycle (Collins et al. 2008). However, *baf-1(G12T)* mutants laid UFOs throughout the fertile period, representing a 34% of the total lay versus only 6% in control animals (**Figure 1B**). We investigated if the UFOs laid by *baf-1(G12T)* hermaphrodites at 25°C could be explained by a lack in sperm production. However, we found sperm with the same frequency in the spermatheca of control and *baf-1(G12T)* hermaphrodites on days 1 and 2 of adulthood (**Figure 1C, D**). On day 3, sperm

were still observed in approximately half of the control animals but in none of the *baf-1(G12T)*
mutants. These data indicate that although sperm were produced there might be defects in
function. To test this hypothesis, we mated *baf-1(G12T)* day 1 adult hermaphrodites with wild-
type males at 25°C for 7 hours. After mating we did not observe UFOs and the brood size was
comparable to self-fertilizing wild-type hermaphrodites (**Supplementary Figure S2A**). Mating
baf-1(G12T) hermaphrodites with *baf-1(G12T)* males also eliminated UFOs, but did not fully
restore the brood size, suggesting a sperm defect in *baf-1(G12T)* males (**Supplementary Figure**
S2A). To test this possibility, we incubated *baf-1(G12T)* males with *fog-2(q71)* feminized worms
at 25°C and counted daily offspring. Isogenic *fog-2(q71)* males were used as a control. We
observed a reduction in brood size of approximately one third when sperm came from *baf-*
1(G12T) males (**Supplementary Figure S2B, C**). The male/female ratio in the progeny was ~1,
suggesting that meiotic segregation of chromosomes was normal in *baf-1(G12T)* males.

To gain insight into BAF-1 localization, we knocked GFP and mCherry (mCh) cassettes into the
endogenous *baf-1* and *baf-1(G12T)* loci to generate N-terminal fusions. We observed that BAF-
1 is present in mature sperm, both in males (**Supplementary Figure S3A**) and hermaphrodites
(**Supplementary Figure S3B**). In nematode sperm, chromosomes are surrounded by a poorly
defined halo that presumably lacks nuclear membranes (Wolf et al. 1978). GFP::BAF-1(G12T) is
also visible in sperm in hermaphrodites (**Supplementary Figure S3C**), indicating that BAF-1's
localization is not affected by the NPGS mimicking mutation. In contrast to BAF-1, we could not
detect endogenously tagged LMN-1 or EMR-1 in sperm of hermaphrodites (**Supplementary**
Figure S3D), nor LMN-1 in sperm in males (**Supplementary Figure S3E**). Moreover, the *baf-*
1(G12T) mutation did not induce localization of GFP::LMN-1 to sperm (**Supplementary Figure**
S3F).

We next evaluated if the NGPS mutation affected lifespan, as would be expected for a progeria
model. At 20°C, *baf-1(G12T)* hermaphrodites lived as long as control animals (**Supplementary**
Figure S1D). However, because lifespan correlates inversely with fertility (Arantes-Oliveira et al.
2002; Berman and Kenyon 2006), we speculated that the lower brood size in *baf-1(G12T)* at
restrictive temperature might counteract a potential shortening of their lifespan. To address
this, we first evaluated lifespan at 25°C in the presence and absence of the transcription factor
DAF-16, which is required to correlate fecundity with longevity (Hsin and Kenyon 1999). As
expected, depletion of DAF-16 reduced lifespan in wild-type hermaphrodites, as well as in *baf-*
1(G12T) (p < $2e^{-16}$; **Figure 1E**). Importantly, the *baf-1(G12T)* mutation caused a reduction in
median lifespan at the restrictive temperature both in the presence (7% reduction; p = $8e^{-13}$) and
absence (9% reduction; p = $7e^{-10}$) of DAF-16 (**Figure 1E**). To completely eliminate the
confounding effect of the germ line on lifespan, we ablated the germ line by using the *glp-4(ts)*
mutation, which prevents germ cell proliferation at 25°C (Beanan and Strome 1992). We found
that median lifespan of sterile *glp-4(ts)* worms was reduced from 16 to 12 days (25% reduction;
p < $2e^{-16}$) by the *baf-1(G12T)* allele (**Figure 1F**). These data indicate that the NGPS mutation
affects fecundity and lifespan in a temperature-dependent manner.

Accelerated age-induced nuclear morphology deterioration in *baf-1(G12T)* mutants

Alterations in NE morphology is associated with aging in several species, including *C. elegans*
(Haithcock et al. 2005; Perez-Jimenez et al. 2014) and also in human progeria syndromes
(Fragoso-Luna and Askjaer 2023). We therefore investigated morphology of nuclei in
hypodermal cells of wild-type and *baf-1(G12T)* animals at different ages. LMN-1 and EMR-1
endogenously tagged with GFP and mCherry (mCh), respectively, were used to visualize the NE
at day 1, 6 and 8 of adulthood in worms raised at 25°C. We classified nuclei based on their
morphology as previously described (Perez-Jimenez et al. 2014), except that we introduced a
fourth class to describe the most irregular nuclei (see Materials and Methods). Thus, while class
I nuclei have smooth, uniform NE signal, classes II-IV represent progressive deterioration of
nuclear morphology. At day 1, class I represented ~35% of nuclei from wild-type worms and only

~20% of nuclei from *baf-1(G12T)* mutants when evaluated with either GFP::LMN-1 or EMR-1::mCh (**Figure 2A-D**; p < 0.03; **Supplementary Table S1**). At day 6, the number of class I nuclei in all strains was very reduced so we combined class I+II. Whereas class I+II represented ~90% of nuclei from wild-type worms at day 1, at day 6, this fraction was reduced to 27% according to GFP::LMN-1 (**Figure 2A, B**) and 42% according to EMR-1::mCh (**Figure 2C, D**). The slightly more deteriorated morphology in animals expressing GFP::LMN-1 compared to EMR-1::mCh suggested that tagging of LMN-1 affects it function, as described (Bone et al. 2016)(see also below). Regardless of the marker, significantly fewer class I and II nuclei and more class III and IV nuclei were observed in *baf-1(G12T)* on day 6. Scoring EMR-1::mCh, class I+II nuclei decreased from 42% in wild-type animals to 8% in *baf-1(G12T)* mutants (**FIG 2D**; p < $2.2e^{-16}$; **Supplementary Table S1**). Similarly, the frequency of class IV nuclei based on GFP::LMN-1 localization increased from 10% in control animals to 23% in *baf-1(G12T)* mutants (**Figure 2B**; p = 0.0004; **Supplementary Table S1**). We also evaluated nuclear morphology after 8 days of adulthood at 25°C, which confirmed an increased deterioration in *baf-1(G12T)* with both NE markers (**Supplementary Figure S4; Supplementary Table S1**). We concluded that alterations in nuclear morphology are significantly accelerated in *baf-1(G12T)* mutants at 25°C.

Nuclear envelope accumulation of lamin and emerin is reduced by the *baf-1(G12T)* mutation

The amino acid residue mutated in NGPS patients is positioned close to the interface between BAF and lamin (Samson et al. 2018) and experimental evidence indicates that the interaction between the two proteins is weakened by the mutation (Janssen et al. 2022). However, another study suggested that the interaction was unaffected (Paquet et al. 2014). Because the localization of BAF and lamins are interdependent (Margalit et al. 2005), impaired interaction could drive reduced BAF-1 and lamin accumulation at the NE. To test the impact of baf-1(G12T) on LMN-1, EMR-1, and BAF-1 localization *in vivo*, we quantified these factors at the NE of hypodermal cells. We observed an increased variation and significantly lower median GFP::LMN-1 signal at the NE in *baf-1(G12T)* mutants, whereas the signal was unaffected in the nucleoplasm (**Figure 2E**). Similarly, accumulation of EMR-1 at the NE was diminished by the *baf-1(G12T)* mutation (**Figure 2F**). In human NGPS cells, emerin was observed to be delocalized to the ER (Puente et al. 2011; Janssen et al. 2022), but we detected less cytoplasmic EMR-1::mCh signal in the mutant, indicating that this NGPS phenotype is not present in the *C. elegans* model. Instead, our data suggest that EMR-1 might have reduced expression when *baf-1* is mutated (see below).

Surprisingly, we found that the combination of *baf-1(G12T)* with the endogenously tagged *gfp::lmn-1* allele *(yc32)* led to a fully penetrant maternal effect lethal (*mel*) phenotype: homozygous *lmn-1(yc32[gfp::lmn-1]); baf-1(G12T)* embryos produced by hermaphrodites heterozygous for the *yc32* allele developed all into adults that laid dead eggs at 20°C (**Figure 3A**). We ruled out the possibility that the lethality was due to an unknown mutation in the genetic background of the *yc32* allele by using a different endogenous *gfp::lmn-1* allele (*jf98*), which also produced a 100% *mel* phenotype (**Supplementary Figure S5A**). In both cases, one copy of the wildtype *lmn-1* allele was sufficient to sustain normal development.

To determine the subcellular defects that could explain the lethality of the allelic combination *lmn-1(yc32[gfp::lmn-1]); baf-1(G12T)*, we recorded embryos by confocal 4D microscopy. Chromosomes were visualized by co-expression of mCh::HIS-58, which revealed segregation defects in early mitotic divisions and developmental arrest around 4-5h post-fertilization (**Supplementary Figure S5B**). The early chromosome segregation defects prompted us to investigate the embryos with higher temporal resolution. This uncovered abnormal pronuclear appearance, incomplete sealing of the NE after mitosis and frequent chromosome bridges (6/10 embryos), which potentially is the primary cause to the observed lethality (**Figure 3B; Supplementary Video S1**). Moreover, cell divisions were delayed (compare AB anaphase and P1 metaphase at 1049 sec in the control embryo versus 1149 sec in the *baf-1(G12T)* embryo).

Next, we analyzed endogenously tagged *gfp::baf-1* and *gfp::baf-1(G12T)* nematodes. Strikingly,
whereas >99% of eggs laid by homozygous *gfp::baf-1* hermaphrodites developed and hatched,
all eggs laid by homozygous *gfp::baf-1(G12T)* hermaphrodites (derived from balanced,
heterozygous hermaphrodites) were inviable (**Figure 3C**). Similarly to the *lmn-1(yc32[gfp::lmn-*
1]); baf-1(G12T) embryos, the *gfp::baf-1(G12T)* embryos arrested before elongation
(**Supplementary Figure S6A**). Pronuclear appearance was severely affected and, in most
embryos, the two pronuclei failed to juxtapose prior to the first division (**Figure 3D;**
Supplementary Video S2; 4/7 embryos). Chromosome segregation and postmitotic nuclear
reformation were abnormal in all *gfp::baf-1(G12T)* embryos, presumably being causative for the
early developmental arrest. Cell division delays were also evident in all mutant embryos.

Finally, we compared GFP::BAF-1 and GFP::BAF-1(G12T) expression in adults and found that
both proteins accumulated at the nuclear periphery in all somatic cells and in the germ line
(**Supplementary Figure S6B**). Quantifying the intensity at the NE or in the nucleoplasm of
hypodermal cells did not demonstrate any difference between wild-type and mutant BAF-1
(**Figure 3E**). A small reduction in cytoplasmic signal was observed for BAF-1(G12T), however, no
difference was detected in the ratio between nucleoplasmic/cytoplasmic signal (**Figure 3E**).
Taken together, our results are compatible with a model in which mutation of residue 12 of BAF
reduces the affinity for lamin, leading to a mild reduction in the accumulation of lamin as well
as emerin at the NE. Moreover, the mutation sensitizes BAF so tagging of either BAF-1(G12T) or
lamin with GFP has detrimental effects on chromosome segregation and NE assembly.

The DNA binding profile of BAF-1 is modified by the G12T mutation

BAF binds DNA *in vitro* without sequence specificity, and due to its location at the NE BAF has
been proposed to regulate chromatin organization (Zheng et al. 2000; Kind and van Steensel
2014). Moreover, human BAF A12T has been described to have altered DNA binding capacity
(Paquet et al. 2014), although others have disputed this claim (Marcelot et al. 2021). We decided
to test whether wild-type and mutant BAF-1 have different chromatin association profiles.
Because chromatin organization differs between tissues, subtle changes in chromatin
association of BAF-1(G12T) might not be detectable if averaging across multiple tissues. We
therefore performed tissue-specific DamID (DNA Adenine Methyltransferase Identification) by
expressing trace amounts of either Dam::BAF-1 or Dam::BAF-1(G12T) in two different tissues
using a FLP-FRT system (Munoz-Jimenez et al. 2017; Cabianca et al. 2019). We focused on the
hypodermis and the intestine because of skin atrophy and decreased subcutaneous fat in NGPS
patients (Cabanillas et al. 2011; Fisher et al. 2020).

DamID relies on the expression of the protein of interest fused to the DNA adenine
methyltransferase (Dam) of *Escherichia coli*. When the protein of interest binds chromatin, Dam
methylates GATC sites in close vicinity, which subsequently are identified through a series of
enzymatic reactions and deep sequencing (de la Cruz Ruiz et al. 2022). To normalize for
variations in chromatin accessibility, standard DamID protocols include a parallel sample based
on expression of Dam alone or Dam fused to a protein with no affinity for chromatin, such as
GFP. Thus, DamID can provide information about both chromatin accessibility and specific
binding profiles in the same experiment.

We first determined chromatin accessibility in L4 larvae from biological triplicates by binning
reads to 2kb bins (**Supplementary Figure S7A, B**). We identified 1924 bins with increased
accessibility in the hypodermis versus the intestine (3.8% of genome; FDR < 0.05) and 174 bins
with increased accessibility in the intestine (0.35% of genome). Examples of differential
accessibility include the genes *mua-6* and *dod-3*, which are expressed and more accessible in
hypodermis and intestine, respectively (**Figure 4A**). In contrast, we did not find evidence for
alterations in chromatin accessibility when comparing wild-type and *baf-1(G12T)* nematodes
and correlations were higher between the two genotypes within each replica than among

replicas of the same genotype (**Supplementary Figure S7A**). This suggests that BAF-1 does not
regulate compaction of interphase chromatin or that the mutation of residue 12 does not affect
this function.

We next calculated the log2 ratios between either Dam::BAF-1 or Dam::BAF-1(G12T) and
GFP::Dam to determine the binding profiles of BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T). To visualize the global
distribution of the two proteins, the genome was binned into 100 kb windows. This revealed an
arm-center-arm pattern, where frequent association to BAF-1 or BAF-1(G12T) was detected in
the distal thirds of all autosomes but not in the central parts (**Supplementary Figure S8B**). The
pattern was highly similar between the two tissues, with few exceptions, such as the left arms
of chrIII and chrIV. Comparing the log2 values across all samples showed that the two tissues are
more dissimilar than BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T) within each tissue (**Supplementary Figure S8A**).
The arm-center-arm pattern has been reported for other NE proteins, including LMN-1, EMR-1
and LEM-2 at different developmental stages (Ikegami et al. 2010; Towbin et al. 2012; Gonzalez-
Aguilera et al. 2014), as well as for the heterochromatin mark H3K9me (histone H3 methylated
on lysine 9) (Gerstein et al. 2010).

By increasing the resolution to 10 kb bins, we observed more continuous interaction of BAF-1
and BAF-1(G12T) on autosome arms in hypodermis versus intestine (**Figure 4B, C**). The G12T
mutation produced a small increase in association in chromosome centers specifically in the
hypodermis. We next identified bins significantly enriched for BAF-1 or BAF-1(G12T) association
and selected those for which the difference in log2 value between BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T) was
>0.58 (equal to a fold change of 1.5). For BAF-1 in hypodermis, 410 bins on autosomes (5%)
fulfilled this criterium and the vast majority (87%) were located in arms (**Supplementary Table
S2**; $p < 2.2e^{-16}$). In contrast, for BAF-1(G12T) in hypodermis, enrichment was mostly observed in
chromosome centers (**Supplementary Table S2**; 478 enriched bins; $p = 5.0e^{-10}$). More bins were
differentially associated with BAF-1 or BAF-1(G12T) in intestine compared to hypodermis, but
they were more evenly distributed. We concluded that both BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T) bound
predominantly to heterochromatin-enriched chromosome arms and that regions with subtle but
significant association to BAF-1(G12T) were also detected in chromosome centers in the
hypodermis.

BAF-1(G12T) differential gene association

Analysis at 2 kb bin and "gene level" (see Materials and Methods) enabled identification of genes
bound in the two tissues. Genome browser views illustrated again higher similarity between
BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T) within tissues than either protein between tissues (**Supplementary
Figure S8C**). Nevertheless, many bins were predominantly bound by either wild-type or mutant
BAF-1 (**Figure 4D; Supplementary Figure S8C**). In the hypodermis, we identified 5,467 protein
coding and non-coding genes bound by BAF-1 and 6,376 genes bound by BAF-1(G12T)
(**Supplementary Table S3**). 4,541 genes (62%) associated with both proteins, whereas 2,761
genes (38%) are specific to either wild-type (926) or mutant (1,835) BAF-1 (**Figure 4E**). In the
intestine, 8,442 genes and 7,412 genes were bound by BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T), respectively. Of
these, 5,410 genes (51%) were identified in both datasets, whereas 3,032 genes (29%)
associated specifically with BAF-1 and 2,078 genes (20%) specifically with BAF-1(G12T) (**Figure
4E**). Comparing all 4 datasets, 8,056 genes (62%) are present in at least two datasets whereas
4,839 genes (38%) are unique; 2,552 genes (20%) are bound by wild-type and mutant BAF-1 in
both tissues (**Supplementary Table S3**).

Analyzing the BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T)-bound genes for tissue enrichment (Angeles-Albores et al.
2016) retrieved the categories *Nervous system*, *Epithelial system*, *Male*, and *Amphid sheath cell*
in both hypodermis and intestine and by both wild-type and mutant BAF-1 (**Figure 4F;
Supplementary Table S3**). In contrast, the categories *Reproductive system*, *Germ line*, and *Male
distal tip* were enriched for binding to wild-type BAF-1, but not BAF-1(G12T) in the hypodermis

(**Figure 4F**). For all these categories, except *Epithelial system*, genes are generally inactive in the two tissues that we analyzed. This suggested that BAF-1 binding correlates inversely with gene expression (see Discussion regarding the *Epithelial system*).

Deregulation of ribosomal and cuticle genes in *baf-1(G12T)* mutants

We next used tissue-specific RNA polymerase DamID (RAPID) (Gomez-Saldivar et al. 2020; Fragoso-Luna et al. 2023) to identify genes expressed in hypodermis and intestine in wild-type and *baf-1(G12T)* mutants. In wild-type animals, 1,960 genes were detected as expressed in hypodermis and 1,585 genes in intestine (**Supplementary Table S4**). Of these, 491 genes were shared between the two tissues. To explore if association to BAF-1 correlates with expression, we calculated the median and average log2(Dam::BAF-1/GFP::Dam) values for genes expressed in both tissues, in only one of them or in neither. In the hypodermis, we found that the log2 values were lowest for genes expressed in this tissue, whereas genes expressed in intestine had intermediate values (**Figure 5A**). A similar picture emerged when analyzing genes expressed only intestine (**Figure 5B**). These data suggest that expressed genes are generally depleted for interaction with BAF-1.

By comparing hypodermal RAPID scores between wild-type and *baf-1(G12T)* we identified 36 genes that were reproducibly upregulated in the mutant and 26 genes that were downregulated (**Figure 5C**; **Supplementary Table S4**). More genes were deregulated in the intestine with 76 genes being more expressed in *baf-1(G12T)* and 53 genes being repressed (**Figure 5D**; **Supplementary Table S4**). Although only 0.9-2.5% of expressed genes in the two tissues were deregulated, gene ontology (GO) analysis revealed a significant overrepresentation of several GO terms. Genes related to histone acetylation, proton transport and ribosomes were deregulated in both tissues, whereas other classes appeared only in hypodermis (e.g. cuticle components) or intestine (**Figure 5E**).

Although we found that expressed genes are generally devoid of interaction with BAF-1, we speculated that the deregulation of the genes identified in our RAPID experiments could be related to altered BAF-1 binding. We plotted the DamID scores obtained with Dam::BAF-1(G12T) versus Dam::BAF-1 for the deregulated genes, focusing initially on the intestine because of the higher number of deregulated genes. The majority of deregulated genes had negative log2 scores, implying more frequent interaction with GFP::Dam than with either Dam::BAF-1 or BAF-1(G12T). Surprisingly, both upregulated (**Figure 6A**) and downregulated (**Figure 6B**) genes had higher log2 scores for BAF-1(G12T) compared to the wild-type protein. This result indicates that deregulated genes are bound more often when BAF-1 it mutated. Two exceptions appeared among the downregulated genes: F14E5.8 (an uncharacterized protein with no obvious ortholog in vertebrates) and *emr-1*, which both were bound by BAF-1 but not BAF-1(G12T) (**Figure 6B**). Whether BAF-1 is involved in activation of these genes remains to be tested. We also noted that among the 129 deregulated genes in the intestine, 13 encode ribosomal proteins (Q value = $2.4e^{-9}$). Strikingly, all 5 upregulated and 7/8 downregulated ribosomal genes had higher log2 scores with BAF-1(G12T) than with BAF-1 (**Figure 6A-C**; p = 0.0009). The genes that were deregulated in the hypodermis showed little difference in their interaction with the two versions of BAF-1 (**Supplementary Figure S9A, B**). However, genes encoding cuticle constituents were overrepresented (8/62 genes, Q value = $1.2e^{-6}$) and 7 of these showed decreased interaction with BAF-1(G12T) compared to BAF-1 (**Supplementary Figure S9C**; p = 0.03). Thus, although there is no uniform correlation between changes in association to BAF-1 and changes in gene expression, several gene classes appear to have specific behaviors.

BAF-1(G12T) induces alterations in stress resistance

Cells derived from HGPS patients suffer chronic oxidative stress and stimulation of antioxidant pathways can reverse cellular HGPS phenotypes (Kubben et al. 2016). Because of the similarities between NGPS and HGPS, we speculated that *baf-1(G12T)* mutants might be hypersensitive to

oxidative stress. Surprisingly, we observed that *baf-1(G12T)* mutants survived longer than
control animals upon exposure to tert-butyl hydroperoxide (**Figure 7A**; $p < 2e^{-16}$). Based on this
result, we tested if the *baf-1(G12T)* mutants displayed changes in resistance to other systemic
stressors. Gene ontology analysis suggested an enrichment in genes involved in *Response to X-*
ray baf-1(G12T) mutants. We therefore exposed young adults to DNA damaging ultraviolet light
and scored survival in the progeny. *baf-1(G12T)* mutants exhibited reduced survival in 7/8
samples (**Figure 7B**; p = 0.04), indicating that the ability to repair UV-induced DNA damage is
compromised by the NGPS mutation. We next tested the response to acute heat stress, which
provokes protein misfolding and aggregation and consequently activation of several response
pathways, such as heat shock response, unfolded protein response and autophagy. When
incubated at 35°C, the median survival of control hermaphrodites was 6 h versus 5 h for *baf-*
1(G12T) mutants (**Figure 7C**; p = 0.00001). Thus, mutation of BAF-1 led to significantly reduced
heat stress resistance and further studies should determine which response pathway(s) is
impaired. We concluded that the NGPS mutation causes increased sensitivity to certain stress
factors, but also that the mutation can protect against oxidative stress, which contrasts the
situation in HGPS.

DISCUSSION

The need for a deeper understanding of healthy aging is becoming increasingly important, as
the life expectancy of the world population has augmented in the last century. Studies on
accelerating aging diseases have provided insight on different pathways that are altered during
physiological aging, but specific mechanisms underlying these conditions have also emerged.
The use of animal models is an instrumental source of knowledge due to the possibility of
studying the effect of mutations and interventions at multiple scales. In this study, we
established *C. elegans* as a model to study how a progeria-causing mutation in BAF affects
nuclear organization, gene expression and physiology. Our work has provided insight not only
to the differences in chromatin association between wild-type and mutant BAF-1 but also on
tissue-specific interactions of BAF-1 with predominantly silent genes. The observation that
nuclear morphology deteriorated faster in *baf-1(G12T)* mutants argues that *C. elegans* is a
relevant model to investigate NGPS. Importantly, the differential sensitivities to irradiation,
temperature and oxidative stress suggest a complex organismal response to the G12T
substitution in BAF-1 and warrant further investigation. Recently, *Drosophila* was reported as
another invertebrate NGPS model, which revealed defects in centromere function and ovary
homeostasis (Duan et al. 2023). We anticipate that these two relatively simple animal models
will provide important platforms for both discovery and validation of potential targets and
treatments.

NGPS patient-derived fibroblasts exhibits partial delocalization of emerin from the NE to the
cytoplasm (Puente et al. 2011; Janssen et al. 2022). Although we observed a mild but significant
decrease in NE accumulation of EMR-1, we did not see an increase in cytoplasmic EMR-1 levels.
The behavior of emerin in the *Drosophila* NGPS model (Duan et al. 2023) was like the situation
in *C. elegans*, suggesting that emerin might be affected by the NGPS mutation in a species and/or
cell type-specific manner, for instance due to the presence or absence of other interaction
partners. NE accumulation of LMN-1 was also reduced in *baf-1(G12T)* mutants, which is
compatible with a model in which 1) lamin depends on BAF to localize at the NE (Margalit et al.
2005) and 2) the affinity of BAF for lamin is reduced by the NGPS mutation (Samson et al. 2018;
Janssen et al. 2022). We found that localization of BAF-1 itself was unaffected in the NE of *C.*
elegans somatic and germline tissues. This result contrasts with observations in flies, where the
NGPS mutation led to reduced NE accumulation (Duan et al. 2023). Different behaviors of BAF
A12T in human cells have been reported: ectopic expression showed in one study no difference
in the accumulation of wild-type and mutant BAF at the NE (Paquet et al. 2014), whereas another

study concluded that NE accumulation of BAF A12T was impaired (Puente et al. 2011). Finally,
using antibodies to compare endogenous BAF localization in control and NGPS fibroblasts found
a reduced nucleocytoplasmic ratio in the latter (Janssen et al. 2022).

Tagging BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T) endogenously with GFP revealed a striking difference during
early development. Whereas tagging of wild-type BAF-1 had no obvious effect on fitness at any
stage of development, *gfp::baf-1(G12T)* embryos suffered severe nuclear appearance and
chromosome segregation defects already from the 1 cell-stage and all died before hatching. This
was in stark contrast with the ~100% viability of untagged *baf-1(G12T)* embryos. Surprisingly,
endogenous GFP tagging of LMN-1 also caused a fully penetrant embryonic lethal phenotype
when combined with the *baf-1(G12T)* allele. This lethality seemed specific to LMN-1 because
emr-1::mCh; baf-1(G12T) individuals developed normally. Moreover, timelapse recordings
unraveled similar defects in early *gfp::baf-1(G12T)* and *gfp::lmn-1; baf-1(G12T)* embryos. One
possible explanation is that GFP physically interferes with the interaction between BAF-1 and
LMN-1 and that this is only critical when BAF-1 carries the G12T mutation. Steric hindrance can
be envisioned both in the case of N-terminal tagging of BAF-1 because of proximity of BAF's N
terminus to the BAF·lamin interface, and in the case of N-terminal tagging of LMN-1 because
lamin dimers form head-to-tail polymers where the BAF-interacting globular domain of lamin
might be in proximity with the N terminus of the neighboring lamin molecule (Turgay et al. 2017;
Samson et al. 2018). In support of this hypothesis, animals with endogenously tagged LMN-1
and EMR-1 (*gfp::lmn-1; emr-1::mCh*) were fully viable, whereas we could not create a strain that
was homozygous for endogenous GFP::LMN-1 and mCh::BAF-1 (data not shown). We conclude
that insertion of fluorescent tags has a dramatic effect in *baf-1(G12T)* nematodes as well as in
flies (Duan et al. 2023). Although further studies are needed to determine the molecular
mechanism, we note that the high lethality of *gfp::lmn-1; baf-1(G12T)* embryos provides an ideal
sensitized genetic background to screen for suppressors (Breusegem et al. 2022).

Tissue-specific DamID unveiled that BAF-1 bound predominantly to the distal arms of
chromosomes, which are characterized by accumulation of repetitive elements and
heterochromatin marks, in particular methylation of histone H3 on lysine 9 (Gerstein et al. 2010;
Ahringer and Gasser 2018). In accordance with BAF-1's direct interactions with LMN-1, EMR-1
and LEM-2, DamID and chromatin immunoprecipitation profiles of these three proteins also
show enrichment in chromosome arms (Ikegami et al. 2010; Towbin et al. 2012; Gonzalez-
Aguilera et al. 2014). Although the profiles of BAF-1 in hypodermis and intestine overlapped
closely throughout most of the genome, we also detected regions larger than 100 kb that only
interacted with BAF-1 in one of the tissues. At the level of individual genes, we found that
expressed genes identified in our tissue-specific RAPID experiments were largely devoid of
interaction with BAF-1. Although this was expected, based on the trend that genes positioned
at the nuclear periphery are often transcriptionally silent (Ahringer and Gasser 2018; Manzo et
al. 2022), our study represents the first mapping of BAF binding sites at gene resolution in any
species. We observed an enrichment of BAF-1 at genes related to the nervous system and male-
specific structures both in hypodermis and intestine where these genes are mostly silent. The
appearance of the category *Epithelial system* as enriched for BAF-1 binding in hypodermis and
intestine was surprising because we expected genes in this category to be expressed in these
tissues. However, *Epithelial system* encompasses several thousand genes and inspection of the
BAF-1-bound genes in this category revealed that <3% were detected as expressed in the
hypodermis in our RAPID experiments or in another recent hypodermal transcriptomic dataset
(Katsanos et al. 2021) (data not shown). We therefore concluded that BAF-1 binding in general
correlates inversely with gene expression.

On a global scale, the chromatin association profile of BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T) were highly
similar, indicating that the NGPS mutation does not provoke chromosome repositioning.
However, many changes were observed at the level of a few kb. In each of the two tissues, BAF-

1 and BAF-1(G12T) bound 7,302-10,520 protein coding and non-coding genes (16-23% of all
genes). More than half of the genes (51-62%) were shared between the wild-type and the
mutant protein, whereas the number of uniquely bound genes ranged from 926 to 3,032 (13-
29%). In the hypodermis, the different binding profiles manifested in several tissue enrichment
analysis terms appearing only with wild-type BAF-1 (*Reproductive system*, *Germ line*, and *Male
distal tip*). Despite the large number of genes that showed differences in association to BAF-1
versus BAF-1(G12T), relatively few genes were detected as deregulated. DamID-based methods,
such as RAPID and TaDa, use RNA polymerase occupancy as a reliable proxy for gene expression
(Southall et al. 2013; Gomez-Saldivar et al. 2020; Katsanos et al. 2021). However, subtle changes
in transcription might not be detectable. Among the deregulated genes, several were related to
metabolic processes (e.g. *Proton transport, ATP generation*, *Mitochondrial protein import*, etc.)
and chromatin regulation (*Histone acetylation*). The most frequent deregulated genes were
Cuticle components in the hypodermis and *Ribosome components* in both tissues. Seven of the
eight deregulated cuticle genes in the hypodermis associated less frequently with BAF-1(G12T)
than with BAF-1. For ribosomal genes the correlation was even more pronounced and in the
opposite direction: 12 of the 13 deregulated ribosomal genes in the intestine associated less
frequently with BAF-1(G12T) than with BAF-1. Surprisingly, in the intestine, both upregulated
and downregulated genes bound more frequently to the mutant BAF-1 protein. The genes that
changed both association with BAF-1 and expression level in the context of the G12T mutation
might represent primary NGPS alterations. Importantly, translation levels and fidelity were
observed to be altered in NGPS fibroblasts and depletion of ribosome components could
improve several cellular parameters (Breusegem et al. 2022).

Limited information is available on fertility in progeria patients (Donadille et al. 2013), but
mutations in components of the NE LINC (linker of nucleoskeleton and cytoskeleton) complex
cause infertility in several animal species (Link and Jantsch 2019). We observed a strong
reduction in brood size of *baf-1(G12T)* hermaphrodites at 25°C, which at least in part could be
ascribed to a diminished presence of sperm in the spermatheca. Sperm production in
hermaphrodites occurs during the L4 stage. The observation that the brood size phenotype
depended on incubation at 25°C during L4 stage or before points towards sperm-related defects.
Moreover, more than one third of the oocytes that passed through the spermatheca of *baf-
1(G12T)* hermaphrodites on day 1 of adulthood were not fertilized, despite sperm still being
present. This fertility defect was rescued by mating with wild-type males, suggesting that *baf-
1(G12T)* sperm were abnormal but oocytes unaffected. Mating feminized worms to *baf-1(G12T)*
males produced significantly fewer progeny compared to *fog-2* males, suggesting *baf-1(G12T)*
also causes defective male in sperm. Sperm, in contrast to oocytes, lack a typical nuclear
membrane. Instead, a halo on undefined composition encapsulates sperm DNA, RNA, and
centrioles (Wolf et al. 1978). In this study, we found that BAF-1 but neither LMN-1 nor EMR-1
was present in mature sperm in adults of both sexes. Moreover, the *baf-1(G12T)* mutation did
not alter this behavior. It is therefore possible that BAF-1 has a specific role in spermatogenesis
that is affected by the NGPS mutation, but further studies are required to explore this.

Stress resistance correlates positively with longevity, whereas alterations in stress response
pathways are intrinsically linked to diseases (Soo et al. 2023). In this context, we consider the
reduced resistance of *baf-1(G12T)* mutants to temperature stress and UV irradiation reported
in this study as a reflection of an overall impaired health span. We envision that they can be
explored as traits in future experiments designed to identify genes or compounds that improve
the health of *baf-1(G12T)* nematodes. However, the *baf-1(G12T)* mutation increased resistance
to oxidative stress, highlighting the complex interplay between different stress response
pathways and the need to evaluate potential interventions in multiple conditions to minimize
negative side effects. In this aspect, invertebrate models, like nematodes and flies, are very
attractive due to easy manipulation, low cost, and fast generation times (Yamamoto et al. 2024).

In conclusion, we have characterized the effect of introducing in *C. elegans* a mutation described to cause NGPS in humans. Our results support the proposal that the NGPS mutation induces changes in BAF's interaction with lamin and they are also consistent with the hypothesis that the mutation alters BAF's affinity for chromatin. Importantly, *baf-1(G12T)* mutants reproduce several progeria phenotypes, including reduced lifespan, accelerated nuclear deterioration, lower fertility and altered stress resistance. We propose that these characteristics make *C. elegans* a relevant model to study the molecular mechanisms of NGPS and to explore possible interventions. Hopefully, combining the advantages of a simple *in vivo* model with those of human cell and organoid cultures will lead to the discovery of efficient therapies.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Nematode strains and transgenesis

Strains were maintained at 16°C or 20°C on Nematode Growth Medium (NGM) petri dishes seeded with *Escherichia coli* OP50 using standard *C. elegans* methods (Stiernagle 2006). New strains were generated by MosSCI (Frøkjær-Jensen et al. 2012; Dobrzynska et al. 2016a), CRISPR/Cas9 (Arribere et al. 2014; Paix et al. 2015; Schwartz and Jorgensen 2016) and crossing of existing strains. Descriptions and genotypes of all strains are listed in **Supplementary Table S5**. The N2 strain was used as wild-type reference.

Molecular cloning

Plasmids pBN296 *hsp16.41p>mCh::his-58>dam::baf-1* and pBN298 *hsp16.41p>mCh::his-58>dam::baf-1(G12T)* for DamID were constructed by amplifying *baf-1* and *baf-1(G12T)* with primers B925 and B926 (see primer sequences in **Supplementary Table S6**) using genomic DNA as template. The PCR product was digested with BglII and NheI and inserted into plasmid pBN209 *hsp16.41p>mCh::his-58>dam::emr-1* (Cabianca et al. 2019) digested with the same enzymes to replace *emr-1*.

Plasmid pBN566 *emr-1p::emr-1::mCh* with Frt sites in the first introns of *emr-1* and mCh was made by insertion of a synthetic gBlock B840 into plasmid pBN20 (Morales-Martinez et al. 2015), which contains 1568 bp upstream of the *emr-1* start codon, the *emr-1* CDS, mCh and 301 bp downstream of the *emr-1* stop codon.

Plasmid pBN180 to insert and express sgRNAs from the promoter of R07E5.16 (WBGene00014484) was derived from pDD162 (Dickinson et al. 2013) by whole-plasmid PCR with NEB Q5 polymerase and primers B633 and B634, deleting the Cas9 cassette. Plasmid pBN180 was further modified by whole-plasmid PCR with primers B780 and B781 to generate pBN215 that enables expression of sgRNA(E+F) (Ward 2015). Plasmids pBN207, pBN240 and pBN485 to express sgRNAs corresponding to *dpy-10*, *emr-1* 3'-end and *emr-1* 5'-end, respectively, were generated by whole-plasmid PCR with primer B635 and either primer B724 (*dpy-10*), B825 (*emr-1* 3'-end) or B838 (*emr-1* 5'-end) using either pBN180 (*dpy-10*) or pBN215 (*emr-1*) as PCR template. All DNA oligonucleotides were purchased from IDT.

CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing

Strain BN1007 *+/mT1 [umnIs34] II; baf-1(bq24[G>F>P::baf-1[G12T]])/mT1 [dpy-10(e128)] III* was generated by microinjection of targeting plasmid pBN313 (Munoz-Jimenez et al. 2017) at 65 ng/µl into the gonads of BN868 *baf-1(bq19[G12T]) unc-119(ed3) III* young adult hermaphrodites together with plasmids #1286 *eft-3p::Cas9* ((Friedland et al. 2013); 25 ng/µl), pBN1 *lmn-1p::mCh::his-58* ((Rodenas et al. 2012); 10 ng/µl), pCFJ90 *myo-2p::mCh* ((Frøkjær-Jensen et al. 2008); 2.5 ng/µl) and pCFJ104 *myo-3p::mCh* ((Frøkjær-Jensen et al. 2008); 5 ng/µl). Successful modification of the *baf-1(G12T)* locus was confirmed by detection of fluorescent fusion protein in the NE, absence of ectopic mCherry expression from the co-injection markers and Sanger

sequencing. The *unc-119(+)* selection marker was next excised by microinjection with Cre
expression plasmid pMLS328 (Schwartz and Jorgensen 2016). Finally, uncoordinated
hermaphrodites were outcrossed to N2 males to remove the *unc-119(ed3)* allele and balanced
with mT1.

Strain BN1024 *emr-1(bq34[emr-1::mCh]) I* was generated by microinjection of repair template
plasmid pBN566 at 50 ng/μl into the gonads of N2 young adult hermaphrodites together with
plasmid #1286 *eft-3p::Cas9* (50 ng/μl), sgRNA plasmids (pBN207, pBN240 and pBN485; 25 ng/μl
each) and *dpy-10* single-stranded repair template B725 (500 nM). Successful modification of the
emr-1(G12T) locus was confirmed by detection of fluorescent fusion protein in the NE and
Sanger sequencing followed by outcrossing twice to N2.

Strain PMX375 was generated by CRISPR-mediated gene editing, introducing the mutation
c.34_35GG>AC into the endogenous *baf-1* locus, and then six times outcrossed to N2, to
eventually produce the strain BN808 *baf-1(bq19[G12T]) III*.

Mos1-mediated single-copy integration

Single-copy insertion of tissue-specific DamID constructs into the *ttTi5605* locus on chrII was
done by microinjection into the gonads of EG4322 young adult hermaphrodites. Plasmids
pBN296 and pBN298 carrying *unc-119(+)* as selection marker were injected at 50 ng/μl together
with pCFJ601 *eft-3p::Mos1* ((Frøkjær-Jensen et al. 2012), 50 ng/μl), pBN1 (10 ng/μl), pCFJ90 (2.5
ng/μl) and pCFJ104 (5 ng/μl). Integration of the constructs was confirmed by PCR and heat-
inducible expression of mCh::HIS-58.

Lifespan assay

Lifespan assays were performed as described (Haithcock *et al.* 2005). Animals were examined
every 1–3 days and transferred to fresh plates every day for the first 5 days and then every 5–7
days. For experiments involving RNA interference (RNAi), plates contained 1 mM IPTG and 25
μg/ml ampicillin were seeded with 100 μl of *E. coli* HT115 bacterial culture the previous day.
Control and *daf-16* RNAi proceeded from the Ahringer RNAi library (Kamath et al. 2003). Animals
that crawled off the plate or displayed extruded internal organs or internal hatching were
censored. Animals were considered dead when they failed to respond to gentle touch. Kaplan–
Meir curves were prepared and analyzed with R (R version 3.6.3) and R Studio (Version 1.1.463;
(Team 2020)). All experiments were performed at least in triplicate and combined, except the
results represented in Supplementary Figure S1D. Statistical analysis was performed by using
the R package survival that provides the chi-square statistic for a test of equality.

Brood size assay

620 Three to five L4 worms per strain and per replica were individually picked on NGM plates seeded
621 with *E. coli* OP50 and changed every 24 hours until eggs laying ceased. Parental animal that
622 crawled off the plate, dug into the agar, or suffered internal hatching precociously were
623 censored. Progeny was counted after 2 days of development. All experiments were performed
624 at least by triplicate. Statistical analysis was performed with R Studio using a two-tailed t-test.

Nuclear morphology assay

Three to five hermaphrodites per genotype grown at 25°C since L4 were observed at days 1, 6
and 8 after reaching L4 on each replica. Animals were anaesthetized with 10 mM levamisole and
mounted on thin 2 % agarose pads (de la Cruz Ruiz et al. 2022). A Nikon A1R microscope
equipped with a 60x objective was used to acquire confocal micrographs of hypodermal nuclei
every 1-2 μm from the surface of the worm to cover the entire depth of the hypodermis. Nuclear
morphology was classified into four groups without revealing the genotype of the specimens to
the researcher: class I) nuclei with uniform and smooth NE staining; class II) nuclei with
enhanced intranuclear staining of NE components and mildly lobulated nuclei; class III) nuclei

with highly irregular nuclear shape and accumulation of NE protein in bright foci concomitantly
with reduced peripheral signal; class IV) nuclei similar to class III but with protrusions of the NE
or ruptured NEs that release chromatin to the cytoplasm. All experiments were performed at
least by triplicate. Statistical analysis was performed by using Fisher's exact test in R Studio.

Quantification of fluorescence intensity

To quantify the fluorescence intensity of GFP::LMN-1, EMR-1::mCh, GFP::BAF-1 and GFP::BAF-
1(G12T), images of hypodermal nuclei were acquired as above and fluorescence intensity was
quantified with Fiji/ImageJ 2.1.0/1.53c (Schindelin et al. 2012) using the function Plot Profile of
a manually drawn, 5 pixel wide straight line across the entire nucleus. NE values were obtained
by averaging 3 consecutive values centered around the highest value on each side of the
nucleus. Nucleoplasm intensity values were determined by averaging consecutive 5 values from
the middle between the 2 NE maxima. Cytoplasm intensity values were determined by averaging
3 consecutive values 1 µm away from the NE on each side of the nucleus. Images of aged-
matched N2 worms were used as background. Statistical analysis was performed with R Studio
using a two-tailed t-test. Whereas quantification was performed on raw 12 bits images, identical
adjustment of brightness and contrast was applied to all comparable panels within each figure
panels.

Time lapse recordings

Embryos were obtained by cutting open gravid hermaphrodites using two 21-gauge needles,
mounted on a coverslip in 3 µl of M9 buffer. The coverslip was placed on a 2% agarose pad. For
high temporal resolution videos, 1 cell-stage embryos were recorded with a Yokogawa CSU-X1
spinning disc confocal scanning unit mounted on a Olympus IX-81 microscope equipped with
491 nm and 561 nm lasers and a 100x objective. Acquisition parameters were controlled by
MetaMorph software (v7.8.13.0). Z stack series consisting of 17 slices separated by 0.3 µm were
acquired every 12.5-20.4 sec followed by maximum projection for each time point. For
recordings of the entire embryonic development, coverslips were sealed with VALAP to avoid
desiccation and 5 confocal sections separated by 2 µm were acquired every 10 minutes on a
Nikon A1R microscope equipped with a 60x objective, Nikon Perfect Focusing System and 488
nm and 561 nm lasers. Single confocal sections were used for mounting figures. Room
temperature was 20-23°C. Images were processed using FIJI software, always applying identical
settings to control and mutant recordings.

Resistance to ultraviolet irradiation

For every replica, 12-15 L4 hermaphrodites were isolated and grown at 20°C. Next day, five of
these worms were transferred to a new dish an irradiated in a Hoefer UVC 500 UV Crosslinker,
with a dose of 25 J/m2. In parallel, another five worms were isolated but were not exposed to
UV. Both, irradiated and non-irradiated worms were incubated for 2 hours at 20°C. Then, after
removing the adults, eggs were counted, and plates were incubated at 20°C. The day after,
larvae and non-hatched eggs were quantified. Statistical analysis was performed with R Studio
using a two-tailed paired t-test.

Heat stress assay

L4 worms were picked the day before the assay and maintained overnight at 20°C. The day of
the assay, thermotolerance resistance was evaluated by transferring 20 young adults to an NGM
plate without bacteria and incubated in a water bath at 35°C. Viability was scored every hour
after 2 hours and death was determined by the lack of movement and/or pharyngeal pumping
after gentle prodding. The experiment was performed in triplicate and the combined data were
analyzed as described for lifespan above.

Oxidative stress assay

The animals were synchronized as L1 larvae by egg-prepping with hypochlorite (Stiernagle 2006)
and hatching in M9. L1 larvae were then seeded onto 6 cm NGM plates containing 1 mM IPTG
and 50 μg/ml carbenicillin seeded with *E. coli* HT115 (transformed with the L4440 plasmid).
Animals were grown at 15°C until the late L4 stage, followed by the addition of 5-Fluoro-2'-
deoxyuridine (50 μM final concentration) and shifted to 20°C. At day 2 of the adulthood, animals
were washed off the plates with M9 and transferred to plates containing 6 mM tert-butyl
hydroperoxide (tBOOH). Seeding density was approximately 50 animals per plate. Plates were
then incubated at 20°C and the animals' survival was recorded and analyzed by a fully
automated lifespan machine as previously described (Stroustrup et al. 2013). For each condition,
a minimum of 150 worms distributed over at least 4 separate plates was scored. The combined
data were analyzed as described for lifespan above.

Bacteria culture for DamID plates

E. coli GM119 *dam-* was grown by pre-inoculating 1-2 colonies from a fresh LB/agar plate in
liquid LB without antibiotics. The pre-inoculum was grown overnight at 37°C before transferring
1 ml of culture to a suitable volume of LB (depending on the numbers of plates to be seeded,
i.e. for 10 plates with a diameter of 10 cm prepare at least 10 ml culture) and incubated for 6
hours at 37°C. Next, 700 μl of bacteria culture was added to each 10 cm NGM plate, spread and
incubated overnight at 37°C.

Nematode culture for DamID

Worms were grown asynchronously at 20°C on NGM plates seeded with *E. coli* GM119 for at
least two generations before egg-prepping with hypochlorite. Hatched L1s were counted the
day after and 1000 L1s were aliquoted onto 10 cm NGM plates seeded with *E. coli* GM119 as
described above. Worms were grown at 20°C for 48 h before collecting 4000 L4 stage nematodes
per strain and washed 8 times with 15 ml of M9 with 0.01% Tween-20. Worms were transferred
to 1.5 ml tubes with M9 with 0.01% Tween-20 using Pasteur pipettes followed by two additional
washes. Supernatants were aspirated and aliquots of 30 μl were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen
and maintained at -80°C until DNA extraction.

DamID amplification, library preparation and sequencing

To purify genomic DNA, samples were lysed in 5 freeze/thaw cycles (1min in liquid nitrogen;
3min in 37C shaker) and processed with DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (QIAGEN #69504). DamID
was performed on 200-400 ng genomic DNA (gDNA; 200 ng was used for RNA polymerase DamID
[RAPID]; 400 ng was used for BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T) DamID) extracted from 4000 L4 animals
cultured and collected as indicated above. Two (RAPID) or three (BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T) DamID)
replicates were performed as described (de la Cruz Ruiz et al. 2022). For RAPID, a pool of 3 AdR
primers (B1436 AdR4N, B1437 AdR5N, B1438 AdR6N) and 14 PCR cycles were used. For BAF-1
and BAF-1(G12T) DamID we used B916 AdR and 22 PCR cycles. Successful amplification of Dam-
methylated genomic DNA yielded a smear of ~400-~1500 bp fragments when analyzed on
Agilent Bioanalyzer.

Either 40 ng (RAPID) or 400 ng (BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T) DamID) of PCR amplified fragments were
used for library preparation as described (de la Cruz Ruiz et al. 2022), using E7370 NEBNext®
Ultra™ DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina. Library amplicons' size distribution was checked to be
maintained as for PCR fragments indicated above followed by pooling, repurification and
sequencing on a Illumina NextSeq500 platform at EMBL GeneCore.

Bioinformatic analysis

FASTQ files from the NextSeq500 platform were processed in R Studio using the pipelines
RDamIDSeq (https://github.com/damidseq/RDamIDSeq) and RGeneDamIDSeq
(https://github.com/damidseq/-RGeneDamIDSeq-) (Sharma et al. 2016) for mapping of reads to

bins of fixed size (e.g. 2 kb, 10 kb or 100 kb) and to genes, respectively. The pipelines include a
quality check where only reads that contain the DamID adapter ("CGCGGCCGAG") and map to
GATC sites in the *C. elegans* genome are retained for further analysis. The number of reads
fulfilling these criteria ranged from 0.5 to 27 million (see **Supplementary Table S7**). Both
pipelines also provide mapped read numbers per individual GATC fragment. For mapping to
genes, the script was modified to include 500 bp distal to transcriptional start and termination
sites. UCSC genome version ce11 (BSgenome.Celegans.UCSC.ce11) was used for alignment.

For BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T) DamID the DESeq2 package (Love et al. 2014) was used to identify
bins with significantly more reads with either Dam::BAF-1 or Dam::BAF-1(G12T) compared to
GFP::Dam across the 3 replicas. A false discovery rate (FDR) of 0.05 was used as threshold. Next,
for each sample a pseudocount of 1 was added to each bin and the relative number of reads per
bin was calculated followed by averaging across the replicas. The ratio of Dam::BAF-1 or
Dam::BAF-1(G12T) to GFP::Dam was calculated for each bin and log2-transformed. Finally,
normalization was done by subtracting the genome-wide average log2 ratio from the log2 ratio
of each bin (Brueckner et al. 2020).

For RAPID, normalization of Dam::RPB-6 reads to GFP::Dam reads was performed using the
damidseq_pipeline package (https://owenjm.github.io/damidseq_pipeline/) (Marshall and
Brand 2015) on the bam files generated by the RDamIDSeq pipeline. Gene occupancy was
computed as log2(Dam::RPB-6/GFP::Dam) with polii.gene.call
(https://github.com/owenjm/polii.gene.call) using bedgraph output files from the
damidseq_pipeline and WBCel235 gene annotation. A FDR of 0.05 was used as threshold to call
transcribed genes.

For comparison of chromosome centers versus heterochromatin-rich distal arms, we used the
following border coordinates: ChrI 3745632 and 10809938, ChrII 4708341 and 11877168, ChrIII
3508994 and 9947268, ChrIV 7317812 and 12176625, ChrV 8125434 and 13849337, and ChrX
41919362 (Gonzalez-Aguilera et al. 2014). Pairwise Wilcoxon rank test values were calculated in
R.

Genome browser views and Venn diagrams were generated with the University of California
Santa Cruz Genomics Institute Genome Browser (http://genome.ucsc.edu; (Kent et al. 2002))
and jvenn (Web App) (Bardou et al. 2014), respectively. The WormBase Enrichment Suite
(http://www.wormbase.org/tools/enrichment/tea/tea.cgi; (Angeles-Albores et al. 2018)) was
used for tissue enrichment and gene ontology analysis.

Raw and processed DamID files are deposited at the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus
(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/).

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Temperature sensitive brood size and lifespan reduction caused by *baf-1(G12T)*
mutation. (A, B) Daily and total brood size was evaluated at 20°C (A) and at 25°C (B). For the
wild-type (WT; blue columns) control, 14 and 41 adults were analyzed at 20°C and 25°C,
respectively, whereas for *baf-1(G12T)* (red columns) the equivalent numbers were 11 and 42.
Day 0 corresponds to the 24h interval from L4 to young adult and henceforth. Unfertilized
oocytes (grey) were observed on *baf-1(G12T)* plates at 25°C already on day 0 and on control
plates from day 2. Columns and error bars represent mean and standard deviation, respectively.
(C, D) Presence of sperm in the spermatheca of wild-type and *baf-1(G12T)* hermaphrodites
grown at 25°C and expressing mCh::HIS-58 was evaluated on days 1, 2 and 3. Representative
images (C) with indication of spermatheca and sperm by dashed lines and arrows, respectively
and combined results (D) from at least 7 animals at each time point and each strain. Scale bar
represents 20 μM (E, F). Lifespan assay of wild-type and *baf-1(G12T)* hermaphrodites at 25°C
fed with either control or *daf-16* RNAi bacteria (E) or germline-ablated *glp-4(ts)* mutants
combined with either wild-type *baf-1* or *baf-1(G12T)* (F). Data combined from 3 (E) or 4 (F)
independent experiments; the number of animals is indicated in brackets. P values from two-
sided t-tests (A, B; asterisks and triangles refer to fertilized embryos and unfertilized oocytes,
respectively) and Chi-square (D-F) tests are indicated: * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; ***p<0.001;
****p<1e^{-9}.

Figure 2. Nuclear morphology deteriorates faster in *baf-1(G12T)* mutants. (A-D) Morphology
of hypodermal nuclei was classified on day 1 and 6 of adulthood in strains expressing GFP::LMN-
1 (green) and mCh::HIS-58 (magenta) (A, B) or EMR-1::mCh (C, D). Confocal micrographs (A, C)
and combined data from 4 independent experiments (B, D) are shown. Scale bars represent 10
μM (A) or 5 μM (C). Classes I-IV are defined in Materials and Methods; briefly class I corresponds
to nuclei with smooth, regular NE morphology and classes II-IV represent increasingly irregular
morphologies. The number of nuclei analyzed, and statistical tests are reported in
Supplementary Table S1. (E, F) Quantification of GFP::LMN-1 (E) and EMR-1::mCh (F) signal in
the NE, nucleoplasm and cytoplasm. Data from 2 independent experiments; at least 7 animals
were analyzed for each strain. In these and subsequent boxplots, the midline represents the
median and the upper and lower limits of the box correspond to the third and first quartile,
respectively. The whiskers extend to the lowest and higher observations but maximum up to 1.5
times the interquartile range. P values from two-sided t-tests are indicated: * p<0.05; ** p<0.01.

Figure 3. *baf-1(G12T)* worms are hypersensitive to GFP tagging. (A, C) Embryonic lethality was
quantified for hermaphrodites carrying combinations of *baf-1(G12T)* and *gfp::lmn-1(yc32)* as
indicated (A) or either wild-type (+), GFP::BAF-1 (GFP) or GFP::BAF-1(G12T) (GFP::G12T) (C). Each
symbol represents the average per 3-5 worms. (B, D) Selected time points from confocal
timelapse recordings of early embryos expressing GFP::LMN-1 (green) and mCh::HIS-58
(magenta) (B) or either BAF-1 or BAF-1(G12T) tagged endogenously with GFP (D). Arrowheads
and arrows indicate abnormal (pro-)NEs and failures in chromosome segregation, respectively.
Time is indicated relative to P0 anaphase onset. Scale bars represent 10 μM. (E) Quantification

of GFP::BAF-1 (blue; n=9 adult hermaphrodites) and GFP::BAF-1(G12T) (red; n = 7) intensity at
the NE of hypodermal nuclei, in the nucleoplasm and in the cytoplasm. The ratio between the
nuclear and cytoplasmic compartment is shown in the insert. P value from two-sided t-test is
indicated: * p<0.05. Data from 3 independent experiments.

Figure 4. Identification of tissue-specific BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T) chromatin association. (A)
Genome browser views of normalized GFP::Dam reads per 2 kb bins. The genes *mua-6* and *dod-*
3, which are expressed in hypodermis and intestine, respectively, are indicated. (B, C)
Normalized log2 values of Dam::BAF-1/GFP::Dam and Dam::BAF-1(G12T)/GFP::Dam ratios per
10 kb bins shown as genome browser view of chrII (B) and as box plots for all autosomes (C).
Grey bars above each track indicate enriched association to BAF-1 or BAF-1(G12T) (FDR < 0.05).
Chromosome arms were grouped based on the presence or absence of meiotic pairing centers
(PCs). P values from pairwise Wilcoxon Rank Sum Tests corrected for multiple testing (Benjamini
and Hochberg method): * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; ***p<0.001; ****p<1e^{-9}. For clarity, only selected
pairwise p values are indicated. (D) Normalized log2 values of Dam::BAF-1/GFP::Dam and
Dam::BAF-1(G12T)/GFP::Dam ratios per 2 kb bins shown as genome browser view of 500 kb
region from left arm of chrIII. Examples of regions enriched for association to either BAF-1 or
BAF-1(G12T) in the hypodermis are outlines with dashed boxed. (E, F) Venn diagram
representation (E) and Tissue Enrichment Analysis (F) of genes associated with BAF-1 or BAF-
1(G12T) in hypodermis or intestine. Total number of genes for each condition is shown in bracket
in E. The size and color of the circles in F reflect number of genes and p values adjusted for
multiple comparisons (Benjamini and Hochberg method; Q value), respectively.

Figure 5. Identification of differentially expressed genes. (A, B) Distribution of log2 values of
Dam::BAF-1/GFP::Dam and Dam::BAF-1(G12T)/GFP::Dam ratios per gene in hypodermis (A) and
intestine (B). Genes were separated in 4 categories: expressed in hypodermis and intestine (Hyp
& Int; 491 genes), hypodermis only (Hyp only; 1469 genes), intestine only (Int only; 1094) or not
detected as expressed by RAPID in any of the two tissues (Not expressed; 43330 genes). P values
from pairwise Wilcoxon Rank Sum Tests corrected for multiple testing (Benjamini and Hochberg
method) were <2e^{-14} for all comparisons in the hypodermis and <5e^{-6} for all comparisons in the
intestine. (C, D) Gene expression determined by RAPID in wild-type (x-axis) versus *baf-1(G12T)*
(y axis) in hypodermis (C) and intestine (D). Genes outside the dashed lines have average
differential log2 values >1 between the wild-type and the mutant (fold change >2). Genes
detected as differentially expressed in both replicas are indicated in blue (Genes up in *baf-*
1(G12T)) and red (Genes down in *baf-1(G12T)*). (E) Significant gene ontology terms identified
among differentially expressed genes (DEG), all combined, but also upregulated and
downregulated separately. The size and color of the circles reflect the number of DEGs and p
values adjusted for multiple comparisons (Benjamini and Hochberg method; Q value),
respectively.

Figure 6. Differentially expressed genes bind distinctively to BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T). (A-B)
Genes with increased (A) or decreased (B) expression in intestine of *baf-1(G12T)* mutants were
analyzed for association to wild-type BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T) in scatter plots (left; BAF-1
association on x axis; BAF-1(G12T) association on y axis) and box plots (right). Genes with
significantly higher association to Dam::BAF-1 or Dam::BAF-1(G12T) than to GFP::Dam are
indicated in red in scatter plots. Genes indicated in orange encode structural constituents of
ribosomes. Genes plotted in green are also deregulated in hypodermis (see **Supplementary**
Figure S9). (C) The association of differentially expressed genes encoding structural constituents
of ribosomes to BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T) in intestine. P values from two-sided paired t-tests,
excluding outliers in A-B, are indicated.

Figure 7. Altered stress resistance on *baf-1(G12T)* mutants. (A) Survival of young adult
hermaphrodites as function of exposure time to 6 mM tert-Butyl hydroperoxide. Numbers in
brackets indicate the number of animals analysed. (B) Percentage of embryos developing into

larvae after exposure of young adult hermaphrodites to either 0 (left) or 25 (right) J/m^2 dose of
UV light. Each point represents an independent replica (n=8). (C) Survival of young adult
hermaphrodites as function of incubation time at 35°C. Numbers in brackets indicate the
number of animals analysed. P values from Chi-squared tests (A, C) and two-sided paired t-test
(B) are indicated.

Supplementary Figure S1. *baf-1(G12T)* mutants have normal viability and lifespan at 20°C. (A)
The predicted 3-dimensional structure of *C. elegans* BAF-1 (rainbow-colored; Uniprot Q03565)
was superimposed onto the structure of human BAF (magenta; Uniprot O75531) using iCn3D
Structure Viewer (Wang et al. 2022) (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Structure/icn3d/). Residue
12 is highlighted in green. (B, C) The egg laying rate (B) and embryonic viability (C) were
determined for hermaphrodites grown at 20°C, 25°C or shifted from 20°C to 25°C when reaching
adulthood. (D) Lifespan assay of wild-type and *baf-1(G12T)* hermaphrodites at 20°C. The number
of animals analyzed is indicated in brackets. P values from two-sided t-test (B) and Chi-square
test (D) are indicated: ***p<0.001.

Supplementary Figure S2. Sperm defect caused by *baf-1(G12T)* mutation. (A) Progeny
produced at 25°C by day 1 wild-type and *baf-1(G12T)* adults either unmated or mated with wild-
type or *baf-1(G12T)* males as indicated. (B, C) Total (B) and daily (C) brood size produced at 25°C
by feminized *fog-2* animals mated with either *fog-2* or *baf-1(G12T)* males. Error bars represent
standard deviation. P values from two-sided t-test are indicated: * p<0.05; ** p<0.01;
***p<0.001.

Supplementary Figure S3. BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T) but not LMN-1 nor EMR-1 are present in
mature sperm. Confocal micrographs of males (A, E) and hermaphrodites (B-D, F) expressing
fluorescent proteins as indicated. Animals were wild-type for *baf-1*, except *baf-1(G12T)* in C and
F. Spermathecae of hermaphrodites and gonads of males are outlined; arrows indicate examples
of sperm.

Supplementary Figure S4. Nuclear morphology deteriorates faster in *baf-1(G12T)* mutants. (A-
D) Morphology of hypodermal nuclei was classified on day 8 of adulthood in strains expressing
GFP::LMN-1 (green) and mCh::HIS-58 (magenta) (A, B) or EMR-1:.mCh (C, D). Confocal
micrographs (A, C) and combined data from 4 independent experiments (B, D) are shown. Scale
bars represent 10 µM (A) or 5 µM (C). Classes I-IV are defined in Materials and Methods; briefly,
class I corresponds to nuclei with smooth, regular NE morphology and classes II-IV represent
increasingly irregular morphologies. The number of nuclei analyzed, and statistical tests are
reported in Supplementary Table S1.

Supplementary Figure S5. *baf-1(G12T)* worms are hypersensitive to GFP tagging of LMN-1. (A)
Embryonic lethality was quantified for hermaphrodites carrying combinations of *baf-1(G12T)*
and *gfp::lmn-1(jf98)* as indicated. Each symbol represents the average per 3-5 worms. (B)
Selected time points from confocal timelapse recording of 1 control and 3 *baf-1(G12T)* embryos
expressing endogenously tagged GFP::LMN-1 (green; allele *yc32*) and mCh::HIS-58 (magenta).
Arrows indicate failures in chromosome segregation. Scale bars represent 10 µM.

Supplementary Figure S6. *baf-1(G12T)* worms are hypersensitive to GFP tagging. (A) Selected
time points from confocal timelapse recording of 2 GFP::BAF-1 and 2 GFP::BAF-1(G12T)
endogenously tagged embryos co-expressing mCh::HIS-58 (magenta). Arrows indicate failures
in chromosome segregation. Scale bars represent 10 µM. (B) Confocal micrographs of
hermaphrodites expressing endogenously tagged GFP::BAF-1 or GFP::BAF-1(G12T) as indicated.

Supplementary Figure S7. Chromatin accessibility is unaffected in *baf-1(G12T)* mutants. (A)
Spearman correlation values for individual GFP::Dam samples with reads binned in 2 kb regions.
Note that the 2 tissues (hypodermis = hyp; intestine = int) cluster separately and, within each
tissue, the correlations between wild-type and *baf-1(G12T)* are higher than the correlations

between the three replicas. (B) Genome browser views of normalized GFP::Dam reads per 2 kb
bins for chrII.

Supplementary Figure S8. Variation in BAF-1 chromatin association is higher between tissues
than between wild-type BAF-1 and mutant BAF-1(G12T). (A) Pearson correlation values for log2
values (Dam::BAF-1/GFP::Dam or Dam::BAF-1(G12T)/GFP::Dam) binned in 100 kb regions. Note
that the 2 tissues (hypodermis = hyp; intestine = int) cluster separately and, within each tissue,
the correlations between wild-type and *baf-1(G12T)* are higher than the correlations between
the three replicas. (B, C) Normalized log2 values of Dam::BAF-1/GFP::Dam and Dam::BAF-
1(G12T)/GFP::Dam ratios per 100 kb bins for the entire genome (B) and per 2 kb bins as genome
browser view of 500 kb region from left arm of chrI (C). For clarity, the curves in B represent
rolling means across 3 consecutive bins. Grey bars above each track in C indicate enriched
association to BAF-1 or BAF-1(G12T) (FDR < 0.05). Examples of regions enriched for association
to either BAF-1 or BAF-1(G12T) in the intestine are outlines with dashed boxed.

Supplementary Figure S9. Differentially expressed genes encoding cuticle components bind
distinctively to BAF-1 and BAF-1(G12T). (A-B) Genes with increased (A) or decreased (B)
expression in hypodermis of *baf-1(G12T)* mutants were analyzed for association to wild-type
BAF-1 (x axis) and BAF-1(G12T) in scatter plots (left; BAF-1 association on x axis; BAF-1(G12T)
association on y axis) and box plots (right). Genes with significantly higher association to
Dam::BAF-1 or Dam::BAF-1(G12T) than to GFP::Dam are indicated in red in scatter plots. Genes
indicated in orange (and *col-63* indicated in red) encode structural constituents of the cuticle.
Genes plotted in green are also deregulated in intestine (see **Figure 6**). (C) The association of
differentially expressed genes encoding structural constituents of the cuticle to BAF-1 and BAF-
1(G12T) in hypodermis. P values from two-sided paired t-tests, excluding outliers in A-B, are
indicated.

Supplementary Video S1. Abnormal localization of GFP::LMN-1 and chromosome segregation
defects caused by *baf-1(G12T)*. Control (left) and *baf-1(G12T)* (right) embryos expressing
GFP::LMN-1 (green) and mCh::HIS-58 (magenta) were observed by spinning disk confocal
microscopy every 12.5 sec. Each time point represents maximum projections of 17 confocal
slices. Corresponds to Figure 3B.

Supplementary Video S2. Abnormal localization of GFP::BAF-1(G12T) and chromosome
segregation defects caused by *baf-1(G12T)*. Control GFP::BAF-1 (left) and GFP::BAF-1(G12T)
(right) embryos co-expressing mCh::HIS-58 (magenta; GFP in green) were observed by spinning
disk confocal microscopy every 20.4 sec. Each time point represents maximum projections of 17
confocal slices. Corresponds to Figure 3D.

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Figure 1

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