Dissecting PADI6 function defines oocyte cytoplasmic lattices as regulatory hubs for fundamental cellular processes

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Abstract

Oocyte cytoplasmic lattices are critical for early embryo development but their composition and function are not fully understood. Mutations in *PADI6*, an essential component of cytoplasmic lattices, lead to early embryonic developmental arrest and female infertility. To investigate PADI6 function in mRNA storage, global protein levels, and lattice composition during early mammalian development we used single cell transcriptomics and proteomics methods to study two mouse models. *Padi6* null mutation resulted in inhibition of embryonic genome activation, defective maternal mRNA degradation, and disruption to protein storage on the cytoplasmic lattices. Distinct developmental phenotypes were observed with a hypomorphic *Padi6* mutation. By developing a powerful single cell proteomic fractionation method, we define the cytoplasmic lattice enriched proteome in which we find essential components of other major oocyte-specific compartments (ELVA, MARDO), suggesting previously unknown interconnections between them. Our findings highlight a critical scaffolding function of PADI6 and implicate cytoplasmic lattices as regulatory hubs for key processes in the oocyte and early embryo, including translation, respiration and protein degradation.

Introduction

The growing oocyte stockpiles mRNA and proteins that are critical for successful fertilisation and early embryonic development[1–3]. The embryo relies on these maternally deposited factors because post-fertilization the embryonic genome is transcriptionally silent, until it is activated through a process called embryonic genome activation (EGA)[4–6]. These oocyte factors are important not only for EGA, but also for other key developmental processes such as the regulated degradation of maternal transcripts and proteins, the translation of early embryonic proteins, and the restructuring of cellular organelles such as the mitochondria and endoplasmic reticulum[1,7–10]. Loss or mutation of these maternal factors often results in developmental disorders and female infertility as a result of early embryonic developmental arrest[11–26]. How exactly they are stored and regulated remains unclear.

Various oocyte specific compartments and structures have been linked to the storage or regulation of different maternal factors and processes during oogenesis. Examples of such compartments include: the cytoplasmic lattice (CPL) for the storage of maternal proteins[7,27–30], the mitochondria-associated ribonucleoprotein domain (MARDO) for the storage of maternal mRNA[31], and the endolysosomal

vesicular assembly (ELVA) for degradation of protein aggregates[32]. In each case the exact

compositions are not fully characterised, with microscopy techniques having primarily being employed

to determine their composition and function[7,8,30]. Various proteins are known to be essential for CPL

formation, including members of the subcortical maternal complex (SCMC), comprising maternally

inherited proteins such as OOEP, TLE6 and NALP5, and PADI6 (peptidyl arginine deiminase 6). Early

studies suggested CPLs were composed of cytokeratin filaments, acting as a storage site of maternal

ribosomes and mRNA[7,27–29,33]. Recently however, combining bulk proteomic analyses of mouse GV

oocytes with super-resolution microscopy experiments and cryoelectron tomography, Schuh and co-

workers reported that the CPLs are instead directly composed of the SCMC and related proteins and

act as a storage hub not for ribosomes and mRNA, but for maternal proteins[30]. Association with the

CPLs is proposed to be critical for the stability of these maternal factors.

PADI6 is one of the most abundant proteins in the oocyte and early embryo and is essential for the

formation of the CPLs, for early embryo development and for female fertility[34–37]. 32 variants have been

reported as the cause of infertility in 26 women (for review see ref: [34]). Additionally female *Padi6* knock-

out mice are infertile, with embryonic arrest at the 2-cell stage[37]. PADI6 belongs to the peptidyl arginine

deiminase (PADI) family, which catalyse the post-translational conversion of peptidyl arginine to

citrulline in numerous protein substrates[38–42]. PADI6, however, has been reported to be inactive by *in*

vitro citrullination assays against standard PADI substrates, and its activity as an arginine deiminase

enzyme is yet to be confirmed[43–45]. Our recent structural characterisation of human PADI6 variants

highlighted that, inconsistent with a purely scaffolding function, various embryonically lethal variants do

not significantly damage the folded state of PADI6[45]. Given that PADI6 might have a catalytic function,

we aimed to de-couple scaffolding functions from catalytic functions. Using microscopy, single cell

transcriptomics and proteomics, we characterised oocytes and embryos from *Padi6* knock-out mice

and mice with an alteration in the putative catalytic site of PADI6. This revealed that catalytic activity of

PADI6 is not essential for female fertility and allowed us to separate developmental phenotypes

observed due to complete absence of the CPLs, from those due more subtle changes to the CPLs or

lack of an additional function of PADI6. We then developed a single cell proteomic fractionation protocol

to characterise the CPL-enriched proteome, which contained key factors linked not only to the CPLs,

but also the MARDO and ELVA, suggesting these structures may have interlinked functions. These

analyses provide a comprehensive list of CPL-associated proteins, defining the CPLs as regulatory

hubs for key cellular processes, notably protein translation, degradation, and respiration.

Results

Establishment of PADI6 catalytic mutant and knock-out mouse lines

To de-couple scaffolding functions of PADI6, from potential catalytic functions, we designed a

catalytically inactivated PADI6 mouse model as a comparison to a complete null mutation. PADI

catalytic activity relies on a catalytic tetrad of residues centred on a key nucleophilic cysteine[46,47].

Substitution of the catalytic cysteine in PADI2 and PADI4 results in a catalytically dead enzyme. Guided

by multiple species sequence alignment, and our X-ray crystal structure of human PADI6, we predicted

that a putative catalytic function of mouse PADI6 (mPADI6) would be mediated through C663[45]. If

mPADI6 is catalytically active *in vivo*, substitution of C663 with alanine (mPADI6^{C663A}) would therefore

ablate this function by producing a catalytically dead enzyme. Any developmental phenotype observed

in mice expressing mPADI6^{C663A} could therefore be attributed to a loss of catalytic activity assuming

that protein stability was unaltered.

To confirm the cysteine to alanine substitution did not affect the stability or folded structure of mPADI6,

both wild-type mPADI6 and mPADI6^{C663A} were expressed and purified from mammalian cell culture

(**Supplementary Figures 1A-J**) and subjected to biophysical characterisation. Both the mPADI6 and

mPADI6^{C663A} melted at similar temperatures and formed dimers in solution with similar ratios of

monomer to dimer (**Supplementary Figures 1K-N**). Dimerisation is a property of PADIs 2 to 4 and

hPADI6 that has not previously been characterised for mPADI6[45–48]. These data indicate the C663A

substitution does not affect the folded dimeric structure of mPADI6.

The *Padi6^{C663A}* transgenic mouse line was then generated using CRISPR-Cas9 technology and a

single-stranded oligodeoxynucleotide repair template (**Supplementary Figure 2A-B**). In parallel, the

C57BL/6N *Padi6$^{tm1a(KOMP)Wtsl}$*/MbpMmucd line (ID:48953) was obtained from Mutant Mouse Resource &

Research Centers and full knock-out *Padi6$^{-/-}$* mice were generated by crossing homozygous

Padi6^{tm1a} mice with PGK-Cre mice, resulting in the deletion of exon 4 of the *Padi6* gene

(**Supplementary Figure 2B**). *Padi6* transcripts were not detected in *Padi6$^{-/-}$* ovaries, and transcript

levels in wild-type and *Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* ovaries were not significantly different (**Supplementary Figure**

2C).

Putative PADI6 catalytic activity is not essential for female fertility

We first assessed the fertility of *Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* and *Padi6^{-/-}* females compared to wild-type females

through natural matings with wild-type C57BL/6 males over a period of 4-5 weeks. Consistent with

literature reports, *Padi6^{-/-}* females were infertile, producing no litters (**Figure 1A**). *Padi6^{C663A/C663A}*

females on the other hand produced litters of comparable size to wild-type females (**Figure 1A**),

inidicating that a catalytic function of PADI6 is not essential for female fertility.

To gain a more detailed understanding of how embryos from each line were developing, we

characterised the developmental capacity of embryos from wild-type, *Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* and *Padi6^{-/-}*

females by time-lapse imaging (**Figure 1B-C**). Unexpectedly, embryos from *Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* females

(mat-*Padi6^{C663A/C663A}*) showed a small, but significant, reduction in their developmental potential

compared to embryos from wild-type females. Overall, 88% of wild-type zygotes successfully reached

the blastocyst stage compared with only 68% of mat-*Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* embryos. 25% of mat-

Padi6^{C663A/C663A} embryos arrested between the 4-cell and morula stages, with 7% failing at the zygote

and 2-cell stages, compared to wild-type embryos where only 9% arrested between the 4-cell and

morula stage, and 3% at zygote or 2-cell stage. Mat-*Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* embryos were also delayed in

reaching the 2-cell, 4-cell, 8-cell and morula stages (**Figure 1D**). The most significant delay was

between the 4-cell and morula stages, aligning with the higher incidence of arrest observed in mat-

Padi6^{C663A/C663A} embryos occurring between these stages (**Figure 1B**). Together, these observations

show an important but non-essential function of PADI6 was perturbed by the C663A substitution.

Embryos from *Padi6^{-/-}* females (mat-*Padi6^{-/-}*) were considerably more restricted in their development

compared to both wild-type and mat-*Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* embryos, with 77% arresting at the 2-cell stage, or

dividing to 4-cells before undergoing fragmentation and degeneration. Six embryos (14%) did progress

past the 4-cell stage, however all bar three exhibited fragmentation, un-synchronised and asymmetric

divisions, and eventual degeneration. These final three mat-*Padi6^{-/-}* zygotes (7%) developed to

blastocysts. Mat-*Padi6^{-/-}* embryos were delayed in reaching every developmental stage compared to

wild-type embryos, with significant delays in reaching the 2-cell to morula stages, indicative of the

developmental inhibition observed when PADI6 is entirely absent.

Cytoplasmic lattices are present in *Padi6*^{C663A/C663A} germinal vesicle oocytes

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Given the importance of PADI6 in CPL formation we used transmission electron microscopy to

investigate whether CPLs were perturbed in *Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ germinal vesicle (GV) oocytes (**Figure 2,**

Supplementary Figure 3). In line with previous studies, there was a complete absence of CPLs in all

of the *Padi6*$^{-/-}$ GV oocytes tested. Contrastingly, the CPLs were present and appeared with similar

morphology and abundance in 5 out of 6 *Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ GV oocytes, and 3 out of 4 wild-type oocytes

tested. This confirmed that the C663A substitution in mPADI6 does not affect the capacity of PADI6 to

contribute to CPL formation in mouse oocytes.

Transcriptome dysregulation is inversely correlated in mat-*Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ and mat-*Padi6*$^{-/-}$ 2-cell

embryos

To investigate the role of *Padi6* on transcriptome regulation we performed scRNA-seq on MII oocytes,

zygotes, and dissociated blastomeres from 2-cell embryos (corresponding to the timing of EGA in mice)

from wild-type, *Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ or *Padi6*$^{-/-}$ females (**Figure 3A**). After filtering, principal component

analysis (PCA) of all samples showed that cells predominantly clustered by developmental stage

(**Supplementary Figures 4A-D**). When compared to wild-type samples, both mat-*Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ and

mat-*Padi6*$^{-/-}$ samples displayed significant transcriptomic dysregulation. Coinciding with EGA, this

dysregulation was most prominent in 2-cell embryos, where thousands of transcripts were both up and

down regulated (**Figure 3B**). Unexpectedly, mat-*Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ and mat-*Padi6*$^{-/-}$ embryos resulted in

distinct transcriptome defects. There was little overlap between the up and downregulated genes in

samples from *Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ and *Padi6*$^{-/-}$ females at each stage (**Supplementary Figure 4E**). Instead,

an inverse correlation was observed at the 2-cell stage; 1097 (61%) of the genes upregulated in mat-

Padi6$^{C663A/C663A}$ 2-cell embryos were downregulated in mat-*Padi6*$^{-/-}$ 2-cell embryos (**Figure 3C**). This

inverse effect was less prominent in the opposite direction; only 241 (31%) of the genes downregulated

in mat-*Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ 2-cell embryos were upregulated in mat-*Padi6*$^{-/-}$ 2-cell embryos (**Figure 3C**).

Biological process gene ontology (GO) analysis of either the genes upregulated in mat-*Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$,

or the genes downregulated in mat-*Padi6*$^{-/-}$ 2-cell embryos, was enriched for primarily cytoplasmic

translation, rRNA processing, and translation, as well as mRNA processing, RNA splicing, ribosome

biogenesis, and ribosomal small subunit biogenesis (**Supplementary Figure 4F**). No significant

enrichment for any biological processes was seen in GO analysis of either the genes downregulated in

mat-*Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ 2-cell embryos or upregulated in mat-*Padi6*$^{-/-}$ 2-cell embryos. This clear phenotypic

divergence observed at the 2-cell stage is likely due to unique deficiencies during EGA caused by

perturbation of different PADI6 functions.

EGA is dysregulated in mat-*Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ embryos and inhibited in mat-*Padi6*$^{-/-}$ embryos

Differentially expressed genes were subjected to over representation analysis (ORA) by comparison

with a previously defined transcriptomic database of mouse early embryo development (DBTMEE v2)[49].

Genes involved in major EGA, and mid-pre-implantation gene activation were downregulated in mat-

Padi6$^{-/-}$ 2-cell embryos suggesting the observed developmental failure is indeed due to defective

activation of the embryonic genome in the absence of PADI6. Conversely, genes upregulated in mat-

Padi6$^{C663A/C663A}$ 2-cell embryos were linked with major EGA and mid-preimplantation gene activation

(MGA), as well as 2-cell transient, and maternal to MGA genes (**Figure 3D**). Furthermore, genes

belonging to the minor EGA subset were downregulated in 2-cell embryos. Together these observations

highlight a possible dysregulation of EGA in *Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ 2-cell embryo.

To better understand this observed dysregulation, we plotted the average Z-score of all genes in our

data belonging to the maternal RNA, minor EGA, major EGA, 2-cell transient, maternal to MGA, and

MGA subsets in each of our conditions (**Figure 3E**). As expected, genes belonging to subsets

associated with genome activation and the 2-cell embryo (Major EGA, 2-cell transient and MGA) had

increasing Z-scores between the zygote and the 2-cell stage in wild-type embryos. This increase was

larger in mat-*Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ embryos, further showing there were aberrantly increased transcript levels

for 2-cell stage genes relative to wild-type embryos. Conversely, there was no increase in average Z-

score between the zygote and the 2-cell embryo stage of mat-*Padi6*$^{-/-}$ embryos for Major EGA, 2-cell

transient, and MGA genes. This confirms that PADI6 is critical for successful EGA.

Maternal RNA and minor EGA mRNA degradation is defective in mat-*Padi6*^{-/-} 2-cell embryos

Maternal transcripts are subject to tightly regulated and specific degradation post-fertilisation[50]. Surprisingly, maternal RNA appeared upregulated in mat-*Padi6*^{-/-} 2-cell embryos when compared to wild-type embryos (**Figure 3D**). Closer inspection showed a subset of maternal RNA decreased in z-score between the zygote and 2-cell stages of wild-type and mat-*Padi6*[C663A/C663A] embryos, corresponding to their degradation (**Figure 3F**). Such a decrease was not observed in mat-*Padi6*^{-/-} embryos, suggesting that the apparent upregulation of maternal RNA genes in mat-*Padi6*^{-/-} 2-cell embryos is actually a result of their stabilisation or defective degradation in the absence of PADI6. A similar phenomenon was observed for minor EGA genes which were degraded between the zygote and 2-cell stage of wild-type embryos (**Figure 3G**). Together this highlights a previously unknown developmental defect associated with PADI6, the defective degradation of maternal transcripts post-fertilization.

Establishment of a single embryo proteomic workflow

Our transcriptomic analyses revealed distinct defects in mat-*Padi6*[C663A/C663A] and mat-*Padi6*^{-/-} embryos. As oocytes store proteins as well as mRNA for future development, interrogation of both the transcriptome and proteome is essential to fully understand the developmental phenotypes and functions of PADI6. Bulk analyses of *Padi6* knock-out mouse GV oocytes have recently revealed that loss of PADI6 leads to proteome defects that are decoupled from transcriptomic differences[30]. How this proteomic dysregulation extends post-fertilisation, where we observed the most dramatic developmental defects, has not yet been characterised. To address this we developed a single oocyte/embryo proteomic workflow and used it to analyse GV oocytes and 2-cell embryos from wild-type, *Padi6*[C663A/C663A] and *Padi6*^{-/-} females (**Figure 4A**). The ability to profile single cells allowed us to additionally assay individual sample heterogeneity present in wild-type, *Padi6*[C663A/C663A] and *Padi6*^{-/-} samples. The number of proteins identified per single cell sample in our workflow was highly consistent, with an average 5300 proteins per single GV oocyte, and 5800 proteins per single 2-cell embryo (**Figure 4B**), comparable in depth to the recently published One-Tip workflow[51], an alternative protocol for performing single oocyte proteomics. The obtained GV oocyte proteomic data was highly consistent between samples of the same genotype (**Figure 4C**). Proteomic data obtained from 2-cell embryos showed greater variability, in particular for mat-*Padi6*[C663A/C663A] and mat-*Padi6*^{-/-} embryos, likely

representative of the onset of developmental disruption as observed in the time-lapse analysis (**Figure**

2).

Padi6⁻/⁻ **GV oocytes and 2-cell embryos show dramatic protein dysregulation**

PADI6 was the second most abundant protein overall in wild-type GV oocytes and the 14th most

abundant in wild-type 2-cell embryos (**Supplementary Figures 5A-B**), consistent with bulk proteomic

data[35]. PADI6 protein level in both GV oocytes and 2-cell embryos from *Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* females was

not significantly different to wild-type levels, in line with our biophysical data showing the C663A

substitution did not affect protein expression or stability (**Supplementary Figures 5C-D**).

Globally, in *Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* GV oocytes, 124 proteins were downregulated and 23 were upregulated

when compared to wild-type (**Figure 4D**). More pronounced dysregulation was observed in *Padi6⁻/⁻* GV

oocytes with 363 proteins downregulated and 212 proteins upregulated. At the 2-cell stage, in contrast

to the dramatic transcriptional dysregulation observed in mat-*Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* embryos (**Figure 3B**), few

proteins were dysregulated, with 58 proteins downregulated, and 86 upregulated (**Figure 4D**). Again,

as in the GV oocyte, more pronounced dysregulation was seen in mat-*Padi6⁻/⁻* 2-cell embryos with 307

downregulated and 219 upregulated (**Figure 4D**), although this is still less substantial than the

transcriptomic dysregulation observed in equivalent embryos (**Figure 3B**). Overall, little to no correlation

was observed between mRNA and protein dysregulation in either mat-*Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* or mat-*Padi6⁻/⁻*

2-cell embryos (**Supplementary Figure 5E**). This is consistent with data showing that minimal

translation occurs in the 2-cell embryo, with the first large translational wave only occuring in the

morula[52], suggesting that transcriptomic and proteomic dysregulation need not be linked at early

developmental stages.

Similar to the distinct transcriptomic phenotypes observed, there was minimal overlap in dysregulated

proteins from *Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* and *Padi6⁻/⁻* females at each stage (**Supplementary Figures 5F-G**).

Pathway enrichment analysis of the dysregulated proteins using the Search Tool for the Retrieval of

Interacting Genes/Proteins (STRING)[53] showed no significant enrichment for any biological processes

for those dysregulated in *Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* GV oocytes. On the other hand, RNA splicing and mRNA

processing factors were downregulated in the *Padi6⁻/⁻* GV oocytes, suggesting that early genome

activation events could be misregulated due to defects in RNA processing (**Supplementary Figure**

5H). Additionally, numerous catabolic pathways were upregulated in *Padi6⁻/⁻* GV oocytes, including

many components in the fatty acid metabolism and β-oxidation pathway, indicating energy production

pathways may be altered in the absence of PADI6 (**Supplementary Figure 5I**). As in the GV oocytes,

no significant enrichment for any biological processes was observed for dysregulated proteins in mat-

Padi6^{C663A/C663A} 2-cell embryos consistent with their viability. Mat-*Padi6⁻/⁻* 2-cell downregulated proteins

were not significantly enriched for any biological processes, however, mat-*Padi6⁻/⁻* 2-cell upregulated

proteins enriched significantly for mRNA processing, splicing and epigenetic modification processes

(**Supplementary Figure 5J**).

The levels of key CPL scaffolding proteins from the SCMC (OOEP, TLE6, NALP5 and KHDC3), were

not significantly different in either *Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* or *Padi6⁻/⁻* GV oocytes or 2-cell embryos when

compared to wild-type (**Supplementary Figures 6A-B**). UHRF1 was abundantly expressed in wild-

type GV oocytes and 2-cell embryos, but virtually absent in *Padi6⁻/⁻* GV oocytes and 2-cell embryos

(**Supplementary Figure 6A-B**). This PADI6-dependent co-depletion of UHRF1 on the protein level was

previously observed in bulk proteome analyses[30], and is not mirrored by a corresponding decrease in

the mRNA level of UHRF1 (**Supplementary Figure 6C**), suggesting PADI6 regulates UHRF1 protein

levels. No significant change in UHRF1 level was observed in GV oocytes or 2-cell embryos from

Padi6^{C663A/C663A} females compared with wild-type, ruling out a catalytic contribution to this stabilisation.

The CPLs store critical housekeeping proteins for the early embryo

Dysregulation and developmental defects in *Padi6⁻/⁻* GV oocytes have been linked to the absence of

CPLs, which are proposed to be key regulators of protein stability in mammalian oocytes[30]. Multiple

studies have highlighted the complex composition of CPLs, which appear to house multiple proteins in

addition to the core members. Key structural components of the CPLs have been identified (PADI6,

SCMC, UHRF1)[37,54–57], along with the recent identification of a range of proteins stored on the lattices[30].

Despite this growing understanding, however, the full composition remains uncharacterised. A complete

list of the CPL components would aid in our understanding of CPL function and the phenotypes related

to PADI6.

CPLs are Triton X-100 insoluble and historically triton extraction experiments coupled with

immunofluorescence have been employed to characterise CPL associated factors[7,8,33]. We reasoned

that Triton X-100 treatment followed by single oocyte mass spectrometry of *Padi6*^{-/-} and wild-type

oocytes could be used to more comprehensively identify proteins associated with intact CPLs. CPL

associated proteins would be enriched in the Triton X-100 insoluble fraction in wild-type oocytes after

treatment, but washed out in *Padi6*^{-/-} oocytes that lack the CPLs (**Figure 5A**). Wild-type, *Padi6*[C663A/C663A]

and *Padi6*^{-/-} GV oocytes were subjected to Triton X-100 treatment immediately after harvesting, washed

thoroughly in PBS and analysed using our single cell proteomics workflow. As expected for sub-cell

proteomics, significantly fewer proteins per oocyte were identified in Triton X-100 treated samples, with

an average of 1700 (**Figure 5B**). Overall sample variation for treated samples increased in comparison

with intact oocytes; as seen previously, more variation was also observed in *Padi6*[C663A/C663A] and *Padi6*^{-/-}

GV oocytes than wild-type potentially indicating heterogeneity in CPL defects (**Figure 5C**).

805 proteins were enriched in wild-type in comparison to *Padi6*^{-/-} Triton X-100 treated oocytes (**Figure**

5D). Given the defect in CPL formation, we propose that most of these proteins are ones that are

rendered insoluble through association with the CPLs in wild-type oocytes and hence comprise a bona

fide CPL-associated proteome. Supportive of this interpretation among the enriched proteins were all

reported members of the mouse SCMC (OOEP, KHDC3L, TLE6, NALP5, NLRP2, NLRP4F, NLRP7,

ZBED3)[9,10,56,58–61], as well as novel CPL proteins identified by Jentoft *et al.* using expansion microscopy

(UHRF1, SKP1, SPIN1, YWHAZ, a-Tubulin, UBE2D2, KDM2B, NLRP14, NLRP4A, NLRP4B,

NLRP4F)[30] (**Figure 5E**).Together these results indicate that we have established a powerful sub-cellular

proteomic workflow from single mouse oocytes capable of identifying proteins associated with the

CPLs.

Association of proteins with the CPLs has been proposed to promote stability and storage of proteins

in the oocyte[30]. In line with this, the identified CPL-enriched proteins were predominantly

downregulated, rather than upregulated, in intact *Padi6*^{-/-} GV oocytes, although the extent of

downregulation varied (only 38 proteins were downregulated with a $\log_2 FC < -0.5$) and many proteins

displayed little to no change in stability (**Supplementary Figures 7A-B**). Maternal to mid-

preimplantation genome activation proteins were the most overrepresented subset when compared

with the DBTMEE v2 database, in which 94 proteins were CPL-enriched[49] (**Supplementary Figure**

7C). These proteins include a variety of factors involved in key cellular processes such as translation,

protein degradation, respiration and splicing. Due to their critical functions these proteins are uniformly

expressed from the oocyte to blastocyst stage[49]. STRING analysis of the CPL-enriched proteins

showed a significant enrichment for both translation, and ATP generation biological processes

(**Supplementary Figure 7D**). This finding suggests the CPLs are key structures in the regulation and

storage of crucial housekeeping proteins during early embryo development.

Clustering of CPL-enriched proteins reveals core and accessory components

Clustering of the CPL-enriched proteins by z-score across Triton X-100 treated wild-type,

Padi6$^{C663A/C663A}$, and *Padi6$^{-/-}$* GV oocytes divided the CPL-enriched proteins into seven clusters,

covering three general profiles (**Figure 5F**). Proteins belonging to cluster 1 (34 proteins) were the most

abundant in intact wild-type oocytes, had similar levels in wild-type and *Padi6$^{C663A/C663A}$* treated samples,

but were dramatically reduced in *Padi6$^{-/-}$* GV oocytes (**Figure 5F-G, Supplementary Figure 8A**).

Contained within cluster 1 were PADI6, key SCMC components, an array of tubulins, as well as proteins

previously identified to be associated to the CPLs, including UHRF1, SKP1, SPIN1 and KDM2B

(**Supplementary Figure 8B**). Given the known requirement of many proteins in cluster 1 for CPL

formation[37,54–57], this cluster likely represents core structural components of the CPLs.

Clusters 2 and 3 (91 and 113 proteins respectively) were similar to cluster 1, in that they contained

proteins with similar protein abundances between wild-type and *Padi6$^{C663A/C663A}$* Triton X-100 treated

oocytes, with reduced abundance in *Padi6$^{-/-}$* oocytes, although the differences in average z-score

between the three mouse lines were less than for cluster 1 (**Figure 5G**). STRING analysis of cluster 2

enriched for protein localisation and transport processes, likely driven by the presence of six 14-3-3

proteins (**Supplementary Figure 8C**). Cluster 3 enriched for translation related processes

(**Supplementary Figure 8D**). We propose that together clusters 2 and 3 represent proteins that are not

themselves key for CPL formation but that are associated with the CPLs, with proteins in Cluster 2 in

particular acting as accessory factors involved in the storage and localisation of other proteins to the

CPLs.

Intriguingly, proteins belonging to clusters 4 to 7 (118, 220, 174 and 55 proteins respectively, 567 total)

were reduced in *Padi6^C663A/C663A* Triton X-100 treated samples to a level similar to *Padi6^-/-* GV oocytes,

with the most comparable levels for proteins in clusters 6 and 7 (**Figure 5F-G**). STRING analysis of

clusters 4 and 5 enriched strongly for translation related processes, like cluster 3 (**Supplementary**

Figure 8E-F). Cluster 6 enriched the most for proton motive force-driven mitochondrial ATP synthesis,

among other mitochondrial respiratory and electron transport chain biological processes

(**Supplementary Figure 8G**). Proteins belonging to cluster 7 actually had lower average z-scores in

Padi6^C663A/C663A Triton X-100 treated samples compared to *Padi6^-/-* (**Figure 5F-G**). STRING analysis of

cluster 7 did not enrich significantly for any biological processes as the other clusters did, although it

did contain ribosomal sub-units, mitochondrial factors, and MARDO protein LSM14B (**Supplementary**

Figure 8H). Given the CPLs are readily formed in *Padi6^C663A/C663A* GV oocytes (**Figure 1**), these data

suggest that the C663A substitution, affected CPL integrity in a way that was not readily assayed by

transmission electron microscopy. Clusters 4 to 7 therefore represent an alternate subset of accessory

components which require a function of PADI6 beyond CPL formation for association with the CPLs.

Protein translation, regulation and degradation machinery are enriched in the CPLs

Early work into the CPLs reported that the CPLs act as a storage hub for maternal ribosomes and

mRNA, however this theory was recently disputed[7,30]. In our data, 43 large ribosomal subunit proteins

and 25 small ribosomal subunit proteins were enriched in wild-type compared to *Padi6^-/-* Triton X-100

treated GV oocytes, suggesting the CPLs are indeed associated with maternal ribosomes (**Figure 6A**).

Given the number of ribosomal subunits identified, this likely represents intact ribosomes. As well as

ribosomal subunits, SERBP1, which promotes ribosome hibernation, and RACK1, which is known to

bind to ribosomes and regulate translation among other cellular processes were CPL-enriched[62–65]

(**Figure 6B**). This substantiates the theory that the CPLs store ribosomes, with our data additionally

suggesting these ribosomes are stored in a dormant state

Various proteins involved in protein degradation, including SKP1, are known to be associated with the

CPLs[30]. As well as SKP1, we find both CUL1 and RBX1, the other two core components of the SKP1-

CUL1-F-box protein (SCF) ubiquitin ligase complex, and UBE2D2, a known E2 of the complex, to be

CPL-enriched (**Figure 6C**). The SCF complex mediates the ubiquitination of proteins involved in the

cell cycle and transcription, and interacts with F-box proteins as substrate recognition adaptors [66–69]. 11

F-box and WD-40 domain (FBXW) proteins were also present in the CPL-enriched fraction, including

the well characterised SCF substrate recognition adapter FBXW11 (**Figure 6C**). These FBXW proteins

could resemble an array of embryo specific targeting adaptors for the regulated and timely degradation

of maternal factors. Along with this ubiquitination machinery, 25 proteosomal subunits were enriched

on the CPLs (**Supplementary Figure 9A**). Proteosomes themselves are stored along with aggregated

proteins, endolysosomes and autophagosomes in the liquid-like matrix ELVAs[32]. This protein matrix is

formed by RUFY1 and ELVAs contain the lysosome associated LAMP1, both of which were also

enriched in Triton X-100 treated wild-type oocytes compared to *Padi6* knock-out (**Supplementary**

Figure 9B). Together this indicates that as well as translation machinery, the CPLs house and/or

regulate protein degradation machinery in the oocyte.

The CPLs are associated with oocyte mitochondria

Intriguingly, many proteins involved in ATP generation and mitochondrial respiration, in particular

components of the electron transport chain, were enriched in the CPLs (**Figure 6D-E**). During oocyte

maturation, mitochondria undergo dramatic dynein and kinesin dependent reorganisation and cluster

around the nucleus prior to nuclear envelope breakdown[70,71]. These mitochondria cluster into

membraneless compartments named mitochondria-associated ribonucleoprotein domains (MARDO),

whose assembly is dependent on ZAR1[31]. Unexpectedly, this MARDO component, ZAR1 and related

isoform ZAR1L, were enriched in the CPLs together with RNA-binding protein LSM14B which also

colocalises with the MARDO[31](**Figure 6D**). This association of ZAR1L and LSM14B to the CPLs was

disrupted in *Padi6$^{C663A/C663A}$* GV oocytes (**Supplementary Figure 9C**).

Mitochondria in human oocytes lack Respiratory Complex I as a strategy to prevent highly damaging

reactive oxygen species (ROS) build up[72]. How Respiratory Complex I is stored however, is unknown.

52 components of Respiratory Complex I, III, IV and ATP synthase machinery were CPL-enriched

(**Figure 6D**). 17 of these were also less enriched in the CPL fraction of *Padi6$^{C663A/C663A}$* oocytes

(**Supplementary Figure 9D**).[72] Thus Respiratory Complex I storage could be CPL-dependent, and

dysregulated in the absence of PADI6. Notably, three key proteins (GPX1, SOD2, and PRDX6), which

neutralise ROS[73], and are upregulated in times of oxidative stress, are upregulated in *Padi6$^{-/-}$* GV

oocytes (**Supplementary Figure 9E**), highlighting ROS damage as a possible contributor to the severe

developmental phenotypes present in the absence of PADI6.

Mitochondrial factors associate with the CPLs through PADI6

Finally, with an atlas of CPL proteins in hand, we sought to identify proteins whose association to the

CPLs was mediated by PADI6. Due to the high numbers of mice required to perform co-

immunoprecipitation (co-IP) experiments directly from oocytes, we instead chose to identify PADI6

interactors by co-immunoprecipitation of FLAG-PADI6 expressed in transiently transfected HEK-293T

cells, which express many of the identified CPL associated proteins. 212 proteins were enriched when

immunoprecipitated with FLAG-PADI6 compared to control protein FLAG-GFP (**Supplementary**

Figure 10A). These proteins included UHRF1, UHRF2, key cell cycle proteins, mitochondrial and

respiratory factors, ribosomal and mitochondrial ribosome components, and 14-3-3 proteins. As with

the CPL-enriched proteins, STRING analysis of the PADI6 co-immunoprecipitated proteins enriched

strongly for translation and mitochondrial respiration related biological process (**Supplementary Figure**

10B). The co-immunoprecipitation proteomic data set showed good coverage of the CPL-enriched

proteins supporting our use of HEK 293T cells; out of the 805 identified CPL-enriched proteins, 665

(82.6%) were present in the co-immunoprecipitation dataset (**Supplementary Figure 10C**).

134 proteins enriched in the PADI6 pulldown were present in the intact GV oocyte proteome data, of

which 44 were CPL-enriched (**Supplementary Figures 10D-E**). These proteins include many electron

transport chain components including several ATP synthases (ATP5ME, ATP5MG, ATP5MK, ATP5PB,

and ATP5PD), three cytochrome C oxidase subunits (COX5A, COX6A1, and COX6B1), two NADH

dehydrogenase 1 subunits (NDUFA6 and NDUFC2) and two cytochrome B complex subunits (UQCR10

and UQCRB). This suggests the association between oocyte mitochondria, or the MARDOs, and the

CPLs could be mediated through PADI6.

In line with previous studies proposing an interaction between PADI6 and 14-3-3 proteins,[74,75] three 14-

3-3 proteins that we found to be CPL-enriched were enriched in the PADI6 pull-down (*Ywhab, Ywhae,*

Ywhah, **Supplementary Figure 9F, 10E**). Recently, TLE6, was also found to be critical for the stability

of 14-3-3 proteins and their association with the CPLs[76].As TLE6 is not expressed in HEK-293T cells,

the co-precipitation of PADI6 and 14-3-3 proteins suggests that association of 14-3-3 proteins to the CPLs may be driven through interactions with both PADI6 and TLE6. Unlike for TLE6 though, our data suggest that PADI6 does not regulate 14-3-3 protein stability as these proteins were not downregulated at the protein level in intact $Padi6^{-/-}$ GV oocytes.

Six proteins enriched in the PADI6 pulldown were downregulated in $Padi6^{-/-}$ GV oocytes, but were not CPL-enriched (**Supplementary Figure 10E**). Among these are proteins involved in mitotic spindle and cell-cycle related RNA processing (SKA1, HAUS and RPRD1B). SKA1 is of particular note as it was downregulated in $Padi6^{C663A/C663A}$ GV oocytes in addition to knock-out oocytes. The SKA complex is critical for stabilisation of the meiotic spindle and its migration to the cortex[77–79] and in line with a possible cooperative function with PADI6, it has been reported that meiotic spindle morphology is significantly disrupted in $Padi6$ knock-out MII oocytes[8].

Discussion

PADI6 is critical for early embryo development in mice and humans, but aside from being integral to CPL formation, the functions of PADI6 are unclear. In this work we have used two mouse models, a knock-out and a single amino acid substituted line, to untangle CPL scaffolding dependent functions, from potential catalytic functions. We further leveraged these models to develop a proteomic workflow that characterised the CPL-enriched proteome, providing the most comprehensive catalogue of their components to date. This validates previous hypotheses on their composition and highlights potential previously unknown functions. Although we see a bias towards downregulation of proteins associated with the CPLs in their absence, on the whole this effect is relatively subtle, suggesting that the main function of the CPLs may be the localisation and storage of proteins e.g. to keep ribosomes and protein degradation machinery inactive, rather than their stabilisation, with stabilisation of certain proteins being a downstream consequence of their immobilisation.

Many oocyte specific super structures with unique functions have been reported in addition to CPLs[30] including the MARDO[31] and ELVA[32]. However, with microscopy techniques primarily being employed in their characterisation, the exact protein compositions and regulatory mechanisms of each are unknown. Additionally, the interplay between these structures has not been studied. Key factors

required for the formation of these structures have been identified, notably PADI6 and the SCMC for

the CPLs[37,54–57], ZAR1 for MARDO[31], and RUFY1 for the ELVA[32]. Both ZAR1 and RUFY1 appeared in

our CPL-enriched proteome. Given the ability of these proteins to form phase-separated structures in

the oocyte, it is conceivable that they also contribute to CPL formation and scaffolding. Or alternatively,

this reveals an interdependency between the MARDO, ELVA and CPLs. Further work is required to

untangle the interrelations between these oocyte structures, and the commonality of proteins required

for their formation and regulation.

We have shown that a catalytic function of PADI6 is not essential for the formation of the CPLs, or more

broadly for early embryo development and female fertility. Embryos from $Padi6^{C663A/C663A}$ females do,

however, show a significantly higher incidence of arrest compared to embryos from wild-type females,

and 2-cell embryos showed dramatic transcriptomic dysregulation, in particular in major EGA factors.

The enrichment of a large subset of proteins in the CPL-fraction was reduced in $Padi6^{C663A/C663A}$ oocytes,

suggesting the structure of the CPLs in these mice was disrupted. The possibility of a non-essential

catalytic function of PADI6 in oogenesis and early embryo development cannot therefore be ruled out,

although an alternative explanation for this disruption in $Padi6^{C663A/C663A}$ oocytes could be that this

substitution in PADI6 disrupts its interaction with certain proteins, which our data suggest may include

ribosomal and mitochondrial electron transport chain components.

Aside from the transcriptomic and EGA dysregulation observed at the 2-cell stage, we found that a large

subset of mat-$Padi6^{C663A/C663A}$ embryos arrested or degenerated at the morula stage. This points toward

additional functions of PADI6 later on in development, which could be catalytic and cannot easily be

studied in knock-out models due to the high incidence of arrest at the 2- to 4-cell stages. It is conceivable

that a possible catalytic function of PADI6 in the morula could be a means to enable the dissociation of

the CPLs, akin to the way in which histone citrullination by PADI4 can weaken the electrostatic

interactions between histone tails resulting in the de-compaction of chromatin[46,80,81]. The CPLs have

been reported to persist until the morula stage, and the mechanism of their disassembly is unknown[52].

This disappearence of the CPLs is accompanied by a large wave of embryonic translation and an

increase in free ribosomes. Our data shows that ribosomes are associated with the CPLs, most likely

as a mechanism through which their activity and dormancy is regulated. It would be of interest in future

work to determine whether the CPLs persist beyond the morula stage in mat-*Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ embryos

and whether this is accompanied by inhibited translation.

Many variants in CPL associated genes are reported to result in severe developmental phenotypes,

most commonly early embryonic developmental arrest and female infertility. For the most damaging

mutations, the most common observation attributed to the developmental phenotypes is an absence of

the CPLs. Our work however, highlights previously unseen nuance to the function of these proteins and

what constitutes an intact CPL. For example our data on the CPL proteome highlights that association

of proteins with CPLs can be disrupted even when the CPLs appear intact by microscopy. Clinical data

also supports this, with a range of surface point mutations in *PADI6* having been reported to result in

longer pregnancies resulting in miscarriages, and in fertile women whose offspring develop multi-locus

imprinting disorders [11,17,21–25,34]. To fully understand the functions of core members of the CPLs, both in

the context of the CPLs, and not, models incorporating these more subtle protein changes will be

required.

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Data Availability

Raw and processed scRNA-seq data are available from the Gene Expression Omnibus[82], under accession GSE289965. Raw and processed mass spectrometry data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via PRIDE[83], under the identifier PDX060967. Time-lapse imaging videos and transmission electron microscopy images are available from the lead contact upon request. Jupyter notebooks used to analyse scRNA-seq and mass spectrometry data are available under https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14882496. Unprocessed western blot images are contained within the Supporting Information of this publication.

Methods

Animal general husbandry

All animal procedures were performed in accordance with the relevant institutional and national guidelines and regulation, under the UK Home Office License Number P1234304. The animals were housed at the animal facility of The Francis Crick Institute, under a 12h light/12h dark cycle, in singly ventilated cages, at relative humidity between 45 and 65% and $20 - 24$ °C. Reverse osmosis water and autoclaved pelleted food were available 24 h to the animals. Caging, bedding, nesting material and enrichments were autoclaved prior to use and changed routinely. The health of the animals was monitored by daily visual checks and weekly full health checks. Adult females and males were housed in separate cages in groups of 3-4 animals. Pups were genotyped for *Padi6*^{C663A} and *Padi6* knock-out alleles using real time PCR with specific probes designed for each gene by Transnetyx (Cordova, TN). Only homozygous females between the ages of 8 and 11 weeks bearing the desired genetic mutations were used in experiments.

Generation of Padi6 C663A mouse model

Three guide RNAs (sgRNAs) were designed using CRISPOR.org[84] to cut in Exon 16 of the *Padi6* gene (Supplementary Figure 2, Supplementary Table 1). A 120bp ssODN was designed to be used with all three guides and containing the C663A (TGT>GCC) mutation, silent mutations for the respective guides, and 58-59 bp homology arms either side (Supplementary Table 2). C57BL/6J zygotes were electroporated using the Nepa21 square wave electroporator (Sonidel). 50 μL of the RNP complex

together with the ssODN (1.2 μM/ 6 μM/ 8 μM was placed in the chamber of a CUY505P5 electrode,

and the zygotes were electroporated using a poring pulse of 225 V (length: 1 ms, interval: 50 ms, #: 4,

D. Rate: 10%, polarity: +) and a transfer pulse of 20 V (length: 50 ms, interval: 50 ms, #: 5, D. Rate:

40%, polarity: +/-). Real time PCR was performed by Transnetyx (Cordova, TN) on mouse ear-snips to

identify eleven F0 mice preliminarily positive for the mutation. Amplicon PCR was performed on all

founder mice spanning the entire ssODN and submitted for high-throughput sequencing using Illumina

MiSeq sequencing 250 bp paired-end reads at the Crick Genomics Science Technology Platform

(primers listed in Supplementary Table 3). Targeting with sgRNA-3 produced six F0 mice with perfect

integration of the point mutations; three of these mice, with the highest percentage of the intended

mutation, were crossed to C57BL/6J and produced two and six F1 mice in independent lines, identified

as heterozygous for the mutation by Illumina MiSeq sequencing. Long read sequencing (Oxford

Nanopore Technologies) was performed on 3.2 kb amplicons, generated by PCR, spanning the

targeted insertion on a single F1 mouse from each line, no aberrant on-target mutations or deletions

were found 1.5 kb upstream or downstream of the insertion in either case (primers listed in

Supplementary Table 4). Copy number was evaluated using ddPCR on the same two F1 heterozygous

mice and no evidence of random integrations of the transgene was found (primers listed in

Supplementary Table 5).

Generation of Padi6 knock-out mouse model

C57BL/6N *Padi6tm1a(KOMP)Wtsl*/MbpMmucd line (ID:48953) sperm was obtained from Mutant Mouse

Resource & Research Centres (MMRC). The critical exon was deleted by inseminating oocytes from

PGK-Cre mice by in vitro fertilization (IVF). After embryo transfer, *Padi6* mice with a lacZ tagged null

allele (tm1b) were generated. Mice were genotyped using real time PCR with specific probes designed

by Transnetyx (Cordova, TN).

Generation of sterile XX^{Y*} mice

Sterile XX^{Y*} (X-attached-Y) mice were obtained by mating C57BL/6 females to XY* mice carrying a

rearranged Y chromosome[85]. Recombination between an X and the Y* chromosome during male

meiosis results in the X^{Y*} recombinant product, in which almost the entire Y* chromosome is attached

to the X. Adult sterile XX^{Y*} (20 mg testis) mice are identified by testis palpation under short-term

inhalation anaesthesia.

Cloning and preparation of recombinant DNA

Primers were designed using SnapGene® software for In-Fusion cloning (primers listed in

Supplementary Table 6). The mouse *Padi6* (Twist Bioscience) and human *PADI6* (DNASU,

#HsCD00297377) coding sequences were amplified by PCR. The pcDNA3.1-Strep-Strep-TEV

(donated by Dr. Neil Q. McDonald[86]) and pcDNA3.1-3xFLAG (donated by Prof. Chris Schofield) vector

backbones were linearized by PCR. Amplified fragment inserts and linearised vectors were resolved by

gel electrophoresis in a 1% Agarose TAE gel (100 V, 30 min) in TAE buffer and extracted using the

PureLink™ Quick Gel Extraction Kit (Invitrogen, #K210012) following the manufacturer's protocol.

Fragment (~50 ng) and linearised vector (~50 ng) were combined with 2 μL 5X In-Fusion HD Enzyme

(Takara Bio, #639650) and mixture made up to 10 μL with Nuclease Free Water. The mixture was

incubated for 15 min at 50 °C and 5 μL transformed into 50 μL a *E. Coli* NEB® 5-alpha aliquot (New

England Biolabs, #C2987H). Plasmids were sequenced by Sanger sequencing to confirm successful

gene insertion and MaxiPrepped using the ZymoPURE II™ Plasmid Maxiprep kit (Zymo, #D4202)

before transfection into Expi293™ cells or HEK-293T cells.

Plasmid mutagenesis

Mutagenesis primers were designed to be ~35 bp in length, with a melting temperature >78 °C with a

GC content of ~40% terminating in C or G (primers listed in Supplementary Table 7). Mutagenesis was

performed by PCR following the Agilent QuickChange Protocol with PfuTurbo DNA polymerase

(Agilent, #600250). After PCR amplification, 1 μL Dnp1 restriction enzyme (NEB, #R0176S) was added

to the PCR mixture and the sample incubated at 37 °C for 1 h. After 1 h, 5 μL were transformed into a

E. Coli NEB® 5-alpha aliquot (New England Biolabs, #C2987H). Plasmids were sequenced by Sanger

sequencing to confirm presence of desired mutation and MaxiPrepped using the ZymoPURE II™

Plasmid Maxiprep kit (Zymo, #D4202) before transfection into Expi293™ or HEK-293T cells.

Recombinant protein expression and purification

Expi293™ cells (Gibco™, #A14527) were incubated with 150 rpm agitation, 8% CO_2, at 37 °C and

diluted twice weekly. For transfection, cells were counted using Vi-CELL XR counter (Beckmann

Coultier) and diluted to 2 x 10^6 cells/mL in pre-warmed Expi293™ Expression Medium (ThermoFisher,

#A1435101). 24 hours later, cells were transfected with MaxiPrepped recombinant DNA and PEI 25K™

(Polysciences, #23966-1) at a ratio of 1:3 (DNA: PEI) in Opti-MEM® (ThermoFisher, #11058021).

Cultures were then incubated for 3 days before harvesting by centrifugation at 2000 rpm for 15 min at

4 °C and cell pellets flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C.

Frozen transfected Expi293™ cell pellets were re-suspended in purification buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH

7.5, 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM TCEP) with cOmplete™ EDTA-free Protease Inhibitor Cocktail tablets (Merck,

#73567200), 1 mg/mL Lysozyme (Sigma, #L6876-5G) and a micro-spatula of DNAse (Roche,

#10104159001). Cells were lysed on ice by sonication and crude lysates centrifuged at 21,000 rpm for

45 min before being filtered through 0.45 µm PVDF filters. Cleared cell lysate was added to

StrepTactin® XT 4Flow® resin (Iba, #2-5010-025) at a ratio of 2 mL packed beads per 500 mL Expi293

cell culture and incubated at 4 °C for 4 hours with gentle rotation. After 4 h, the unbound fraction was

removed by gravity filtration and the resin was washed with purification buffer. Washed resin was re-

suspended in twice its volume of purification buffer, TEV protease (produced in-house) added at a ratio

of 2 mg protease per 500 mL Expi293 cell culture and incubated at 4 °C overnight with gentle rocking.

The cleaved fraction was then removed by gravity filtration and the resin was again washed with

purification buffer. Cleaved and wash fractions were combined and concentrated to 2 mL using a

Vivaspin™ 20, 30000 MWCO ultrafiltration centrifugal concentrator (Sartorius, #10506282) and purified

by size exclusion chromatography using a HiLoadTM 16/600 SuperdexTM 200 pg Gel Filtration Column

(Cytivia, # 28989335), in purification buffer on an ÄKTApure™ system (Cytivia). Fractions were

characterised by SDS-PAGE and pooled. Pooled fractions were concentrated again until no further

decrease in volume was observed and stored at -80 °C.

Intact-MS

Proteins were denatured and diluted to 1 µM at pH 2 with 2% (v/v) formic acid and 2% (v/v) acetonitrile.

Denatured proteins were injected onto a C4 BEH 1.7 µm, 1 mm x 100 mm UPLC column (Waters™,

#186005590) using an Acquity I class LC (Waters™). Proteins were eluted with a 15 min gradient of

acetonitrile (2% v/v to 80% v/v) in 0.1% v/v formic acid using a flow rate of 50 µL/min. The analytical

column outlet was directly interfaced via an electrospray ionisation source, with a time-of-flight

BioAccord mass spectrometer (Waters™). Data was acquired over a *m/z* range of 300 – 8000, in

positive ion mode with a cone voltage of 40 V. Scans were summed together manually and

deconvoluted using MaxEnt1 (Masslynx, Waters™). Deconvoluted mass and intensity values were

exported and plotted in GraphPad Prism.

Nano differential scanning fluorimetry

Proteins were diluted to an approximate concentration of 0.2 mg/mL in purification buffer (50 mM Tris-

HCl, pH 7.5, 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM TCEP). Melting experiments were performed using Prometheus™

NT.48 High Sensitivity Capillaries (NanoTemper, #PR-C006-200) on a Prometheus (NanoTemper)

instrument with a 20 to 95 °C melt at 1 °C per minute. The 350/30 nm fluorescence ratio and first

derivative of this ratio was plotted against temperature using GraphPad Prism. Melting temperatures

were extracted as the first derivative peak in the melting curve calculated using the Panta Analysis

software (NanoTemper). Experiment was conducted in triplicate.

Mass Photometry

Proteins were diluted to an approximate concentration of 20 nM in purification buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl,

pH 7.5, 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM TCEP). 2 µL of diluted protein was then added to 18 µL of PBS in the well

of a gasket on a TwoMP instrument (Refeyn) and events recorded over the course of 1 min using the

AquireMP software (Refeyn). Molecule sizes were calculated using the AnalyseMP software (Refeyn)

using BSA (Thermo Scientific™, #23209), ADH (Sigma-Aldrich, #A7011) and Urease (Sigma-Aldrich,

#94280) as standards. Mass normalised event histograms were produced using GraphPad Prism with

bin sizes of 5 kDa.

Mouse ovary RT-qPCR

Ovaries were homogenised using a 21G BD Microlance™ 3 needle (Camlab, #304432) and mRNA

extracted using RNeasy® Mini Kit (Qiagen, #74104) following the manufacturer's protocol. Extracted

mRNA was reverse transcribed using the LunaScript® RT Super Mix Kit (NEB, #E3010S) following the

manufacturer's protocol. Transcribed mRNA was diluted in Nuclease Free Water to 5 ng/µL and RT-

qPCR was performed using QuantiTect® qPCR primer assays (Qiagen) for *Padi6* (Mm_Padi6_1_SG,

#QT00162750) and *B2m* (Mm_B2m_2_SG, #QT01149547) with the PowerUp™ SYBR™ Green

Master Mix (Applied Biosystems™, #A25741) following the manufacturer's protocol on a QuantStudio™

12K Flex Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems™) instrument following the standard PowerUp™

SYBR™ Green PCR program.

Evaluation of female mouse fertlity

To evaluate fertility, females were mated over a period of at least 21 days with wild-type male stud mice.

The number of pups born per litter was recorded. 14 wild-type females produced 14 litters, 8

Padi6$^{C663A/C663A}$ females produced 8 litters, and 5 *Padi6$^{-/-}$* females did not produce any litters.

Timed natural matings

To gather MII oocytes, females were time mated with sterile XX^{Y*} males, as previously described[85]. For

zygotes and 2-cell embryos, females were time mated with wild-type C57BL/6J males. Natural matings

were conducted as follows: females were placed into the cage of males at approximately 1700 h. The

following morning, the presence of a vaginal plug was taken as evidence of successful mating and

designated as Day 1 of gestation (E0.5).

GV oocyte collection

Female mice between the ages of 8 and 10 weeks were culled, ovaries removed and placed in 2 mL of

room temperature Medium2 (M2) (Sigma-Aldrich, #M7167) with 250 µM Dibutyryl cAMP (DBcAMP,

Sigma-Aldrich, #D0260-5MG) in a 35 mm cell culture dish (Corning, #430165). Using a Leica MC80

dissecting microscope, ovarian follicles were repeatedly punctured with an 30G BD Microlance™ 3

needle (Camlab, #304432) to release oocytes. GV oocytes were identified by presence of a clear

nucleus in the centre of a round cell. Oocytes were aspirated using a Stripper pipette with a 275 µm tip

(Cooper Surgical, #MXL3-STR and #MXL3-275), and washed five times through droplets of M2

medium, followed by three washes in Dulbecco's PBS (Gibco, #14190-094).

MII oocyte collection

At approximately 1700 h on the day a vaginal plug was found, females were culled, and their uteri

removed and placed in a 50 µL droplet of room temperature M2 medium (Sigma-Aldrich, #M7167) in a

60 mm dish (Corning, #430196). Using a Leica MC80 dissecting microscope, uteri were dissected using

surgical forceps (Dumont, #0208-5-PO) and cumulus masses were aspirated using a Stripper pipette

with a 275 µm tip (Cooper Surgical, #MXL3-STR and #MXL3-275). Cumulus cells were removed by

incubation in 3 mg/mL Hyaluronidase (Sigma-Aldrich, #H4272-30G) in FHM for 5 seconds and washed

five times in M2 medium, followed by three washes in Dulbecco's PBS (Gibco, #14190-094).

Collection of zygotes

At approximately 1700 h on the day a vaginal plug was found, females were culled, and oviducts were

removed and placed in Embryo Max® FHM medium (Sigma Aldrich, #MR-024D) in a 60 mm dish

(Corning, #430196). Under a Leica MC80 dissecting microscope, the infundibulum was torn using using

surgical forceps (Dumont, #0208-5-PO) releasing the cumulus masses. Cumulus cells were removed

by incubation in 3 mg/mL Hyaluronidase (Sigma-Aldrich, #H4272-30G) in FHM medium and zygotes

were identified by the presence of one or two polar bodies, and clearly visible pronuclei. Zygotes were

then washed five times in FHM medium, followed by three washes in Dulbecco's PBS (Gibco, #14190-

094).

Collection of 2-cell embryos

Time mated females were culled at 0900 h on Day 2 of gestation and oviducts placed Embryo Max®

FHM medium (Sigma Aldrich, #MR-024D) in a 60 mm dish (Corning, #430196). Using a Leica MC80

dissecting microscope, uteri were dissected using surgical forceps (Dumont, #0208-5-PO) and 2-cell

embryos were aspirated using a Stripper pipette with a 275 µm tip (Cooper Surgical, #MXL3-STR and

#MXL3-275). 2-cell embryos were then washed five times through droplets of FHM medium, followed

by three times through droplets of Dulbecco's PBS (Gibco, #14190-094).

Dissociation of 2-cell embryos into blastomeres

For scRNA-seq, 2-cell embryos were dissociated into individual blastomeres. Briefly, after an initial

wash in Embryo Max® FHM medium (Sigma Aldrich, #MR-024D), the zona was removed by brief

incubation in 1X acidic Tryode's solution (Sigma-Aldrich, #T1788) for approximately 1 min or until the

zona pellucida had visibly disappeared. 2-cell embryos were then washed three times in FHM medium

and incubated with 1X StemPro™ Accutase™ (Gibco™, #A1110501) for 5 min at room temperature.

Following the incubation the embryos were washed in FHM medium and dissociated into single

blastomeres by repeatedly aspirating and forcefully ejecting the embryo using a Stripper pipette with a

100 µm tip (Cooper Surgical, #MXL3-STR and #MXL3-100).

Time-lapse imaging of zygote development to blastocyst

Mouse zygotes were cultured in pre-equilibrated Global medium (LifeGlobal, #LGGG-20) supplemented

with 10% human serum albumin supplement (LifeGlobal, #GHSA-125) and overlaid with mineral oil

(Origio, #ART-4008-5P). The embryos were cultured in EmbryoSlide+ culture dishes, using an

EmbryoScope+ time-lapse incubator (VitroLife) at 37 °C, 5.5% carbon dioxide (CO_2), over a period of

five days. Time-lapse videos of embryo development were then analysed using Fiji. Pro-nuclear fading

time was used to normalise the time at which the embryos reached the following stages: 2-cell, 4-cell,

8-cell, morula, cavity formation, and blastocyst. A total of 68 zygotes from 11 wild-type females, 84 mat-

zygotes from 12 *Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ females, 43 zygotes from 8 *Padi6*$^{-/-}$ females were imaged.

Transmission electron microscopy

Oocytes were processed for electron microscopy using a Pelco BioWave Pro+ microwave (Ted Pella

Inc, Redding, USA). Samples were fixed in in 2.5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde (Taab, #G002) / 4% (v/v)

formaldehyde (Taab, #F017) in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (PB), pH 7.4, for one hour at RT. The steps

including osmium, tannic acid, sodium sulphate and ethanol dehydration and 100% acetone up to and

including 75% resin in acetone was performed in the Biowave, except for the phosphate buffer (PB)

and dH_2O wash steps, which consisted of two washes on the bench followed by two washes in the

Biowave without vacuum at 250 W for 40 s each. Osmium and tannic acid steps were performed in the

Biowave for 14 min under vacuum in 2 min cycles alternating with/without 100 W power. The

SteadyTemp plate was kept at 21 °C. The sodium sulphate step was performed in the Biowave for 1min

under vacuum with 100 W power with the SteadyTemo plate kept at 21 °C.

After primary fixation in 2.5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde (Taab, #G002) / 4% (v/v) formaldehyde (Taab,

#F017) in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.4), samples were stained with 1% (v/v) osmium tetroxide (Taab,

#O012) / 1.5% (v/v) potassium ferricyanide (Sigma, #702587), washed in dH_2O, incubated in 1% (w/v)

tannic acid (Sigma, #702587) in 0.05 M PB, pH 7.4, washed in dH_2O followed by 1% sodium sulphate

in 0.05 M PB, pH 7.4 (Sigma). The samples were then washed in dH_2O and dehydrated in a graded

ethanol series (25%, 50%, 70%, 90%, and 100%, twice each), and in 100% acetone (3 times) at 250

W for 40 s without vacuum. Samples were gradually infiltrated with Epon 812 resin (Taab) with 25%

50% and 75% resin in acetone steps, at 250 W for 3 min each, with vacuum cycling (on/off at 30 sec

intervals). Samples were transferred to 100% resin overnight before mounting in embedding moulds

and polymerising at 60 ºC for 48 h.

To confirm the integrity of the oocytes, the resin blocks were trimmed and scans were performed at

either 50 kV / 4 W or 40 kV / 3 W, with no filter, 1601 projections and a pixel size of between 3.3 – 1.1

μm using an Xradia 510 Versa (Zeiss). The data was automatically reconstructed using Scout-and-

Scan™ Control System Reconstructor software (Zeiss) and viewed in TXM3DViewer software (Zeiss).

With the integrity of the oocytes confirmed, 350 nm sections were cut with a diamond knife on an RMC

Powertome Ultramicrotome (Boeckeler), stained with 1% toluidine blue in borax and viewed under a III

RS light microscope (Carl Zeiss UK) to locate the correct region for ultra-thin sectioning for transmission

electron microscopy. Seventy nm sections were collected onto 150 hexagonal copper grids, stained for

2 min with lead citrate and images obtained using a JEOL 1400 Flash transmission electron microscope

with Matataki Flash sCMOS camera. Transmission electron microscopy images were not processed or

adjusted, a total of 4 wild-type, 6 *Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$, and 4 *Padi6*$^{-/-}$ GV oocytes were imaged.

scRNA-sequencing and analysis

Three embryos from two independent females were processed for each genotype and stage, resulting

in a total of six MII oocytes and six zygotes per genotype. The 2-cell embryos were dissociated into

individual blastomeres and processed separately resulting in 12 single 2-cell blastomeres per genotype.

MII oocytes, zygotes and 2-cell embryo blastomeres were dispensed into 12.5 μL CDS sorting solution

from the Takara Smart-SeqHT kit (TakaraBio, #634439) and stored at -80 °C. Sequencing libraries

were prepared using the Takara Smart-SeqHT Kit (Takara Bio, #634439) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, cells were lysed and polyadenylated RNA captured in a total volume

of 12.5 µL. One-Step first strand synthesis and double stranded cDNA amplification were carried out

with 18 PCR cycles. Amplified cDNA was purified via a SPRISelect (Beckman Coulter, #B23317) 1X

bead clean-up and eluted in 15 µL Elution Buffer. Nextera Dual Index libraries were prepared with the

Nextera XT kit (Illumina, #FC-131-1096). Purified cDNA was normalised to 0.2 ng/µL input and

tagmentation was carried out by adding 2.5 µL Tagment DNA Buffer + 1.25 µL Amplicon Tagment mix

to 1.25 µL cDNA. The tagmentation reaction was run for 10 min at 55 °C. A final index PCR was

performed after adding 2.5 µL Nextera compatible dual indices (at 10 µM) + 3.75 µL NPM PCR Mix.

Amplified libraries were purified via a SPRIselect (Beckman Coulter, #B23317) 0.9X bead clean-up. The

quality and fragment size distributions of the purified libraries was assessed by a 4200 TapeStation

Instrument (Agilent). Libraries were pooled and sequenced on the Illumina NovaSeq6000 in PE100

configuration to a read depth of at least 5M reads per sample.

Fastq files were mapped to the GRCm38 genome and converted to gene count files using Nextflow nf-

core/rnaseq pipeline[87] with parameters: aligner = star_rsem, genome = mm10. Transcriptomic data

processing was performed using the Python package ScanPy[88]. Gene count files were imported, and

genes were filtered to those present in at least 6 cells with 3000 minimum counts resulting in a filtered

dataset of 7551 genes. Counts were normalised to counts per million (CPM) and then converted to $\log_2$

values. PCA analysis was performed using ScanPy on the full dataset, as well as oocyte, zygote, and

2-cell split data. Principle components were extracted and plotted using GraphPad Prism. To identify

dysregulated genes, for each stage, mean $\log_2$CPM ratios (test vs. wild-type) and p-values were

calculated for each gene, extracted and plotted using GraphPad Prism. Those genes that had a

$\log_2$CPM fold change < -0.5 or > 0.5 with a p-value < 0.05 were highlighted as down and upregulated

respectively. GO analysis was performed using the Database for Annotation, Visualization and

Integrated Discovery (DAVID)[89,90], and Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-values extracted and plotted in

GraphPad Prism. Over representation analysis comparing dysregulated genes with the transcriptomic

database of mouse early embryo development (DBTMEE v2)[49] was performed using Python, and p-

values adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure, $\log_2$(observed/expected) and -

$\log_{10}$(corrected p-values) were extracted and plotted using GraphPad Prism. Transcript Z-scores were

calculated using Python package ScanPy and plotted using the Python package matplotlib showing the

mean of all genes belonging to each subset with the 95% confidence interval as a shaded area above

and below the mean.

Single oocyte and embryo proteomics

GV oocytes and 2-cell embryos were harvested from at least 2 different females per genotype. Samples

were lysed in 5 μL of proteomics lysis buffer (100 mM TEAB, pH 8.5 (Sigma, # T7408-100 mL), 0.2%

DDM, 10 ng/μl Trypsin (Waters, #90057)) with brief sonication (10 sec in standard water bath sonicator),

and digested overnight at 37 °C. Following digestion samples were acidified and loaded onto Evotips

(Evosep, #EV2013) for MS analyses using the standard preparation procedure apart from that sample

loading was done by centrifugation at 400 g. Peptides were analysed using the Evosep+ 40SPD

Whisper method (Evosep) on an Aurora Elite column (Ion Optics). Data were acquired on a timsTOF

Ultra (Bruker) operated in DIA-PASEF mode with variable windows. Scan width was set between 100

and 1700 m/z, ion mobility window: 1/K0 0.64 – 1/KO 1.45, ramp time: 150 ms and accumulation time:

150 ms (data acquisition windows in Supplementary Table 8). Raw data were processed using

Spectronaut 18 using searching against the mouse Uniprot database (09/2022) using the default

settings, with local normalisation and global imputation enabled.

Locally normalised and globally imputed proteomics data was analysed using Python. Differentially

expressed proteins were identified as for the transcriptomic analysis. For each stage, $\log_2$ protein

intensity ratios (test vs. wild-type) and p-values were calculated for each protein, extracted and plotted

using GraphPad Prism. Those proteins that had a $\log_2$ protein intensity fold change < -0.5 or > 0.5 with

a p-value < 0.05 were highlighted as down and upregulated respectively. The Search Tool for the

Retrieval of Interacting Genes/Proteins (STRING) was used for gene ontology pathway enrichment

analysis of proteomics data: https://string-db.org/[53]. Enriched terms were filtered to include only those

with an enrichment strength > 0.5 or > 0.75, with false-discovery rate cutoffs as indicated in figure

legends.

Triton X-100 treatment of GV oocytes and analysis

GV oocytes from at least 2 females per genotype were characterised. GV oocytes were transferred into

500 μL of CPL-extraction buffer (20 mM HEPES, 100 mM KCl, 20 mM $MgCl_2$, 3 mM EGTA, 0.1% Triton

X-100), in a non-adherent Nunc cell culture dish (ThermoFisher, #176740) and incubated at room

temperature for 10 min. After 10 min, oocytes were thoroughly washed through three wells of 500 μL

of PBS followed by 8 x 50 μL droplets of PBS before being dispensed into 5 μL of proteomics lysis

buffer and stored at -80 °C. Triton X-100 treated oocytes were then processed and analysed using the

same single oocyte/embryo mass spectrometry workflow used for untreated samples.

Locally normalised and globally imputed proteomics data from Triton X-100 treated GV oocytes was

analysed using Python as for intact GV oocytes. Proteins with a $\log_2$ protein intensity ratio (*Padi6*$^{-/-}$ vs.

wild-type) < -0.5 and a p-value < 0.05 were classed as CPL-enriched. K-means clustering (k=7) of the

average z-scores of $\log_2$ transformed protein intensities of CPL-enriched proteins in Triton X-100 treated

wild-type, *Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ and *Padi6*$^{-/-}$ GV oocytes was performed using the Python Scipy package. Z-

scores of $\log_2$ transformed protein intensities were ordered by cluster and plotted in GraphPad Prism.

Over-representation analysis was performed as for the scRNA-sequencing data. STRING analysis was

conducted as for proteomic data from intact GV oocytes and 2-cell embryos.

Characterisation of human PADI6 binding proteins in HEK-293T cells

Human Embryonic kidney cells (HEK 293-T, Crick Cell Services) were cultured in DMEM (Gibco™,

#11965092) supplemented with 10% Foetal Bovine Serum (Sigma, #F7524-50ML) with

Penicillin/Streptomycin (100 µg/mL, Gibco™, #15140122) in a 5% CO_2 atmosphere at 37 °C. 24 h prior

to transfection, cells were seeded at 1 x 10^6 cells per well of a Nunc™ cell-culture treated 6-well plate

(ThermoScientific™, #140675). Transient transfections were done using Lipofectamine™ 2000

(Invitrogen™, #11668027) in 1 mL Opti-MEM per well (ThermoScientific™, #11058021) according to

the manufacturer's protocol. After 4 h transfection, Opti-MEM was replaced with pre-warmed DMEM

(10% FBS, 100 µg/mL penicillin/streptomycin). At 48 h post-transfection, DMEM was discarded from

the plate and cells were washed once with cold PBS buffer. PBS was aspirated, and cells lysed with

immunoprecipitation buffer (50 mM Tris, pH 8.0, 50 mM KCl, 0.1% Triton X-100, 2 mM $MgCl_2$) on ice

for 30 min. Lysates were clarified by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm for 15 min at 4 °C, and supernatants

collected. 600 μL of anti-FLAG® M2 magnetic bead (Millipore, #M8823) slurry was washed in

immunoprecipitation buffer 3 times. Cross-linking reaction performed by adding 1 mL of 20 mM dimethyl

pimelimidate (Thermo Scientific™, #21666) in borate buffer, pH 9.0 (0.08 M) to the beads and rotating

gently at RT for 30 min. After cross-linking, beads were washed twice for 5 min in immunoprecipitation

buffer at RT, resuspended in 600 μL immunoprecipitation buffer and stored at 4 °C for future use. For

co-immunoprecipitation, 500 μL transfected cell lysate in immunoprecipitation buffer was added to 100

μL of conjugated anti-FLAG antibody-bead slurry in separate 1.5 mL Protein LoBind® eppendorf tubes

(eppendorf, #0030108116) and incubated at 4 °C for 45 min. Beads were washed 4 times with 1 mL

immunoprecipitation buffer (flash washes), aspirating first with a P1000 tip and second with a P200 tip

to ensure all supernatant was removed after each wash. 30 μL elution buffer (100 mM TEAB, 5% SDS)

was added to the beads, gently mixed and incubated for at 60 °C for 10 min. The eluate was collected

and transferred to 1.5 mL Protein LoBind® eppendorf tubes for sample processing and LC-MS/MS. Co-

immunoprecipitations were performed in triplicate.

Samples were digested using S-Trap™ Micro columns according to the manufacturer's protocol

(ProtiFi, #C02-micro-80) and digested samples loaded onto Evotips (Evosep, #EV2013). For the LC

separation, the standard 60SPD 2.3 method was used, separation was performed using EV-1109

column and the column was heated to 40 °C during analyses. Data were acquired on a timsTOF Pro2

(Bruker) operated in DIA PASEF mode, with scan widths set to 100-1700 m/z, IM 1K/0 0.6 - 1.6, and

ramp and accumulation time locked at 100 ms (data acquisition windows in Supplementary Table 9).

Statistical analysis and reproducibility

Bar charts were plotted using GraphPad Prism, with the black line representing the mean, and all data

points shown. Unless otherwise stated, comparison of two groups was performed using GraphPad

Prism using an unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test, with Welch's correction if variance was not equal

between groups (ns: $p > 0.05$, *: $p \leq 0.05$, **: $p \leq 0.01$, ***: $p \leq 0.001$, ****: $p \leq 0.0001$). Comparison of

Kaplan-Meier survival curves was performed using a log-rank Mantel-Cox test (ns: $p > 0.05$, *: $p \leq 0.05$,

**: $p \leq 0.01$, ***: $p \leq 0.001$, ****: $p \leq 0.0001$). For scRNA-seq and single oocyte or embryo proteomics,

a minimum of 6 total replicates harvested from at least 2 females were analysed for each condition.

Figures

Figure 1. Mat-*Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* embryos are partially inhibited in their development

(A) Litter size of wild-type (*n* = 14), *Padi6^{C663A/C663A}* (*Padi6*-C663A, *n* = 8) and *Padi6^{-/-}* (*Padi6*-KO, *n* = 5) females when naturally mated with wild-type C57BL males. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test; *$P \leq 0.05$, **$P \leq 0.01$, ***$P \leq 0.001$, ****$P \leq 0.0001$, ns ($P > 0.05$).

(B) Kaplan-Meier survival curve of wild-type (grey, *n* = 68), *Padi6*-C663A (purple, *n* = 84) and *Padi6*-KO (teal, *n* = 43) embryos. Log-rank Mantel-Cox test; *$P \leq 0.05$, **$P \leq 0.01$, ***$P \leq 0.001$, ****$P \leq 0.0001$, ns ($P > 0.05$).

(C) Representative time-lapse snapshots of embryos from wild-type, *Padi6*-C663A and *Padi6*-KO females at PNF and 2, 3, 30, 49, and 90 h post PNF. The developmental stage each embryo reached before arresting, degenerating or the end of the experiment is indicated underneath.

(D) PNF normalised times at which wild-type (grey), *Padi6*-C663A (purple) and *Padi6*-KO (teal) embryos reach key developmental stages. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test with Welch's correction; *$P \leq 0.05$, **$P \leq 0.01$, ***$P \leq 0.001$, ****$P \leq 0.0001$, ns ($P > 0.05$). The black central line of each box denotes the median value, the box represents the 25th to 75th percentile, and whiskers mark minimum and maximum value.

Figure 2. Cytoplasmic lattices are present in *Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ germinal vesicle oocytes

Two representative transmission electron microscopy images from one wild-type, *Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ (*Padi6*-C663A) and *Padi6*$^{-/-}$ (*Padi6*-KO) germinal vesicle (GV) oocyte showing CPLs are present in oocytes from wild-type and *Padi6*-C663A females, but not *Padi6*-KO females. Representative CPLs are indicated by red arrows. Scale bar = 1 µm.

Figure 3. The transcriptome is dysregulated in mat-*Padi6^C663A/C663A* **and mat-*Padi6^-/-*** **2-cell embryos**

(A) Schematic representation of the scRNA-seq experiment design. Per genetic background MII oocytes (*n* = 6), zygotes (*n* = 6), 2-cell blastomeres (*n* = 12).

(B) Volcano plots of differentially expressed genes in mat-*Padi6^C663A/C663A*** (*Padi6*-C663A) and mat-*Padi6^-/-* (*Padi6*-KO) MII oocytes, zygotes and 2-cell embryos compared with wild-type. Blue points represent downregulated genes present with log$_2$ fold change < -0.5 and p-value < 0.05. Red points represent upregulated genes present with log$_2$ fold change > 0.5 and p-value < 0.05. Grey dashed lines indicates p-value = 0.05 and log$_2$ fold change = -0.5 and 0.5.

(C) Venn diagram of common Padi6-C663A 2-cell upregulated and Padi6-KO 2-cell downregulated genes (upper diagram) and *Padi6*-C663A 2-cell downregulated and *Padi6*-KO 2-cell upregulated genes (lower diagram).

(D) Overlap of differentially expressed genes identified in (B) with DBTMEE v2 transcriptome categories[49]. Bubble plot sizes show -log$_{10}$ adjusted p-values determined using a hypergeometric test for over-representation corrected for multiple testing. Bubble colour shows log$_2$ ratio of observed gene expression changes compared with randomly expected frequencies. Under-represented genes not shown for clarity. EGA = embryonic genome activation, MGA = mid-pre-implantation gene activation.

(E) Average Z-score of all genes belonging to key DBTMEE v2 transcriptome categories[49] in MII oocytes, zygotes and 2-cell embryos from wild-type, *Padi6*-C663A and *Padi6*-KO females. Shaded area corresponds to the 95% confidence interval.

(F and G) Average Z-score of all genes belonging to the maternal RNA and Minor EGA DBTMEE v2 transcriptome categories[49] in MII oocytes, zygotes and 2-cell embryos from wild-type, *Padi6*-C663A and *Padi6*-KO females. Shaded area corresponds to 95% confidence interval. Genes are split into those that are upregulated in *Padi6*-KO 2-cell embryos and those that are not.

Figure 4. An absence of PADI6 results in significant protein dysregulation in GV oocytes and 2-cell embryos

(A) Schematic representation of the proteomic workflow used to characterise GV oocytes and 2-cell embryos from $Padi6^{C663A/C663A}$
($Padi6$-C663A) and $Padi6^{-/-}$ ($Padi6$-KO) females. LC = liquid chromatography; DIA PASEF = data-independent acquisition parallel
accumulation-serial fragmentation.
(B) Number of proteins identified per single oocyte/embryo for wild-type (GV oocyte n = 9, 2-cell n = 7), $Padi6$-C663A (GV oocyte
n = 11, 2-cell n = 8), and $Padi6$-KO (GV oocyte n = 13, 2-cell n = 7) GV oocytes and 2-cell embryos.
(C) Pearson correlation values for wild-type, $Padi6$-C663A and $Padi6$-KO GV oocytes compared with all other GV oocytes of the
same genotype.
(D) Volcano plot of differentially abundant proteins in GV oocytes and 2-cell embryos from $Padi6$-C663A and $Padi6$-KO females
compared with those from wild-type females. Blue points represent downregulated proteins present with a $\log_2$ fold change < -
0.5 and p-value < 0.05. Red points represent upregulated proteins present with $\log_2$ fold change > 0.5 and p-value < 0.05. Dashed
lines indicates p-value = 0.05 and $\log_2$ fold change = -0.5 and 0.5.
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Figure 5. Characterisation of the CPL-enriched proteome

(A) Schematic representation of the experimental workflow used to identify CPL associated proteins in GV oocytes from *Padi6*$^{C663A/C663A}$ (*Padi6*-C663A) and *Padi6*$^{-/-}$ (*Padi6*-KO) females.

(B) Number of proteins identified per single oocyte for wild-type (n = 12), *Padi6*-C663A (n = 12), and *Padi6*-KO (n = 14) Triton X-100 treated GV oocytes.

(C) Pearson correlation values for wild-type, *Padi6*-C663A and *Padi6*-KO Triton X-100 treated GV oocytes compared with all other GV oocytes of the same genotype.

(D) Volcano plot of differentially abundant proteins in Triton X-100 treated GV oocytes from *Padi6*-KO females compared with Triton X-100 treated GV oocytes from wild-type females. Blue points represent downregulated proteins present with log$_2$ fold change < -0.5 and p-value < 0.05. Red points represent upregulated proteins present with log$_2$ fold change > 0.5 and p-value < 0.05. Dashed lines indicates p-value = 0.05 and log$_2$ fold change = -0.5 and 0.5. Downregulated proteins are classed as CPL-enriched.

(E) Previously reported CPL proteins present in the CPL-enriched fraction of (D). Proteins grouped into SCMC components and the CPL proteins identified by Jentoft et al.[30] with log$_2$ fold changes and -log$_{10}$ p-values as per (D). * = downregulated between 0 and 30%, ** = downregulated >30%, intact *Padi6*-KO GV oocytes compared with wild-type.

(F) CPL-enriched proteins cluster into three main subsets. Upper panel: average protein intensities of CPL-enriched proteins in intact wild-type GV oocytes. Middle panel: heatmap of average log$_2$ protein intensities for CPL-enriched proteins in intact wild-type GV oocytes. Lower panel: heatmap of the average z-scores of log$_2$ transformed protein intensities of CPL-enriched proteins in Triton X-100 treated wild-type, *Padi6*-C663A and *Padi6*-KO GV oocytes, ordered by cluster after k-means clustering.

(G) Average z-scores of log$_2$ transformed protein intensities of CPL-enriched proteins belonging to clusters 1 to 7 in Triton X-100 treated wild-type, *Padi6*-C663A and *Padi6*-KO GV oocytes.

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Figure 6. The CPLs are associated with protein translation, regulation and degradation machinery, and the oocyte mitochondria

(A) All large (43 total) and small (25 total) ribosomal sub-units found to be CPL-enriched with the $\log_2$ fold-change and -$\log_{10}$ p-values of Triton X-100 treated *Padi6*$^{-/-}$ (*Padi6*-KO) GV oocytes compared with Triton X-100 treated wild-type GV oocytes.
(B) Ribosome regulatory factors found to be CPL-enriched with $\log_2$ fold changes and -$\log_{10}$ p-values as per (A).
(C) Proteins associated with the SCF complex found to be CPL-enriched with $\log_2$ fold changes and -$\log_{10}$ p-values as per (A).
(D) Key MARDO factors found to be CPL-enriched with $\log_2$ fold changes and -$\log_{10}$ p-values as per (A).
(E) Mitochondrial electron transport chain factors found to be CPL-enriched with $\log_2$ fold changes and -$\log_{10}$ p-values as per (A).
* = proteins downregulated in intact *Padi6*-KO GV oocytes. ** = proteins downregulated more than 30% in intact *Padi6*-KO GV oocytes.

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