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Condensin I^{DC}, H4K20me1, and perinuclear tethering maintain X chromosome repression in *C. elegans*

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Abstract

Dosage compensation in *Caenorhabditis elegans* equalizes X-linked gene expression between XX hermaphrodites and XO males. The process depends on a condensin-containing dosage compensation complex (DCC), which binds the X chromosomes in hermaphrodites to repress gene expression. Condensin I^{DC} and an additional five DCC components must be present on the X during early embryogenesis in hermaphrodites to establish dosage compensation. However, whether the DCC's continued presence is required to maintain the repressed state once established is unknown. Beyond the role of condensin I^{DC} in X chromosome compaction, additional mechanisms contribute to X-linked gene repression. DPY-21, a non-condensin I^{DC} DCC component, is an H4K20me2/3 demethylase whose activity enriches the repressive histone mark, H4 lysine 20 monomethylation, on the X chromosomes. In addition, CEC-4 tethers H3K9me3-rich chromosomal regions to the nuclear lamina, which also contributes to X-linked gene repression. To investigate the necessity of condensin I^{DC} during the larval and adult stages of hermaphrodites, we used the auxin-inducible degradation system to deplete the condensin I^{DC} subunit DPY-27. While DPY-27 depletion in the embryonic stages resulted in lethality, DPY-27 depleted larvae and adults survive. In these DPY-27 depleted strains, condensin I^{DC} was no longer associated with the X chromosome, the X became decondensed, and the H4K20me1 mark was gradually lost, leading to X-linked gene derepression. These results suggest that the stable maintenance of dosage compensation requires the continued presence of condensin I^{DC}. A loss-of-function mutation in *cec-4*, in addition to the depletion of DPY-27 or the genetic mutation of *dpy-21*, led to even more significant increases in X-linked gene expression, suggesting that tethering heterochromatic regions to the nuclear lamina helps stabilize repression mediated by condensin I^{DC} and H4K20me1.

Author Summary

In some organisms, whether an individual becomes male, female, or hermaphrodite is determined by the number of their sex chromosomes. In the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*, males have one X chromosome, whereas hermaphrodites have two X chromosomes. This difference in the number of X chromosomes is crucial for deciding whether an individual becomes a hermaphrodite or a male. However, having two X chromosomes can lead to problems because it results in different gene expression levels, resulting in hermaphrodite lethality. To solve this issue, many organisms undergo a process called dosage compensation. Dosage compensation in *C. elegans* is achieved by a group of proteins known as the dosage compensation complex (DCC), which includes a protein called DPY-27. The function of DPY-27 is essential during early embryonic development. This study shows that in contrast to early embryonic development, larvae and adults can still survive when DPY-27 is missing. In these worms, all known mechanisms involved in dosage compensation are disrupted and the X is no longer repressed. Our results suggest that the maintenance of dosage compensation in nematodes is an active process, and that it is essential for survival

64 when the organism is developing, but once fully developed, the process becomes
65 dispensable.

Introduction

Chromosome conformation, subnuclear localization, and the post-translational
modifications of histones are closely linked to gene expression. The relationship
between these processes plays a crucial role in an organism's development, growth,
and survival. Dosage compensation in the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* offers an
excellent paradigm for exploring chromosome-wide gene regulation.

There is an inherent imbalance in chromosomal gene expression in species with
heterogametic sexes [1]. As in numerous other species with chromosome-based sex
determination, *C. elegans* has evolved several molecular mechanisms to ensure equal
gene expression from the sex chromosomes between the sexes [2]. This process is
known as dosage compensation. In *C. elegans,* hermaphrodites have two X
chromosomes (2X:2A), whereas males have only one X and no other sex chromosome
(1X:2A) [3]. This difference in chromosome count is essential for sex determination
[3,4]. However, without correction, in hermaphrodites, transcription from the X doubles
relative to males, leaving the hermaphrodite population inviable [5]. The dosage
compensation mechanism in *C. elegans* corrects for the differing numbers of sex
chromosomes by reducing the gene expression of the hermaphrodite X chromosomes
[6]. Dosage compensation requires orchestrating several gene-regulatory events across
X chromosomes in hermaphrodites to decrease gene expression by half.

A core component of the dosage compensation machinery in *C. elegans* involves a
specialized condensin complex. Condensins are highly conserved protein complexes
used in most cellular life, from prokaryotes to metazoans [7]. Condensin complexes are
characterized by their ring-shaped structure, and they hydrolyze ATP to extrude DNA
strands through the ring, thus leading to DNA coiling and loop formation [8]. This loop
extrusion activity is thought to be essential for chromosome compaction in mitosis and
meiosis [9]. Multicellular eukaryotes have two condensin complexes, condensin I and II,
functioning in mitosis and meiosis [10]. Similarly, *C. elegans* utilizes condensin I and II
complexes for chromosome compaction and segregation [11]. However, *C. elegans* has
a third condensin complex that specifically functions in dosage compensation of the X
chromosomes of hermaphrodites. The hermaphrodite-specific condensin is known as
condensin I^{DC} (Dosage Compensation) [11,12]. Condensins are composed of two
structural maintenance of chromosomes (SMC) proteins and three chromosome-
associated polypeptides (CAP) [13,14]. Condensin I^{DC} earns its name due to the four
shared protein subunits with condensin I. These subunits include the structural
maintenance of chromosomes (SMC) protein MIX-1 and the chromosome-associated
polypeptides (CAPs) CAPG-1, DPY-26, and DPY-28. The difference between
condensin I^{DC} and condensin I is the second SMC subunit, DPY-27 in condensin I^{DC}
and its paralog SMC-4 in condensin I [11,15,16]. Condensin I^{DC} compacts the dosage
compensated X chromosomes; thus, the X occupies less nuclear volume in

hermaphrodites than in males [17,18]. At a higher resolution, condensin I^{DC} remodels
the architecture of the X chromosomes to form topologically associating domains
(TADs) characterized by a higher frequency of *cis*-interactions within domains [19,20].

Beyond condensin I^{DC}, the complete dosage compensation complex (DCC) in *C.*
elegans includes the proteins SDC-1, SDC-2, SDC-3, DPY-30, and DPY-21 [11,21–23].
Together, these ten proteins bind and spread across the X chromosomes in
hermaphrodites, inhibiting RNA Pol II binding, thus lowering transcriptional output by
half [24]. One of the non-condensin DCC subunits is DPY-21 [22]. It contains a Jumonji
C domain found in histone demethylases. DPY-21 has been shown to demethylate
dimethylated histone 4 lysine 20 (H4K20me2) [25], previously deposited on histones by
the activities of SET-1 and SET-4 [26,27], to the monomethylated form (H4K20me1).
Thus, by the X-specific demethylase activity of DPY-21, H4K20me1 is enriched on the X
chromosomes in hermaphrodites and contributes to further repression [25–27]. In
addition to its demethylase function, DPY-21 has an additional uncharacterized role in
dosage compensation [25,28]. Like other DCC members, DPY-21 activity is required to
regulate the X chromosome effectively, as evidenced by the elevated X-linked gene
expression in hermaphrodites with *dpy-21* mutations [25,29]. However, DPY-21 is not
necessary to recruit the other DCC members, and the loss of its function leads to mild
defects in hermaphrodite *C. elegans* but no significant lethality [22].

Nuclear lamina interactions with heterochromatin provide an additional layer of gene
regulation in *C. elegans,* impacting dosage compensation. In *C. elegans,*
heterochromatic regions of chromosomes are located near the nuclear periphery
[29,30]. Histone methyl transferases (HMTs) MET-2 and SET-25 target H3 lysine 9
(H3K9) on chromatin to deposit mono-, di-, and trimethylation [30]. The lamina-
associated protein CEC-4 binds to heterochromatic H3K9me regions on both the
autosomes and the X [32]. The tethering of heterochromatic regions of the
chromosomes to the nuclear lamina contributes to stabilizing cell fates during *C.*
elegans development [32]. In addition, the loss of nuclear lamina tethering leads to the
decompaction and relocation of the X into a more interior position in the nucleus and a
mild increase of X-linked gene expression without impacting autosomal gene
expression, indicating dosage compensation defects [33]. Despite defects in the
chromosomal organization, mutants with non-functional CEC-4 survive with no apparent
phenotypes [32].

Dosage compensation is set up in a stepwise manner over the course of development
in *C. elegans*. The process is initiated around the 40-cell stage, when the DCC subunit
SDC-2 is expressed and localizes to hermaphrodite X chromosomes [34], which leads
to the recruitment of the other DCC subunits [35]. This initiation step coincides with the
loss of pluripotency of embryonic blastomeres [36,37]. DPY-21 localizes to the X after
the initial loading of condensin I^{DC}, and H4K20me1 becomes enriched on the X between
the bean and comma stages of embryogenesis [25,36]. By the end of embryogenesis,
most cells exit mitosis [38], after which the dosage-compensated state is maintained in

postmitotic cells. We refer to this stage as the maintenance phase. Earlier studies using
cold-sensitive *dpy-27* alleles suggested that DPY-27 activity is essential during a critical
developmental time window in mid-embryogenesis, after which loss of its function has a
lesser impact on viability [39]. These results suggest that while condensin I^{DC} is required
to initiate dosage compensation, other mechanisms may be responsible for maintaining
repression once established, including ones mediated by DPY-21 and CEC-4.

The requirement for CEC-4 also changes with the differentiation state of embryonic
cells. CEC-4 is required to tether heterochromatic transgenic arrays to the nuclear
lamina in embryos but not in L1 larvae [32]. At the larval stages and beyond, additional
mechanisms, including ones mediated by MRG-1 and CBP-1, contribute to
sequestering heterochromatin to the nuclear lamina [40]. However, X chromosome
compaction and nuclear lamina tethering are affected in *cec-4* adults, even in fully
differentiated postmitotic cells [33]. We hypothesize that by sequestering the
chromosome to the nuclear lamina, CEC-4 stabilizes the repression of the X
chromosomes during the maintenance phase of dosage compensation.

In this study, we used the auxin-inducible degradation (AID) system to deplete the
condensin I^{DC} subunit DPY-27 at various stages of development. We assessed the
importance of condensin I^{DC} to X chromosome repression and organismal viability
during the establishment and maintenance phases of dosage compensation. Our
findings reveal that the continued presence of DPY-27 is required to maintain X
chromosome repression after initial establishment. However, continued repression is
less essential for viability during the maintenance phase. Additionally, we evaluated the
hypothesis that the nuclear lamina protein CEC-4 helps stabilize the repressed state by
combining *cec-4* mutations with depletion of DPY-27 or mutations in the histone
demethylase *dpy-21.* We show that the loss of lamina associations resulting from
mutations in *cec-4* exacerbates the defects caused by the lack of DPY-27 or DPY-21
function. Our results reveal the differential contributions of the various repressive
pathways to X chromosome dosage compensation.

Results

The impact of DPY-27 depletion on hermaphrodite embryos and larvae

Using a strain containing an auxin-inducible degron (AID)-tagged *dpy-27* allele [41] and expressing the plant F-box protein TIR1 under a ubiquitous promoter (*eft-3*) [42] (referred to as *TIR1; dpy-27::AID*, for complete genotype and allele information for all strains see the Materials and Methods), we were able to time the depletion of DPY-27 by moving worms to auxin-containing plates during or after embryogenesis. To evaluate whether the lack of CEC-4 exacerbates the defects, we also generated a strain containing the *cec-4 (ok3124)* mutation in addition to *TIR1* and *dpy-27::AID* (referred to as *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4).* For controls, we used wild-type worms (N2), *cec-4* mutants, and a strain with AID-tagged *dpy-27* but no TIR1 expressing transgene (referred to as *dpy-27::AID).*

Our first experiment investigated the ability of embryos exposed to auxin to survive in the absence of DPY-27 throughout the entirety of embryonic development. To ensure that the maternally loaded DPY-27 is also depleted, we initiated our assay at the L4 larval stage of the parent before oocyte production begins **(Fig 1A)** [15]. L4 larvae were placed on auxin-containing plates for a 24-hour egg-laying period, after which the parents were removed. This procedure ensures that both *in-utero* and *ex-utero* development occurs in the presence of auxin. Strains not exposed to auxin were mostly viable, although the *dpy-27::AID*-containing strains had a very low, but statistically significant, level of lethality (**Fig 1B**, Fisher's exact test, p values listed in **S1 File**). While auxin treatment did not significantly impact the survival of control embryos (N2, *cec-4, dpy-27::AID),* 100% of *TIR1; dpy-27::AID and TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* worms died as embryos or L1 larvae **(Fig 1B)**. These results indicate that DPY-27 function during embryonic development is essential for the survival of hermaphrodite worms, which is consistent with previous studies [39].

Fig 1. DPY-27 depletion leads to lethality and developmental defects. (A) Overview of the timeline of auxin exposure initiated from parental age L4 through F1 development. **(B)** Auxin exposure throughout embryogenesis results in compromised viability in *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* strains. Total counts from three independent replicates are shown. N>600.Significance was determined by Fisher's exact test relative to wild-type values. Dead embryos and dead larvae were summed as one value for statistical analyses. Complete statistical analysis can be found in **S1 File**. **(C)** Overview of the timeline of auxin exposure from the L1 stage for three days. N2 worms in this time frame grow to young adults. **(D)** Phenotypic images of hermaphrodites exposed to auxin from the L1 stage for three days. Scale bar, 0.5 mm. **(E)** Larval survival on auxin relative to survival off auxin. Total counts from three

independent experiments are shown. N>600. Statistical significance was determined by Chi
square tests. Complete statistical analyses can be found in **S2 File**. n.s. = not significant, * = p <
0.05, ** = p<0.01, *** = p < 0.001.

At the onset of dosage compensation during early embryogenesis, condensin I^{DC} loads
onto the X chromosomes in hermaphrodites [15]. However, it is unclear whether the
sustained presence of the complex is essential once dosage compensation is
established. To assess the requirement for DPY-27 to remain on the X during larval
development, we exposed our strains to auxin starting at the L1 larval stage for a period
of three days. We compared survival on auxin-containing plates to survival on plates
without auxin **(Fig 1C)**. Strains developing without auxin exposure grew to adulthood
and produced viable offspring in the timeframe of the experiment. In contrast to
embryonic exposure, exposing larvae to auxin had a much lesser effect on survival.
Most *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* larvae survived similarly to N2, *cec-4*, or *dpy-27::AID* controls
(Fig 1E, Chi-square test, p values listed in **S2 File)**. However, DPY-27 depleted strains
developed slowly and exhibited developmental defects, including stunted growth **(Fig
1D)**. The rare embryo produced by these hermaphrodites did not hatch. Adding *cec-4* to
the background lowered the survival rate, suggesting that lack of both DPY-27 and
CEC-4 results in more severe defects than lack of DPY-27 alone **(Fig 1E)**.

Exposure to auxin rapidly depletes DPY-27

We next investigated the degree of DPY-27 depletion in auxin-treated strains relative to
untreated. DPY-27 was visualized in each strain by immunofluorescence (IF) after
worms were exposed to auxin for three days starting at the L1 larval stage. Due to the
underdeveloped nature of the DPY-27 depleted strains, we based the timing of IF
staining on the growth of wild type. After 3 days, wild-type N2 worms have developed
into young adults. IF images were captured in intestinal nuclei. Intestinal cells are 32-
ploid and their large size facilitates analyses of the nucleus. Before auxin treatment, all
our strains had a wild-type pattern of DPY-27 localization within the nucleus of intestinal
cells **(Fig 2A)**, consistent with the lack of any visible defects or lethality in these strains.
Auxin treatment in N2, *cec-4*, and *dpy-27::AID* strains led to no observable changes.
However, in the *TIR1*-containing strains, *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-*
4, auxin treatment resulted in depletion of DPY-27 to background levels **(Fig 2A)**,
suggesting that auxin-induced degradation was successful.

Fig 2. Auxin treatment leads to depletion of DPY-27. (A) Immunofluorescence staining of DPY-27 within the intestinal nuclei of young adult hermaphrodites. DAPI staining of DNA (blue) merged with DPY-27 signal (red) is also shown. DPY-27 is present within the nuclei in strains not exposed to auxin, but exposure to auxin for 3 days starting at L1 results in a significant depletion of DPY-27 signal in strains that contain *TIR1* and *dpy-27::AID.* Original unaltered images are shown on Fig S1. **(B)** DPY-27 staining after auxin exposure for various lengths of times (L1 to adult, 1 hour, or 24 hours). Images were acquired with identical exposure times. Original unaltered images, with HTZ-1 costain, are shown on Fig S1. Scale bars, 10 µm. **(C)** Quantification of DPY-27 fluorescence signal in experiments shown in (B). Quantification is based on measuring DPY-27 fluorescence in the nucleus, normalized to background level fluorescence, from between 38 and 50 nuclei total collected in three independent experiments. Worms were not exposed to auxin (-), exposed to auxin from L1 stage for three days (L), or exposed to auxin from day 1 of adulthood for 1h or 24 hours. Whiskers indicate min-max values. Statistical analysis was done using Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA tests with multiple comparisons. Comparisons to WT hermaphrodites are shown above and comparisons to WT males are shown below the box plots. For p values and all pairwise comparisons see **S3 File**. n.s. = not significant, * = p < 0.05, ** = p<0.01, *** = p < 0.001.

To quantify the level of depletion and to test reproducibility, we performed three independent experiments and imaged nuclei from each using standardized exposure times to allow direct comparisons between samples (**Fig 2B** and **C**). We included WT males in the analysis. WT males do not express DPY-27 [15], and the level of DPY-27 fluorescence measured in males was interpreted as background. Anti-HTZ-1 (a histone H2A variant) staining was used as control (Fig S1). Variability between replicates is shown Figs S2 and S3. Quantification of nuclear DPY-27 fluorescence intensity over background fluorescence intensity showed that *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* before auxin treatment had somewhat lower DPY-27 staining compared to WT, but significantly more than in males (**Fig 2C**). The somewhat reduced DPY-27 staining is consistent with a low level of lethality in these strains, and indicate that dosage compensation maybe slightly reduced compared to WT. In *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* worms treated with auxin from L1 stage for three days, DPY-27 staining was indistinguishable from staining in WT males.

In the L1 to adult timeframe, intestinal nuclei undergo 4 rounds of endoreduplication and reach the stage of 32-ploidy [43]. To analyze the continued need for DPY-27 after these altered cell cycles have taken place and the cells have fully differentiated, we performed experiments where the auxin treatment began in adulthood (3 days past L1). These experiments also allowed to test the rapidity of auxin induced depletion of DPY-27. In previous studies in *C. elegans,* protein degradation was observable within 30 minutes [42]. We subjected adult hermaphrodites to auxin for one hour and for 24 hours. In *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* strains, both treatments led to DPY-27 levels indistinguishable from what is seen in males **(Fig 2B,C)**, suggesting that one hour is sufficient to deplete DPY-27 protein levels to background. Independent repetitions of these experiments showed that rapid depletion of the protein is reproducible (**Fig S2** and **S3**).

DPY-27 depletion disrupts DCC binding and stability

To assess the binding of other condensin I^{DC} subunits to the X chromosome following DPY-27 depletion, we performed IF staining for the subunit CAPG-1 [11]. In WT and *cec-4* strains, CAPG-1 maintains a signal pattern indicative of X chromosome binding both with and without auxin treatment (**Fig 3A**). However, in *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* after auxin treatment from the L1 stage for three days, the CAPG-1 signal becomes non-specific and diffuse throughout the entire nucleus **(Fig 3A)**. Our results indicate that after prolonged auxin exposure, condensin I^{DC} no longer maintains localization to the X chromosomes following DPY-27 depletion.

Fig 3. In the absence of DPY-27, condensin I^{DC} subunits become unstable. (A)
Immunofluorescence staining of CAPG-1 within the intestinal nuclei of young adult
hermaphrodites. DAPI staining of DNA (blue) merged with CAPG-1 signal (red) is also shown.
DPY-27 is present within the nuclei in strains not exposed to auxin, but exposure to auxin for 3
days starting at L1 leads to lack of X enrichment of CAPG-1 signal in strains that contain *TIR1*
and *dpy-27::AID.* Original unaltered images are shown on Fig S4. **(B)** CAPG-1 staining after
exposing young adults to auxin for 1 hour or 24 hours. Images were acquired with identical
exposure times. Original unaltered images (with HTZ-1 staining control) are shown on Fig S4.

Scale bars, 10 µm. **(C)** Quantification of CAPG-1 fluorescence signal in the enriched region over
non-enriched regions of the nucleus. Quantification is based on line-intensity scan analysis of
30-33 nuclei total collected in three independent experiments. Whiskers indicate min-max
values. Statistical analysis was done using Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA tests with
multiple comparisons. Comparisons to WT hermaphrodites are shown above and comparisons
to WT males are shown below the box plots. For p values and all pairwise comparisons see **S4**
File. (**D**) Quantification of CAPG-1 fluorescence intensity in the nucleus, normalized to
background level fluorescence, from the same nuclei as in (C). Statistical analysis was done
using Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA tests with multiple comparisons. Comparisons to WT
hermaphrodites are shown above and comparisons to WT males are shown below the box
plots. For p values and all pairwise comparisons see **S4 File**. n.s. = not significant, * = p < 0.05,
** = p<0.01, *** = p < 0.001.

To determine how fast CAPG-1 dissociates from the X and to determine whether the
protein diffuses throughout the nucleus or becomes unstable, we again performed auxin
treatment for 1 hour and 24 hours on adult worms and used standardized exposure
times to image nuclei to be able to compare signal intensities across samples (**Fig 3B**).
We first quantified the enrichment of CAPG-1 in a region of the nucleus, which we
interpret as the X chromosomes, where CAPG-1 is known to localize to in WT worms
[11]. We used line intensity scan quantification to determine the difference between
CAPG-1 signal intensity in the enriched region over non-enriched region (**Fig 3C**, see
methods). CAPG-1 is enrichment again was somewhat lower in *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and
TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4 strains prior to auxin treatment, similar to the slightly reduced
DPY-27 staining in these strains. After 1 hour or 24 hours of auxin treatment,
enrichment becomes indistinguishable from (or lower than) what is seen in males. Since
the level of enrichment seen in males we interpreted as being due to background
staining by the antibody, we do not believe that the statistically significantly lower values
in the *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* strains has biological
significance. These results suggests that within 1 hour of the initiation of DPY-27
depletion, CAPG-1 is no longer noticeably enriched on the X chromosomes.

We also quantified total CAPG-1 fluorescence in these nuclei. Nuclei from non-auxin
treated *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* worms had CAPG-1 staining
similar to WT hermaphrodites. Signal intensity was only partially reduced (*TIR1; dpy-*
27::AID) or similar to WT hermaphrodites (*TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4*) after 1 hour of
auxin treatment. However, after 24 hours of auxin treatment in both strains, the signal
became indistinguishable from the signal seen in males that lack condensin I^{DC}.
Together with the enrichment analysis, these results suggests that the CAPG-1 protein
persists somewhat longer than DPY-27 after auxin treatment, but the protein present is
unable to localize to the X chromosomes and eventually degrades.

H4K20me1 does not persist on the X chromosomes after DPY-27 depletion

We next assessed the enrichment of the histone modification H4K20me1 on the X. In
wild-type N2 hermaphrodites, this histone modification is specifically enriched on

dosage-compensated X chromosomes [26,27], and this pattern was maintained in *cec-4*
and WT strains after auxin treatment. However, after exposure to auxin from the L1
stage for three days in *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* strains,
H4K20me1 was no longer specifically enriched in a region within the nucleus,
resembling the pattern observed for CAPG-1 localization **(Fig 4A)**. H4K20me1 first
becomes enriched on dosage-compensated X chromosomes in mid-embryogenesis
[27,36], well before the L1 stage, when auxin treatment was initiated. We conclude that
the continued presence of DPY-27 and the DCC is required to maintain the enrichment
of this chromatin mark on the X chromosomes during larval development.

Fig 4. In the absence of DPY-27, H4K20me1 enrichment is lost. (A) Immunofluorescence
staining of H4K20me1 within the intestinal nuclei of young adult hermaphrodites. DAPI staining
of DNA (blue) merged with H4K20me1 signal (red) is also shown. H4K20me1 is clearly enriched
in a region within nuclei (assumed to be the X) in strains not exposed to auxin. Auxin exposure
for 3 days starting at L1 led to lack of X enrichment of H4K20me1 signal in strains that contain
TIR1 and *dpy-27::AID.* Original unaltered images are shown on Fig S5. **(B)** H4K20me1 staining
after auxin exposure for 1hr or 24 hours. Images were acquired with identical exposure times.
Original unaltered images (with HTZ-1 staining control) are shown on Fig S5. Scale bars, 10

µm. **(C)** Quantification of H4K20me1 fluorescence signal in the enriched region over non-
enriched regions. Quantification is based on line-intensity scan analysis of 29-30 nuclei total
collected in three independent experiments. Whiskers indicate min-max values. Statistical
analysis was done using Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA tests with multiple comparisons.
Comparisons to WT hermaphrodites are shown above and comparisons to WT males are
shown below the box plots. For p values and all pairwise comparisons see **S5File**. (**D**)
Quantification of H4K20me1 fluorescence intensity in the nucleus, normalized to background
level fluorescence, from the same nuclei as in (C). Statistical analysis was done using Brown-
Forsythe and Welch ANOVA tests with multiple comparisons. Comparisons to WT
hermaphrodites are shown above and comparisons to WT males are shown below the box
plots. For p values and all pairwise comparisons see **S5 File**. n.s. = not significant, * = $p < 0.05$,
** = $p<0.01$, *** = $p < 0.001$.

To assess how fast H4K20me1 enrichment is lost in postmitotic nuclei after DPY-27
depletion, we treated adult worms with auxin for 1 hour and 24 hours and quantified
enrichment and total fluorescence intensity of the H4K20me1 signal (**Fig 4B**). After 1
hour of auxin treatment, the signal remains clearly enriched in a portion of the nucleus
in both *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* strains. However, after 24 hours
of auxin treatment, enrichment in both strains becomes similar to what is seen in males
(**Fig 4C**). Assessment of total H4K20me1 signal intensity (**Fig 4D**) was less conclusive
due to large cell-to-cell variation. Most genotypes had total fluorescence values not
statistically different from WT hermaphrodites. Overall, we can conclude that enrichment
of the H4K20me1 mark persists longer than the presence of condensin I^{DC} on the X, but
that enrichment does diminish within 24 hours. The *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and *TIR1; dpy-*
27::AID; cec-4 strains appeared similar in this assay (**S5 File**), suggesting that the
presence or absence of CEC-4 does not contribute to the maintenance of the
H4K20me1 mark.

The continued presence of DPY-27 is required to maintain X chromosome condensation and subnuclear localization

The X chromosomes of wild-type hermaphrodites occupy a lower proportion of nuclear
space compared to what is predicted based on DNA content [17]. We previously
showed that in DCC mutants and in *cec-4* mutant hermaphrodites, the X chromosomes
decondense and relocate toward the more actively transcribed central region of the
nucleus [33]. The DCC starts to compact the X chromosomes in early embryogenesis
[17]. We tested if the continued presence of DPY-27 is necessary for maintaining the
compact conformation and peripheral localization of the X. We performed whole
chromosome X paint fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH) to mark the X
chromosome territories in intestinal nuclei. Without auxin treatment, the X chromosome
signal appeared as expected: compact and near the nuclear periphery in all strains
without a *cec-4* mutation and more diffuse in strains with a *cec-4* mutation **(Fig 5A).**
After auxin treatment from L1 stage for 3 days, the X chromosomes appeared enlarged
in *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* as well. We quantified these changes by measuring the proportion
of nuclear volume occupied by the X chromosome (see Methods). The X chromosomes
occupied about 12-13% of the nuclear volume on average in wild type and close to 20%

in *cec-4* mutants **(Fig 5B)** which is consistent with previous results [33]. In the *TIR1;*
dpy-27::AID strain, depletion of DPY-27 led to decondensation of the X chromosome to
a degree similar to *cec-4* mutants or to what was previously observed in worms treated
with *dpy*-27 RNAi [17]. These findings demonstrate the critical role of DPY-27 in
maintaining the compact conformation of the X chromosome in wild-type
hermaphrodites. In the *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* strain, the X was already decondensed
without auxin treatment due to the presence of the *cec-4* mutation, and depletion of
DPY-27 led to a measurable level of additional decondensation **(Fig 5B)**. These results
indicate that the presence of DPY-27 maintains X compaction, and the additional loss
off *cec-4* exacerbates the decondensation defects. To assess if shorter exposure to
auxin in postmitotic cells of adults is sufficient to lead to X decondensation, we
subjected young adult worms to 24 hours of auxin treatment. In both the *TIR1; dpy-*
27::AID and the *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* strains, this treatment led to similar levels of
decondensation as seen after the longer L1 to adult exposure (**Fig 5B**). These results
indicate that the continued the presence of DPY-27 is required to maintain a compact X
structure even in fully differentiated postmitotic cells.

Fig. 5. The continued presence of DPY-27 is required for X compaction and peripheral
localization within the nucleus. (A) Intestinal nuclei from adult hermaphrodites were stained
with whole X chromosome paint FISH probe (top row, red), and DNA was labeled with DAPI
(blue). Images are of young adults not exposed to auxin, worms treated with auxin from L1 to
adulthood, or young adults treated with auxin for 24 hours. Scale bars, 10 μm. Original
unmodified images are shown on Fig S6. **(B)** Quantifications of the X chromosome volume
normalized to nuclear size of worms grown auxin (-), worms treated with auxin from L1 stage for
three days (L), and young adult worms treated with auxin for 24 hours (24h). **(C)** (top) Three-
zone assay segmentation shown on a single slice from the middle of an intestinal nucleus. The
amount of X signal (outlined in green) in each zone was quantified. (bottom) The proportion of
the X paint signal seen in the central zone of the nucleus. In (C) and (D) 20-24 nuclei total from
3-4 independent experiments were quantified. Differences between samples were evaluated
using unpaired Student's t-test. For complete statistical analysis see **S6 and S7 Files.** Analyses
in all concentric rings can be found in **Fig S7.** n.s. = not significant, * = $p < 0.05$, ** = $p < 0.01$, ***
= $p < 0.001$.

Dosage compensation mechanisms make the X chromosomes not only compact but
also position the chromosomes near the nuclear periphery [33]. To assess any changes
in subnuclear localization, we analyzed our X chromosome FISH signals in the various
strains using a three-zone assay (see Methods) **(Fig 5C).** The localization of the X
within the nucleus was assessed in three concentric zones from a single focal plane
taken from the middle of the nucleus, and the portion of the X signal in the central zone
was quantified. In wild-type hermaphrodites, we observed the expected X localization.
Only a small portion of the signal reaches into the central zone, while the bulk of the X is
located in the intermediate and peripheral zones of the nucleus **(Fig 5C, Fig S7)** as
observed before [33]. In *cec-4* mutants (*cec-4* and *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4)*,
significantly more of the X signal is in the center, as expected. The relocation is even
more significant in DPY-27 depleted strains **(Fig 5C)**. In both *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and
TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4 strains, over 40% of the signal is localized in the central zone,
suggesting that the depletion of DPY-27 has a more significant impact on X nuclear
localization than the *cec-4* mutation. We note that some of the apparent relocation could
be a secondary consequence of decondensation. Adding a *cec-4* mutation did not
significantly increase the degree of movement to the middle region compared to DPY-
27 depletion alone (**S7 File**). Overall, these data indicate that the continued presence of
DPY-27 is required to maintain the peripheral localization of dosage compensated X
chromosomes.

DPY-27 is needed to maintain repression of X-linked genes
We next tested whether these changes in condensin I^{DC} localization, X chromosome
compaction, nuclear organization, and the depletion of repressive histone marks, led to
increases in X chromosome gene expression in the *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and *TIR1; dpy-*
27::AID; cec-4 strains when treated with auxin. Although nuclear organization and
H4K20me1 enrichment were not significantly different with and without a mutation in
cec-4, the reduced viability of auxin-treated *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* larvae compared
to *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* larvae suggested that the X may be more derepressed in the strain
also lacking *cec-4.* To test these hypotheses, we extracted total mRNA from

synchronized L3 populations, which were grown in the presence of auxin starting at L1
or grown in the absence of auxin for controls. We performed these experiments at the
L3 stage rather than at a later stage, because at this stage the delay in growth and
development of the DPY-27 depleted strains is not yet apparent, and also to avoid
complications arising from the contributions from the germline where the X
chromosomes are not subjected to dosage compensation [44]. At the L3 stage, the
germline consists of only about ~60 cells, and thus the RNA extracted from whole
worms represents predominantly somatic tissues [45]. Three replicates were analyzed
for each condition. PCA plots, hierarchical clustering, and Pearson correlation analyses
were used to evaluate data quality (Figs S8-S11). Since gene expression did not
change much in some samples compared to WT, these samples did not necessarily
cluster according to genotype. We therefore also performed analysis on a more limited
number of samples (Figs S8-S9).

To analyze X:A gene expression ratio, the mRNA-seq readout was plotted as a log2-fold
change in gene expression on autosomes and the X in auxin-treated samples compared
to controls **(Fig 6, Fig S12, S8 File).** Without exposure to auxin, the *dpy-27::AID* strain
had similar gene expression levels to N2, although the slight X derepression was
statistically significant. The minimal change in gene expression suggests that tagging
DPY-27 with the degron tag did not significantly disrupt its function **(Fig S12A)**. *cec-4*
strains treated with auxin also displayed slight X depression compared to *cec-4* mutants
without auxin exposure, indicating a minimal influence of auxin treatment on gene
expression regulation **(Fig S12B)**. The *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and the *TIR1; dpy-27::AID;*
cec-4 strains also had a small degree of X derepression compared to wild type even in
the absence of auxin, possibly due to somewhat leaky *TIR1* activity (**Fig S12C and D**),
which is a phenomenon noted by other research groups as well [46–48]. Therefore, to
assess the increase in X-linked gene expression resulting from the loss of DPY-27, we
compared gene expression levels in the same strain with and without auxin and/or in
auxin-treated strains with and without TIR1 expression **(Fig 6)**. In comparison to *dpy-*
27::AID, the strain *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* had significant upregulation of the X chromosome
when treated with auxin, while autosomal gene expression remained unchanged (X
derepression (defined as median X-linked log2 fold change – median autosomal log2
fold change) = 0.503) **(Fig 6A)**. Similarly, auxin-treated *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* exhibited
significant X derepression (0.435) compared to non-auxin-treated **(Fig 6B)**. These
results demonstrate that depletion of DPY-27 during the maintenance phase of dosage
compensation leads to a significant increase in X-linked gene expression.

Fig 6. The X-linked genes are derepressed in strains depleted of DPY-27. (A-D) Boxplots depicting the distribution of the log2 fold change of X-linked genes and autosomal genes in strains being compared. A Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to determine the statistical significance of the differential gene expression between the X and autosomes. (n.s. = not significant, * = p < 0.05, ** = p<0.01, *** = p < 0.001) **(A)** The log2 fold change in gene expression of the autosomes and the X chromosomes of *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* relative to the *dpy-27::AID* after both strains were exposed to auxin. **(B)***TIR1; dpy-27::AID* treated with auxin compared to the same genotype grown in the absence of auxin. **(C)** *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* treated with auxin was compared to no auxin treatment. **(D)** *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* compared to *TIR1; dpy-27::AID,* both treated with auxin. P values for all comparisons are listed in **S8 File**.

We then investigated whether the absence of CEC-4 further enhanced X derepression. Comparing the mRNA-seq gene expression profiles of *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* treated with auxin to untreated populations of the same genotype, we observed a significant increase in X-linked gene expression (0.78) **(Fig 6C)**. The degree of X derepression was greater than that caused by auxin treatment in *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* without the *cec-4* mutation (X derepression of 0.435). These results suggest that the loss of *cec-4* may exacerbate X dosage compensation defects. To confirm, we compared *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* to *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* after auxin treatment of both genotypes. The difference between these two populations was substantial (0.13), suggesting that depletion of DPY-27 leads to a greater level of X derepression in a strain that lacks CEC-4 **(Fig 6D)**. These results are consistent with CEC-4 playing a supporting role in helping to maintain stable X chromosome repression in differentiated cells.

To investigate the influence of *cec-4* in more detail, we used chromosome coordinates of transcripts with changed gene expression to visualize the distribution of derepressed regions in each comparison (**Fig S13**). CEC-4 binds to methylated H3K9 [32], a histone modification which is enriched on the arms of autosomes and the left end of the X chromosome [30]. These same genomic regions also make more frequent contacts with nuclear lamina proteins [30][31]. We therefore considered the possibility that genes whose expression changes due to the lack of *cec-4* would be preferentially located in the left end domain of the X chromosome. Consistent with a general defect in dosage compensation, in both the *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* and the *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* auxin treated strains compared to no auxin controls, we observed a general derepression along the length of the X chromosomes (**Fig S13A** and **B**). Derepression was not more evident along the left end of the chromosome in the *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* strain (**Fig S13B**), suggesting that the impact of the *cec-4* mutation does not preferentially effect this chromosomal domain. When *cec-4* mutants were compared to WT, or when *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* on auxin was compared to *TIR1; dpy-27::AID* on auxin (**Fig S13C** and **D**), similar conclusions were made. Gene expression differences were fairly evenly distributed in the genome, with no apparent preferential impact along H3K9me enriched domains. While somewhat surprising, these results are consistent with our previous study in which we found that the CEC-4's effect on the X chromosome is more chromosome-wide, and not limited to the left end domain [33] (see Discussion).

Loss of *cec-4* activity exacerbates dosage compensation defects caused by a mutation in *dpy-21*

Our experiments showed that the loss of CEC-4 sensitizes hermaphrodite *C. elegans* to dosage compensation defects caused by DPY-27 depletion **(Fig 6)**. To test whether loss of CEC-4 also exacerbates defects caused by other dosage compensation mutations, we sought to understand the interplay between CEC-4, known for its role in tethering the X chromosomes to the nuclear lamina [33], and DPY-21, whose activity leads to X-specific enrichment of H4K20me1 [25]. Individually, the mutations in these pathways lead to phenotypes related to dosage compensation defects and changes in X-linked gene expression, but despite these changes, the mutants are viable [22,25,26,32,33]. Since *dpy-21* null mutants (*dpy-21(e428))* are viable [22], we performed these experiments with the null mutant rather than using the AID system. Therefore, our experiment tested the impact of these mutations throughout the lifespan of the animals, including both the establishment and the maintenance phases of dosage compensation. We constructed a double mutant *cec-4 (ok3124)* IV*; dpy-21(e428)* V strain (referred to as *cec-4; dpy-21).* The strain is viable but with visible defects, such as a Dpy phenotype.

We first evaluated the ability of hermaphrodites lacking functional *cec-4* and *dpy-21* to lay viable eggs. The total number of eggs laid by *cec-4; dpy-21* hermaphrodites was significantly smaller than all other strains observed, including the *dpy-21* and *cec-4* single mutants **(Fig 7A)**. In all strains, most embryos hatched into larvae within 24

hours (**Fig 7B**). Most WT and *cec-4* mutant larvae developed into healthy adults. While
the viability of *dpy-21* mutant larvae was somewhat reduced, it was not significantly
different from the viability of *cec-4; dpy-21* double mutants **(Fig 7C).** Overall, these
results suggest that the addition of the *cec-4* mutation does decrease the overall fitness
of *dpy-21* mutants, most apparent in their ability to produce eggs.

Fig 7. Loss of CEC-4 exacerbates dosage phenotypes caused by mutations in *dpy-21*. (A)
The average of total number of eggs laid per worm in WT, *cec-4, dpy-21,* and *cec-4; dpy-21*
backgrounds. **(B)** The average percentage of embryos that hatched after 24 hours. **(C)** The
average percentage of larvae that survived to adulthood. **(A-C)** Progeny from 6-8 individual
worms were scored per experiment for each genotype. Results shown are the combined
averages from three independent experiments (18<n<24). Statistical significance was
determined using Student's t-test. For statistical analysis and p values see S9 File. **(D)** The
extent of X chromosome decompaction in WT, *cec-4, dpy-21,* and *cec-4; dpy-21*
hermaphrodites. A total of 20 nuclei were analyzed from 3-5 independent experiments, no more
than 2 nuclei per individual worm. Statistical significance was determined using Student's t-test.
For statistical analysis and p values, see S10 File. **(E)** Representative images of adult
hermaphrodite intestinal nuclei stained for DPY-27 (top) and merged images of DPY-27 (red)
and DNA (DAPI, blue). Unmodified images are shown on Fig S14. Scale bar, 10 μm. n.s. = not
significant, * = p < 0.05, ** = p<0.01, *** = p < 0.001.

To assess the level of X chromosome compaction, we used DPY-27 IF to mark the
territories of the X chromosomes. DPY-27 maintains X localization in these mutants (**Fig
S15**), and previous studies have used DPY-27 staining in *cec-4* and *dpy-21* mutants to

analyze X chromosome compaction [25][49][50]. *cec-4* and *dpy-21* single mutants, as
well as the *cec-4; dpy21* double mutants all exhibited a prominently decondensed X
chromosome **(Fig 7E)**. Further quantitative analysis revealed that the X chromosomes
were decondensed in *cec-4* and *dpy-21* single mutants, but in the *cec-4; dpy-21* double
mutant strain the X occupied an even more significant proportion of the nucleus **(Fig 7D**
and **E)**. These observations show that adding the *cec-4* mutation to *dpy-21* mutants
augments some defects associated with dosage compensation.

To determine the impact of these mutations on X chromosome gene repression, mRNA-
seq was performed in L3 hermaphrodites **(Fig 8,** see **Figs S16 and S17** for correlation
and clustering analysis**,** and **S8 File** for statistical analysis**)**. We previously reported
subtle upregulation of the X chromosomes in *cec-4* mutant L1 larvae compared to the
wild type [33]. In L3 larvae, this upregulation was even more modest and not statistically
significant (X derepression = 0.027, p = 0.421) **(Fig 8A)**, suggesting that lack of CEC-4
alone does not have a significant impact on X-linked gene regulation despite the
observed changes in X chromosome compaction and nuclear localization. In contrast,
the *dpy-21* mutant displayed a more pronounced derepression of the X chromosome
(0.612, p < 2.2×10^{-16}) **(Fig 8B)**, consistent with previous results [25,29]. When we
compared the *cec-4; dpy-21* double mutant to the wild type, we observed an even more
drastic change in gene expression (X depression = 0.721, p = 2.2×10^{-16}) **(Fig 8C)**.
Furthermore, when juxtaposing the *cec-4; dpy-21* double mutant against its single
mutant counterparts, the results underscored that *cec-4; dpy-21* expressed X-linked
genes at a higher level than either single mutant (*cec-4; dpy-21* vs *cec-4* : X
derepression = 0.669, p = 2.2×10^{-16}, and *cec-4; dpy-21* vs *dpy-21*: X derepression =
0.09, p = 5.05×10^{-13}) **(Fig 8D** and **E)**. Given the relatively minor derepression of the X
chromosome in *cec-4* mutants, a significant increase in the X-linked gene expression
levels of *cec-4; dpy-21* compared to *cec-4* alone was expected **(Fig 8D)**. The *dpy-21*
single mutant already exhibited an upregulation in X chromosome gene expression;
however, the *cec-4; dpy-21* double mutant significantly surpassed it in X derepression
(Fig 8E). While *cec-4*, as a single mutation, does not substantially impact X-linked gene
expression, our results show that the loss of *cec-4* sensitizes hermaphrodites to
additional dosage compensation defects.

Fig 8. Loss of CEC-4 exacerbates gene expression defects caused by mutations in *dpy-21*. (A-E) Boxplots depicting the distribution of the expression change in X-linked genes and expression change in genes on autosomes is plotted as the log2 fold change of the strains being compared. Statistical significance is determined by the differences in gene expression between the X and autosomes by a Wilcoxon rank-sum test. (n.s. = not significant, * = $p < 0.05$, ** = $p<0.01$, *** = $p < 0.001$) **(A)** The log2 fold change in gene expression of the autosomes and the X chromosomes in *cec-4* mutant relative to the wild type (N2). **(B)** The log2 fold change in gene expression of the autosomes and the X chromosomes in *dpy-21* mutants relative to wild type (N2). **(C)** The log2 fold change in gene expression in *cec-4; dpy-21* relative to wild type (N2). **(D)** The log2 fold change in gene expression in *cec-4; dpy-21* compared to *cec-4*. **(E)** The log2 fold change in gene expression in *cec-4; dpy-21* compared to *dpy-21*. The derepression of the X chromosome genes is significantly higher in the double mutant than in single mutants.

Discussion

In this study, we investigated the relative importance of the DCC during two phases of dosage compensation: establishment and maintenance. We depleted DPY-27, a core protein subunit of the dosage compensation machinery, condensin I^{DC}, using the auxin-inducible degron system during embryonic and larval development. Our data indicated that DPY-27 function is essential during embryonic development, but the protein is dispensable for hermaphrodite survival during larval and adult stages. In an additional dosage compensation mechanism, the non-condensin DCC member DPY-21 significantly contributes to X-linked gene repression by enriching H4K20me1 on the X chromosome [25]. We show that the enrichment of H4K20me1 is lost rapidly after DPY-27 depletion, indicating that the mark must be continuously maintained, presumably by DPY-21 recruited to the X by DPY-27. In addition, DPY-27 depletion leads to X chromosome decondensation and relocation to a more central position in the nucleus, as well as significant increases in X-linked gene expression. In addition to the contributions of the DCC, nuclear lamina association of the X chromosome via

H3K9me3 binding to CEC-4 also contributes to X morphology and repression [33]. We
found that a loss-of-function mutation in *cec-4* amplifies the sensitivity of
hermaphrodites to the depletion/mutation of other dosage compensation processes.
These results suggest that nuclear lamina anchoring by CEC-4 serves to stabilize
repression initiated by condensin I^{DC} or H4K20me1. By loss-of-function mutations in
cec-4 and *dpy-21* and depletion of DPY-27, we unexpectedly revealed that larval and
adult hermaphrodites are resilient to depletion of known dosage compensation
mechanisms and substantial increase in X-linked gene expression.

Condensin I^{DC} function is required for embryonic viability but not for larval and adult viability

A previous study using a cold-sensitive mutant for *dpy-27* demonstrated that inactivating
DPY-27 during the comma stage of embryonic development leads to more extensive
lethality than inactivation of the protein at later stages. However, the differences in
viability counts at the different temperatures were only about 20% [39]. We re-examined
this question using the auxin-mediated degradation system, where adding auxin leads
to rapid and near complete depletion of DPY-27. Prior to auxin treatment, the strains
had essentially 100% viability, while auxin treatment during embryogenesis led to
essentially 100% lethality. These results demonstrate that condensin I^{DC} activity is
essential during embryonic development when cell fates are being specified, and cells
begin to differentiate into different cell types. At the end of embryonic development, the
embryo consists of about 500 cells, the majority of which have exited the cell cycle and
begun terminal differentiation [38]. Depletion of condensin I after embryogenesis is not
incompatible with viability despite developmental abnormalities in depleted larvae. This
result raised two possibilities. First, it is possible that dosage compensation, once
established, can be maintained in the absence of condensin I^{DC}. Second, it is possible
that X chromosome repression is not maintained but the larvae can tolerate defects in
X-linked gene regulation. Our results, discussed below, are consistent with the second
scenario.

Condensin I^{DC} must remain on the X to maintain the condensed conformation

We show that compaction of the dosage compensated X cannot be maintained without
DPY-27. By varying durations of auxin exposure and observing the condensin I^{DC}
subunit CAPG-1, we saw the loss of condensin I^{DC} enrichment on the X and the gradual
loss of CAPG-1 signal from the nucleus **(Figs 2 and 3)**. We propose that the absence of
DPY-27 leads to the destabilization of the condensin I^{DC} ring, resulting in the release of
the complex from the X and gradual degradation of other complex members. The X
chromosome also decondenses after condensin I^{DC} loss, indicating that chromosome
compaction must be actively maintained. Previous research investigating the
maintenance of mitotic or meiotic chromosome architecture demonstrated that
depletion or inactivation of mitotic condensin subunits after chromosome condensation
has taken place leads to disorganized chromosome structure with reduced rigidity or a

larger surface area [51–54]. Similar to what we observed about the continued need for
condensin I^{DC} to maintain the compact structure of dosage compensated X
chromosomes, maintenance of mitotic chromosome architecture also requires the
continued presence of condensin. However, in the studies of mitotic chromosomes,
compaction was maintained after condensin loss, only the organization or rigidity of
chromosomes was altered. In our study, compaction of the interphase X chromosome
was not maintained. It has been suggested that during mitosis additional mechanisms,
such as posttranslational histone modifications, contribute to chromosome condensation
[55]. We hypothesize that in the absence of these mitosis-specific histone modifications
in interphase, condensin function is necessary for compaction. We note that two
posttranslational histone modifications associated with mitosis, namely enrichment of
H4K20me1 and depletion of H4K16ac, are also features of interphase dosage
compensated X chromosomes of *C. elegans* [26,27,55–57]. However, additional mitotic
histone modifications that are not present on dosage compensated X chromosomes (for
example H3S10Ph or depletion of additional acetylation marks) may also contribute to
condensin independent chromosome compaction in mitosis [58]. Our findings indicate
that the complete condensin complex must remain associated with the X for the
maintenance of compaction during developmental stages in which most cells are post-
mitotic. A recent study employed TEV protease-mediated cleavage of DPY-26, a
subunit of condensin I^{DC} to inactive the complex. Cleavage of DPY-26 in the L1 stage
led to loss of TAD structures from the X, suggesting that condensin I^{DC} is also required
to maintain the fine-scale structural organization of the chromosome [59]. Compaction
and organization of the chromosome into TADs are separable functions, as it is possible
to disrupt TADs without loss of compaction [49]. Our results, together with the study by
Das et al [59], suggest that the continued presence of condensin I^{DC} is required to
maintain both levels of chromosomal organization.

In the absence of both condensin I^{DC} and CEC-4, the structure of dosage compensated
X chromosomes is even more disrupted. However, the exact role of CEC-4 in the
process remains unclear. We previously showed that the impact of CEC-4 on X
chromosome compaction is most pronounced in the middle gene-rich domain, and the
left arm the chromosome remains relatively unaffected [50]. Gene expression changes
on the X were also not limited to the H3K9me3-enriched domain (to which CEC-4 binds)
both in our previous study [50] and our current one (**Fig S13**). Thus, the effect appears
more chromosome-wide. This is consistent with previous studies that showed a lack of
correlation between DCC binding site on the X and genes being regulated by dosage
compensation [60][61], and a lack of correlation between DCC-induced TAD formation
and changes in gene expression [19]. Thus, it has been suggested that dosage
compensation impacts gene expression more in a chromosome-wide manner, rather
than locally by regulating individual genes.

The presence of DPY-27 is required to actively maintain the enrichment of H4K20me1 on the X

Shortly after the loss of DPY-27 signal, the H4K20me1 mark exhibits a loss of specific localization on the X with increasing auxin exposure time **(Figs 2 and 4)**. We propose that the continued presence of DPY-21 (presumable recruited by DPY-27) on the X is necessary to maintain H4K20me1 enrichment on the X. Notably, the presence of DPY-21 is not essential for the localization of condensin I^{DC} on the X; however, for DPY-21 to bind the X, the presence of condensin I^{DC} is required [22]. Our results are similar to what was seen for H3K9me2 and MET-2. Maintenance of this chromatin mark in *C. elegans* also requires the continued presence of the enzyme that places it [62]. Our results suggest that functional condensin I^{DC} plays a role in maintaining the localization of DPY-21 on the X, and its continued presence is required even in post-mitotic developmental stages. We hypothesize that in the absence of DPY-27 and DPY-21, either there is frequent enough histone turnover to lose the H4K20me1 enrichment or that the X is rendered accessible to histone modifiers that remove the H4K20me1 or modify the mark to di- or trimethylation.

Condensin I^{DC} is required to maintain X-linked gene repression in hermaphrodites

Severe depletion or mutation of dosage compensation in *C. elegans* is hermaphrodite lethal. Unexpectedly, we observed that hermaphrodites survive as larvae with near complete depletion of DPY-27, albeit with major phenotypic defects **(Fig 1C).** Furthermore, they survive without other vital contributors to X-linked gene regulation in addition to DPY-27 depletion, namely, nuclear lamina tethering by CEC-4 and H4K20me1 **(Fig 1 and 4)**. In short, auxin-treated *TIR1; dpy-27::aid; cec-4* larvae survive without measurable activity of any known dosage compensation mechanism. Our study revealed increases in X-linked gene expression beyond levels reported in *dpy-27* null mutant embryos or L1 larvae (log2 fold change in X-linked gene expression of less than 0.3) [29] or *sdc-2* mutant embryos treated with *sdc-2* RNAi (log2 fold change about 0.6) [49]. Dosage compensation defects in these mutants lead to lethality. Our most significant increase in X-linked gene expression was measured in *TIR1*; *dpy-27::AID; cec-4* L3 larvae after auxin exposure with a log2 fold change in X-linked gene expression at a value of 0.78 **(Fig 5)**. These larvae survive despite more significant gene expression defects than previously reported for embryos dying of dosage compensation defects. We suggest that the absence of these dosage compensation processes is acceptable in these animals because the continued repression of the X is no longer essential after early development once cell fates have been specified and the cells have differentiated.

In mice, the critical contributor to dosage compensation, the long non-coding RNA *Xist*, can be deleted with minimal change to X repression as long as it is deleted during the maintenance phase after X chromosome inactivation is fully established [63,64]. However, unlike the continued repression of the mouse X despite the loss of *Xist*, we

observed a significant derepression of X-linked genes in *C. elegans* hermaphrodites
after the depletion of DPY-27. Derepression was also observed in a recent study after
inactivation of condensin I/I^{DC} during the L1 stage [59]. The difference between dosage
compensation maintenance in mice and *C.* elegans might be due to the nature of the
repressive mechanisms. In mice, X chromosome inactivation involves the establishment
of facultative heterochromatin on the X chromosomes, including DNA methylation and
heterochromatic histone modifications [65]. Studies in other organisms have shown that
these chromatin marks can be maintained by propagating them during the S phase [66–
69], even without the initial trigger. The repressive mechanisms involved in *C. elegans*
dosage compensation are different. H4K20me1 patterns are not propagated during
DNA replication; in fact, H4K20me1 levels decrease in S phase due to the activity of an
H4K20me1 demethylase PHF8 [70]. Instead, H4K20me1 is thought to be established
during mitosis [56] and then converted to H4K20me2/3 methylation after mitotic exit
[56]. Our results suggest that maintenance of this mark on dosage compensated X
chromosomes requires the continued presence of DPY-27, presumably recruiting the
H4K20me2 demethylase DPY-21 [25].

The loss of function of cec-4 sensitizes hermaphrodites to the loss of DPY-27 or DPY-21
The *cec-4* mutation, combined with DPY-27 depletion, showed only minor changes in
nuclear compartmentalization and chromosome compaction compared to DPY-27-
depleted strains with functional CEC-4 (**Fig 5)**. However, there was a notable decrease
in hermaphrodite viability of DPY-27 depleted larvae with a *cec-4* mutation compared
DPY-27 depleted larvae without a *cec-4* mutation (**Fig 1E**), suggesting disruption to X-
linked gene regulation approaching unacceptable limits for survival. When a *cec-4*
mutation was combined with a *dpy-21* mutation, there was an observable increase in X
decompaction and a decrease in brood size in the double mutant compared to single
mutants, again suggesting greater disruption to dosage compensation (**Fig 7**). mRNA-
seq analysis indicated that the loss-of-function mutation of *cec-4* alone minimally
increased X-linked gene expression **(Fig 8A)**. However, in scenarios where a *cec-4*
mutation was coupled with DPY-27 depletion or *dpy-21* mutation, we observed a
substantial increase in X-linked gene expression, significantly more than in strains
without the *cec-4* mutation **(Figs 6** and **8)**. Previous studies have highlighted the
involvement of CEC-4 in cellular differentiation and stabilizing cell fates [32]. Cells
actively undergoing differentiation demand precise gene expression levels. However,
we hypothesize that the loss of some repressive mechanisms after differentiation are
acceptable, partly because CEC-4 may help lock down established gene expression
patterns, including the repressed state of dosage-compensated X chromosomes. It
should be noted, however, that the loss of *cec-4* challenges the health of *C. elegans*
larvae depleted of other dosage compensation proteins, but most of the larvae survive.
We hypothesize that losing these mechanisms, including CEC-4 function, at the larval

developmental stage does not result in outright lethality because cellular differentiation
is more complete.

While DCC-mediated mechanisms are crucial for viability during the establishment of
dosage compensation, our results demonstrate that they are not essential for survival
during the maintenance stage. During larval and adult developmental stages,
hermaphrodites survive without any known dosage compensation activity. This
resilience raises questions about the necessity of continued X repression after
embryonic development.

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837 Materials and Methods

838 Caenorhabditis elegans Strains
839 The strains used are shown in the table below. Strains were maintained at 20°C on
840 nematode growth media (NGM) plates seeded with the *Escherichia coli* strain OP50 as
841 a food source, as described in [71]. For some experiments requiring larger number of
842 worms, strains were grown on high-growth media (HGM) plates were seeded with *E.*
843 *coli* strain NA22, as described in [72].

Genotype	Strain	Source
Wild Type	Bristol N2	CGC
dpy-21(e428) V	EKM71	This study
cec-4 (ok3124) IV	EKM121	This study
cec-4 (ok3124) IV; *dpy-21(e428)* V	EKM222	This study
ieSi57[Peft-3::*TIR1*::mRuby::unc-54 3'UTR, cb-unc-119(+)] II; *dpy-27::AID::MYC* (xoe41) III	EKM237	This study
dpy-27::AID::MYC (xoe41) III	EKM227	[41]

dpy-27::AID::MYC (xoe41) III; *cec-4* (ok3124) IV	EKM233	This study
ieSi57[Peft-3::*TIR1*::mRuby*::unc-54* 3'UTR, *cb-unc-119*(+)] II; *dpy-27::AID::MYC*(xoe41) III; *cec-4*(ok3124) IV	EKM238	This study
wrdSi3 [*sun-1*p::*TIR1*::F2A::mTagBFP2::AID*::NLS::tbb-2 3'UTR] II; *dpy-27*(*xoe41*[*dpy-27::AID::myc*]) III; *him-8* (*me4*) IV	JEL1197	[41]
unc-119 (*ed3*); ieSi57 [*Peft-3*::*TIR1*::mRuby::*unc-54* 3'UTR, *cb-unc-119*(+)] II	CA1200	[42]

The alleles for *dpy-21 (e428)* and *cec-4 (ok3124)* were initially acquired from the
Caenorhabditis Genetics Center (CGC) as the strains CB428 and RB2301, respectively.
Each strain was backcrossed to Bristol N2 six times to generate the strains EKM71 *dpy-*
21 (e428) and EKM121 *cec-4 (ok3124)*. EKM222 was obtained by crossing EKM71 to
EKM121.

The strain JEL1197 was received from and generated by [41]. To isolate the *dpy-*
27::AID::MYC (xoe41) allele, JEL1197 was crossed to wild type to produce EKM227.
EKM227 was then crossed to CA1200 [42] to create EKM237.

To add *cec-4 (ok3124)* to the background, EKM227 was crossed with EKM121. The
subsequent strain, EKM233, was crossed with CA1200 to generate EKM238.

Antibodies
Antibodies used in this study include rabbit anti-H4K20me1 (Abcam ab9051), rabbit
anti-DPY-27 [11], rabbit and goat anti-CAPG-1 [33], and rat anti-HTZ-1 [73]. Secondary
anti-goat, anti-rat, and anti-rabbit antibodies were purchased from Jackson
Immunoresearch.

Synchronized worm growth and collection
To obtain synchronized worm populations, gravid adults were bleached to collect
embryos [74]. During bleaching, the hermaphrodites degrade and leave only embryos,
which are then collected. After washing with sterile 1X M9 salt solution [75], the
embryos are isolated and shaken slowly overnight in a flask containing M9 buffer to
allow them to hatch. Synchronized L1s were plated onto either NGM with OP-50 or
HGM with NA22 plates as needed. Synchronized L1s were used in RNA-seq, IF, and
larval development assays. After synchronization, L1s were grown to L3, or adult as
needed per assay.

Auxin Treatment
Strains were subjected to auxin (Thermo Fisher Alfa Aesar Indol-3-Acetic Acid
#A10556) by incorporation into NGM or HGM plates at a final concentration of 4mM, as

described in [42,76]. Auxin-containing plates were maintained in the dark at 4°C for up
to a month.

Assay of viability upon auxin exposure initiated during embryogenesis

L4 hermaphrodites were placed on an auxin-containing plates or NGM plates for
controls to ensure all embryonic development occurs while exposed to auxin. Plates
were maintained in the dark at 20°C. Worms were placed on plates with or without auxin
for an egg-laying period of 24 hours. After this period, the adult was removed from the
plate, and the embryos laid were counted. 24 hours later, the number of dead larvae
and dead embryos were quantified. Live adults were counted 3 days after the initial egg-
laying period. Three independent replicates were performed. Differences were
evaluated using Fisher's exact test comparing the numbers of dead and live progeny for
each genotype.

Assay of viability upon auxin exposure initiated during larval development

Experiments testing larval development began with synchronized L1 larvae. The
synchronized population was resuspended in M9 and split evenly between an auxin
plate and a plate without auxin for 3 days. Worms surviving after 3 days were counted.
Assuming an equal number of larvae initially plated, the final counts are reported as a
ratio of survival on auxin to survival off auxin. Three independent replicates were
performed. Differences were evaluated using Chi square test comparing the number of
surviving worms on auxin to the number surviving off auxin of each genotype.

Brood Count Assay

Young adult hermaphrodites were allowed to lay eggs on NGM and moved to new
plates each day until fertilized embryos were no longer produced. For each plate, after
removal of the parent, the number of embryos laid were counted, and after 24 hours,
the number of dead embryos were counted. After 3 days of development, the number of
surviving adults were counted. Embryonic viability was quantified as the number of
hatched embryos/total embryos. Larval viability was quantified as total number of
adults/hatched embryos.

Immunofluorescence (IF)

Hermaphrodite worms were dissected in 1x sperm salts (50 mM Pipes pH 7, 25 mM
KCl, 1 mM $MgSO_4$, 45 mM NaCl, and 2 mM $CaCl_2$) and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde
(PFA) diluted in 1X sperm salts on a glass slide for 5 minutes in a humid chamber
containing PBS-T (PBS with 0.1% and Triton X-100). Slides were frozen on dry ice for
at least 20 minutes with a 20x20 mm coverslip over the diluted PFA and dissected *C.*
elegans. Using a razor blade, the coverslip was removed by flicking the coverslip off the
slide. The slides were then washed in PBS-T 3 times for 10 minutes each. 30µL of
diluted primary antibody was applied to each slide, a piece of parafilm was placed over
the spot with the antibody to slow evaporation. The slides were incubated in a humid

chamber at room temperature overnight. Slides were washed in PBS-T 3 times for 10
minutes and stained with corresponding secondary antibodies diluted 1:100 in PBS-T at
37°C for 1 hour. Three more washes in PBS-T were completed after the secondary
antibody incubation. In the third wash, the nucleus was stained using DAPI diluted in
PBS-T for 10 minutes at room temperature. Slides are mounted in Vectashield (Vector
Labs).

Fluorescence *in situ* Hybridization (FISH)

Degenerate Primer PCR was used to amplify purified yeast artificial chromosomes
(YACs) containing sequences corresponding to regions of the X chromosome and then
labeled with dCTP-Cy3 alongside standard nucleotides using random priming as in
[33,77]. The X paint FISH probe generated this way covers about 90% of the X. Adult
hermaphrodites were dissected on glass slides in 1x sperm salts and fixed in 4% PFA.
After 5 minutes of fixation, the specimen was covered with a 20x20 coverslip and placed
on dry ice for at least 20 minutes. The coverslip was then flicked off the slide with a
razor blade. Slides were washed in PBS-T three times and subjected to an ethanol
series of increasing concentrations (70%, 80%, 90%, 100% EtOH) for 2 minutes each,
after which the slides were air dried. To each slide, 10uL of X paint probe was added
and incubated at 37°C overnight. Next day, the slides were washed in a 39°C water
bath in 2x SSC/50% formamide three times, in 2X SSC solution three times for 5
minutes each, then in 1x SSC once for 10 minutes, followed by a room temperature
wash in 4x SSC. DAPI was included in the final 4x SSC wash and slides were mounted
using Vectashield. For FISH followed by IF, DAPI was excluded in the final 4X SSC
wash, after which IF was performed as described above.

Microscopy

Microscopy was performed using an Olympus BX61 microscope and a 60X APO oil
immersion objective. Images were taken with a Hamamatsu ORCA-ER High-Resolution
Monochrome Cooled CCD (IEEE 1394) camera. Images of nuclei were captured using
the Slidebook 5 program (Intelligent Imaging Innovations). Only nuclei with a clear
separation from the rest of tissue were imaged, no more than 3 per worm, and often no
more than 1. All experiments included imaging nuclei from at least three independent
experiments. A nucleus from the set 20 to 50 nuclei was chosen as a representiave
image. All representative images shown are maximum intensity projections of image
stacks taken with 0.2-micrometer Z-spacing. Quantification (see below) was performed
on the 3D stacks or individual Z planes, not on the maximum intensity projection
images. For images used for fluorescence intensity quantification, exposure times were
standardized to wild type. All images in the same type of analysis were then subjected
to identical min-max adjustments.

Quantification of signal intensity and signal enrichment

Fluorescence intensity of the DPY-27, CAPG-1, and H4K20me1 signals was quantified
in Slidebook 5. For each nucleus, the segment mask function was used to manually

capture the DAPI signal in 3D space and to create a DAPI mask. The mean
fluorescence for the appropriate channel (DPY-27, CAPG-1, H4K02me1) in the DAPI
mask in the 3D image stacks was recorded. This value was then divided by mean
fluorescence signal of the same channel in the same image in a region that represented
background fluorescence. Thus, the signal intensity represents mean signal intensity in
the nucleus/background intensity.

To quantify enrichment of the signal, the line intensity function was used in Slidebook on
a single Z plane from the middle of the nucleus. A line was drawn across the nucleus
including the enriched region (presumably the X chromosome). In nuclei with no clear
enrichment after DPY-27 depletion, a random line was drawn across the nucleus. The
peak signal intensity on the line-scan was divided by the lowest signal intensity to obtain
the ratio of relative enrichment of CAPG-1 or H4K20me1 on the X chromosomes over
the rest of the nucleus.

Quantification of X Volume

Z-stacked images of intestinal nuclei of hermaphrodites were trimmed to 10-15 slices at
to include only planes with nuclear signal. Background signal was subtracted in ImageJ
Fiji with a rolling ball radius of 50 pixels. After splitting the channels, the 3dManager
from the 3dSuite plugin was used to create a three-dimensional ROI of the DAPI signal
and a three-dimensional ROI of the FISH signal in the Cy3 channel [78]. For X volume
quantification, the area of the Cy3 channel ROI inside the DAPI ROI was then
compared in the 3dSuite 3DManager to find the X chromosome volume in the nucleus.
The mask for the X chromosomes was limited to the area that overlaps with the DAPI
mask signal, ensuring that the quantifications do not include non-specific staining of X
paint FISH. The proportion of the nucleus occupied by the X is a ratio of the X signal
volume to the DAPI signal volume measured in voxels (volumetric pixels).

Three-Zone Assay

From the images of nuclei stained using FISH targeting the X chromosome, the middle
slice with the most in-focus FISH signal was selected. The background was subtracted
in ImageJ FIJI with a rolling ball radius of 50 pixels. The DAPI and Cy3 channels were
then split and thresholded. Using the native ROI manager in ImageJ FIJI, the threshold
of the DAPI mask was used to draw three concentric ellipses that formed three zones of
equal area in the nucleus. The Cy3 signal overlap with each zone was calculated using
the ROI Manager to return the X chromosome FISH signal percentage in each zone.
For this assay, only nuclei with smooth edges and an elliptical shape were used.

mRNA-seq

Synchronized L1s were placed on HGM plates with or without auxin and NA22 [79]. 24-
hours later, L3 larvae were collected in M9. A small number of the larvae were removed
and allowed to grow to adulthood for control staining experiments to ensure complete
DPY-27 depletion. After pelleting, excess M9 was removed, and the remaining pellet

was snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen with 1mL of Trizol. RNA was extracted and cleaned
from the collected *C. elegans* using Qiagen RNeasy Kit. Reads were trimmed for quality
use. Poly-A enrichment, library prep, and next-generation sequencing were conducted
in the Advanced Genomics Core at the University of Michigan. RNA was assessed for
quality using the TapeStation or Bioanalyzer (Agilent). Samples with RINs (RNA
Integrity Numbers) of 8 or greater were subjected to Poly-A enrichment using the
NEBNext Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic Isolation Module (NEB catalog number E7490).
NEBNext Ultra II Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (catalog number E7760L)
and NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina Unique dual (catalog number E6448S) were
then used for library prep. The mRNA was fragmented and copied into first-strand cDNA
using reverse transcriptase and random primers. The 3' ends of the cDNA were then
adenylated, and adapters were ligated. The PCR products were purified and enriched to
create the final cDNA library. Qubit hsDNA (Thermofisher) and LabChip (Perkin Elmer)
checked the final libraries for quality and quantity. The samples were pooled and
sequenced on the Illumina NovaSeqX 10B paired-end 150bp, according to the
manufacturer's recommended protocols. BCL Convert Conversion Software v4.0
(Illumina) generated de-multiplexed Fastq files. The reads were trimmed using
CutAdapt v2.3. FastQC v0.11.8 was used to ensure the quality of data [80,81]. Reads
were mapped to the reference genome WBcel235 and read counts were generated
using Salmon v1.9.0 [82]. Differential gene expression analysis was performed using
DESeq2 v1.42.0 [83]. Downstream analyses were performed using R scripts and
packages. For visualizing gene expression changes along chromosomes, log2 fold
change data in each genotype comparison was displayed using the Chromomap
package [84] after filtering for all reads at a significance level of $p<0.05$. Reads were
positioned according to the chromosomal coordinates included in annotations provided
by the reference genome in the previous RNAseq analysis and were displayed
according to the *C. elegans* chromosome lengths found on WormBase.

Supporting information
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S1 Fig. Unmodified original images for Fig 2. (A) Unmodified original images of
panels shown on Fig 2A. DPY-27 IF is shown in red, DNA stain (DAPI) in blue. **(B)**
Unmodified original images of panels shown on Fig 2B. DPY-27 IF is shown in red, HTZ-
1 IF in green (used as staining control) and DNA stain (DAPI) in blue. The main figure
only shows that DPY-27 and DAPI color channels. Scale bars, 10 µm.

S2 Fig. Reproducibility of DPY-27 depletion. Control non-auxin treated worms and
worms treated with auxin from the L1 stage from 3 days, or from day 1 of adulthood for
1 hr, or 24 hours were dissected and stain with anti-DPY-27 antibody, and anti-HTZ-1for
staining control. Results from three independent experiments are shown. The merged
images show DPY-27 in red and DNA (DAPI) in blue. Scale bars, 10 µm.

S3 Fig. Unmodified original images for panels shown on S2 Fig. DPY-27 is shown
in red, HTZ-1 (staining control) in green, and DNA (DAPI) in blue. Scale bars, 10 µm.

S4 Fig. Unmodified original images for panels shown on Fig 3. **(A)** Unmodified images for Fig 3A. CAPG-1 staining is shown in green, H4K20me1 staining in red, DNA (DAPI) in blue. The main figure only shows the CAPG-1 and DAPI channels. **(B)** Unmodified images for Fig 3B. CAPG-1 staining is shown in green, HTZ-1 (staining control) in red, and DNA (DAPI) in blue. The main figure only shows the CAPG-1 and DAPI channels. Scale bars, 10 μm.

S5 Fig. Unmodified original images for panels shown on Fig 4. **(A)** Unmodified images for Fig 4A. CAPG-1 staining is shown in green, H4K20me1 staining in red, DNA (DAPI) in blue. The main figure only shows the H4K20me1 and DAPI channels. **(B)** Unmodified images for Fig 4B. H4K20me1 staining is shown in green, HTZ-1 (staining control) in red, and DNA (DAPI) in blue. The main figure only shows the H4K20me1 and DAPI channels. Scale bars, 10 μm.

S6 Fig. Unmodified original images for panels shown on Fig 5. X chromosome paint FISH probe is shown in red and DNA (DAPI) in blue. Scale bars, 10 μm.

S7 Fig. Comparison of all rings from the three-zone assay of X localization within the nucleus with and without auxin treatment. (top) Three-zone assay for the X paint FISH signal in strains grown without auxin showing all three concentric zones. (Bottom) Three-zone assay for the X paint FISH signal in strains grown in the presence of auxin. Fig 5 shows only the data for the innermost zone.

S8 Fig. Analysis of *dpy-27::AID* RNA-seq samples. (A) Principal component analysis (PCA) plot depicting the relationships among *TIR1; dpy-27::AID*, and *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* with and without auxin treatment. **(B)** Unsupervised hierarchical clustering of *TIR1; dpy-27::AID*, and *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* with and without auxin treatment using Manhattan distance to calculate distance between samples, and ward.D2 algorithm to cluster samples.

S9 Fig. Pearson correlation analysis of *dpy-27::AID* RNA-seq samples. Heatmap represents color corresponding to the Pearson correlation coefficient between any two samples. Samples analyzed included the *TIR1; dpy-27::AID*, and *TIR1; dpy-27::AID; cec-4* strains with and without auxin treatment.

S10 Fig. Clustering analysis of all RNA-seq samples. Unsupervised hierarchical clustering of all RNA-seq using Manhattan distance to calculate distance between samples, and ward.D2 algorithm to cluster samples.

S11 Fig. Pearson correlation analysis of all RNA-seq samples. Heatmap represents color corresponding to the Pearson correlation coefficient between any two samples.

S12 Fig. mRNA-seq analysis of *dpy-27::AID* strains. (A-D) Boxplots depicting the distribution of the expression difference of X-linked genes and expression difference of genes on autosomes. Gene expression is plotted as the log2 ratio of the strains being compared. Statistical significance is determined by the differences in gene expression between the X and autosomes by a Wilcoxon rank-sum test. Samples compared are shown above the boxplots (n.s. = not significant, * = p < 0.05, ** = p<0.01, *** = p < 0.001).

S13 Fig. Chromomap analysis of gene expression change in strains with and without *cec-4* mutations. (A-D) Log2 fold change in gene expression along the X chromosomes and autosomes. Samples compared are indicated above the maps.

S14 Fig. Unmodified original images for panels shown on Fig 7 and S15 Fig. **(A)** Original unmodified images for Fig 7E. DPY-27 IF staining is shown in red and DNA (DAPI) in blue. **(B)** Original unmodified images for Fig S15. DPY-27 IF is shown in green, X chromosome paint FISH probe is shown in red and DNA (DAPI) in blue. Scale bars, 10 µm.

S15 Fig. DPY-27 localizes to the X chromosomes in *cec-4* and *dpy-21* mutants. Signal for DPY-27 IF colocalizes with X-paint FISH signal. In the merged image, DPY-27 is shown in blue and X paint FISH signal in red. DAPI is shown in grayscale. Scale bars, 10 µm.

S16 Fig. RNA-seq analysis of *cec-4* and *dpy*-21 mutants. (A) Principal component analysis (PCA) plot depicting the relationships among wild-type, single mutants (*cec-4* and *dpy-21*), and double mutants (*cec-4; dpy-21*) based on gene expression profiles. **(B)** Unsupervised hierarchical clustering of *cec-4* and *dpy-21* mutant RNA-seq datasets using Manhattan distance to calculate distance between samples, and ward.D2 algorithm to cluster samples.

S17 Fig. Pearson correlation analysis of *cec-4* and *dpy*-21 mutant data sets. Heatmap represents color corresponding to the Pearson correlation coefficient between any two samples.

S1 File. Numerical data and statistical analysis for Fig 1B. Embryonic and larval viability after auxin exposure starting with the L4 stage of the parent. Total counts from three independent replicates are shown. Statistical analysis was performed using Fisher's exact tests. Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are highlighted yellow. NA, not applicable

S2 File. Numerical data and statistical analysis for Fig 1E. Survival of larvae exposed auxin from the L1 stage was quantified. Total counts from three independent experiments are shown. Statistical analysis was performed using Chi square tests. Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are highlighted yellow.

S3 File. Numerical data and statistical analysis for Fig 2C. Quantification of DPY-27 fluorescence intensity. Statistical analysis was done using Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA tests with multiple comparisons. Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.01$) are highlighted yellow.

S4 File. Numerical data and statistical analysis for Fig 3C and D. Quantification of CAPG-1 enrichment and fluorescence intensity. Statistical analysis was done using Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA tests with multiple comparisons. Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are highlighted yellow.

S5 File. Numerical data and statistical analysis for Fig 4C and D. Quantification of H4K20me1 enrichment and fluorescence intensity. Statistical analysis was done using

Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA tests with multiple comparisons. Statistically
significant differences (p<0.05) are highlighted yellow.

S6 File. Numerical data and statistical analysis for Fig 5B. Analysis of X
chromosome decondensation. Statistical analysis was done using Student's t-tests.
Statistically significant differences (p<0.05) are highlighted yellow.

S7 File. Numerical data and statistical analysis for Fig 5C. Analysis of X
chromosome localization within the nucleus via the three-zone assay. Statistical analysis
was done using Student's t-tests. Statistically significant differences (p<0.05) are
highlighted yellow.

S8 File. Statistical analysis of mRNA-seq. p values for the indicated comparisons are
shown. Statistically significant differences (p<0.05) are highlighted yellow.

S9 File. Numerical data and statistical analysis for Fig 7A, B and C. Progeny
viability in *dpy-21* and *cec-4* mutants. Average progeny counts from individual worms
(6<n<8), collected over three independent experiments are shown. Statistical
differences were evaluated using Student's t-tests. Statistically significant differences
(p<0.05) are highlighted yellow.

S10 File. Numerical data and statistical analysis for Fig 7D. Analysis of X
chromosome decondensation in *cec-4* and *dpy-21* mutants. Quantification of a total of
20 nuclei collected over the course of 3 to 4 independent experiments are shown.
Statistical significance was evaluated using Student t-tests. Statistically significant
differences (p<0.05) are highlighted yellow.

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