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In brief
Intrinsically disordered regions (IDRs), together with the ARID DNA-binding domain of ARID1A/B subunits, dictate cBAF chromatin remodeler complex condensate formation, chromatin localization, and protein-protein interactions, governed by specific IDR sequence grammars.

Highlights
- A disordered region of ARID1A/B cBAF subunits controls condensation and interactions
- cBAF targeting and activity require phase separation and functional partner recruitment
- Sequence patterning analysis uncouples grammar of self- and non-self-interactions
- Disease-associated IDR mutations disrupt protein interactions and genomic targeting
A disordered region controls cBAF activity via condensation and partner recruitment

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SUMMARY

Intrinsically disordered regions (IDRs) represent a large percentage of overall nuclear protein content. The prevailing dogma is that IDRs engage in non-specific interactions because they are poorly constrained by evolutionary selection. Here, we demonstrate that condensate formation and heterotypic interactions are distinct and separable features of an IDR within the ARID1A/B subunits of the mSWI/SNF chromatin remodeler, cBAF, and establish distinct “sequence grammars” underlying each contribution. Condensation is driven by uniformly distributed tyrosine residues, and partner interactions are mediated by non-random blocks rich in alanine, glycine, and glutamine residues. These features concentrate a specific cBAF protein-protein interaction network and are essential for chromatin localization and activity. Importantly, human disease-associated perturbations in ARID1B IDR sequence grammars disrupt cBAF function in cells. Together, these data identify IDR contributions to chromatin remodeling and explain how phase separation provides a mechanism through which both genomic localization and functional partner recruitment are achieved.

INTRODUCTION

Intrinsically disordered regions (IDRs) comprise 37%–50% of the human proteome1 and are especially enriched in nuclear proteins.2 Rather than a singular structure, IDRs are defined by heterogeneous conformational ensembles,3,4 which have led to the prevailing view that IDR-mediated interactions are less specific than those mediated by folded domains.5 However, associations driven by specific IDRs are known to play important roles in forming biomolecular condensates, which are regions of high local protein concentration formed via the process of liquid-liquid phase separation (LLPS) or related phase transitions.6 IDRs and their role in driving LLPS are implicated in various aspects of nuclear organization but much remains unclear, particularly in the context of chromatin remodeling.

The mammalian SWI/SNF (mSWI/SNF or BAF) ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling complexes collectively represent one of the most frequently mutated cellular entities in human cancer, second only to TP53.7,8 Indeed, mutational frequencies for all 29 human genes that encode for mSWI/SNF complex subunits tally to over 20% across all human cancers.7 mSWI/SNF subunit mutations and translocations represent cancer-initiating events in a number of rare cancers9–11 and are among the most frequently perturbed genes in neurodevelopmental disorders (NDDs).12–18

The most frequently mutated genes within the mSWI/SNF family are the ARID1 genes, ARID1A and ARID1B, which encode 250-kDa paralog subunits (ARID1A and ARID1B) that define and assemble into canonical BAF (cBAF) subcomplexes in a mutually exclusive manner.19 ARID1A is mutated in over 8% of all human cancers arising from a range of cell lineages, whereas in NDDs, ARID1B is the most recurrently mutated chromatin regulatory gene and one of the top five genes associated with autism.17,20–22 These human genetic data imply critical...
Figure 1. The IDRs of ARID1A/B are dispensable for cBAF assembly and in vitro nucleosome remodeling
(A) Human cBAF complex (PDBDEV_00000056) with putative ARID1A N-terminal region of unassigned cryoelectron microscopy (cryo-EM) density and C-terminal CBR highlighted.
(B) Disease-associated mutations mapped onto ARID1A/B and disorder as PONDR (Predictor of Natural Disordered Regions) score.
(C) Distribution of disease-associated missense and indel mutations in ARID1A/B’s N terminus.
(D) Schematic of HA-tagged ARID1A expression constructs.
(E) Immunoblots of nuclear protein input and anti-HA IPs in AN3CA (ARID1A/B-deficient) cells expressing HA-tagged ARID1A WT or mutant variants.

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functional contributions of the ARID1 subunits as well as differences between the two paralogs. Recent studies have revealed that the large ARID1 subunits (Swi1 in yeast SWI/SNF) connect the cBAF core with the ATPase module via a conserved core-binding region (CBR) containing 6 tandem Armadillo (Arm) repeats (Figures 1A and S1A). Expression of this CBR is sufficient for cBAF complex biochemical assembly, specifically, binding of the ATPase module onto the cBAF core. Cancer-associated missense mutations in the C-terminal region destabilize ARID1A and/or prevent its assembly into cBAF complexes; disease-associated mutations in both ARID1A and ARID1B are nonsense and frameshift in nature (Figure S1B). Intriguingly, the role of the remaining two-thirds of these proteins (65.69% of ARID1A, 1,501 amino acids; 68.74% of ARID1B, 1,537 amino acids) remains uncharacterized. ARID1A/B N termini contain two IDRs bridged by a structured ARID DNA-binding domain (DBD) (Figures 1A, 1B, S1C, and S1D). Most cancer-associated mutations in ARID1A/B genes and NDD-associated mutations in ARID1B fall within the IDRs (~58% and ~83%, respectively) (Figure 1C). Furthermore, the IDRs of the ARID1A/B N termini make up ~33% of the IDR content of the entire cBAF complex. Disorder scores (using MobiDB-Lite 3.0) for these ARID1A/B regions are similar to those of prion-like domains known to phase separate, including TDP-43, DDX4, FUS, and others (Figure S1E).

IDRs within chromatin-bound proteins have putative functional roles including influencing dynamics of chromatin-bound proteins and transcriptional activation, and creating reaction crucibles and heterochromatin silencing. Several pathogenic mutations in human cancer and Mendelian diseases map to condensate-forming proteins. The functions imparted to nuclear proteins by IDRs remain incompletely understood, particularly in the context of ATP-dependent chromatin remodelers.

Here, we find that the ARID1A/B IDRs and DNA-binding ARID domain (AT-rich Interaction Domain) direct genomic targeting of the cBAF complex and subsequent generation of DNA accessibility, enhancer activation, and gene expression, through an IDR-encoded specific biomolecular interaction network.

RESULTS

The ARID1A/B N terminus is dispensable for cBAF assembly and in vitro nucleosome remodeling

To define the role of the IDR-rich ARID1A/B N termini with respect to complex assembly and ATP-dependent nucleosome remodeling activities, we generated Hemagglutinin (HA)-tagged ARID1A full-length (wild-type [WT]) or ARID1A mutant variants that lack IDR1 (∆IDR1), contain mutations in the ARID DBD that compromise DNA binding as assayed by electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) (S1086E, S1087E, and S1090E) (DBD mutant [DBDmut]) (Figures S1F and S1G), or lack the entire N terminus, including IDR1, the ARID domain, and IDR2 (CBR only) (Figure 1D). We introduced these into AN3CA cells derived from a dedifferentiated endometrial carcinoma lacking both ARID1A and ARID1B subunits (and hence, lacking functional cBAF complexes) as well as ARID1A/B-deficient HEK293T cells generated using CRISPR-Cas9-based editing (Figures 1E and S1H). The C-terminal CBR was sufficient to enable assembly of complexes in both cell types (Figures 1E and S1I). Protein levels across all mutants were similar to WT and unaffected by proteasome inhibition (Figure S1J). cBAF complexes purified from cells expressing WT or mutant ARID1A contained similar levels of BAF core and ATPase module subunits by immunoblot and tandem-mass-tag (TMT) mass spectrometric (MS) analyses of HA immunoprecipitations (IPs) (Figures 1E and 1F, Table S1). As expected, expression of ARID1A in ARID1A/B-null cells restored cBAF assembly, demonstrated by density sedimentation analysis (Figure S1K). Intriguingly, restriction enzyme accessibility assays (REAA) revealed that both WT and mutant complexes purified via HA IP from ∆ARID1A/B HEK293T cells have equivalent nucleosome remodeling activities in vitro and ATPase catalytic activities in solution (Figures 1G, 1H, S1L, and S1M). These data suggest that the ARID1A C terminus is sufficient for cBAF complex assembly, nucleosome remodeling, and catalytic activities and underscore the need to investigate alternate functional contributions of the large N-terminal region.

The ARID1 IDRs confer condensation potential to cBAF complexes

Given the high predictions for disorder and mutational burden within the ARID1 N-terminal regions, we sought to examine their potential role in cBAF LLPS. We expressed individual C-terminal eGFP-tagged ARID1A WT, DBDmut, or truncation variants in ∆ARID1A/B HEK293T cells, isolated fully assembled cBAF complexes, and performed in vitro condensation (LLPS) assays (Figures 2A, S2A, and S2B). Purified protein complexes diluted to 2, 0.66, 0.2, and 0.074 μM in physiological salt buffer with no additional crowding agent (150 mM NaCl, 25 mM HEPES pH 7.5) were imaged after 30 min on a spinning disc confocal microscope to query the presence of condensates. Complexes incorporating WT- or DBDmut-ARID1A formed condensates in solution, whereas loss of one or both IDRs nearly completely attenuated condensate formation (Figures 2A, left, and S2C). We quantified the presence of condensates using a two-dimensional proxy for volume fraction: percent of the field of view covered by eGFP-positive droplets (condensate area, WT 9.05%; DBDmut 8.63%; ∆IDR1 0.59%; and CBR 0.04%) (Figure 2A, right). Addition of 100 nM DNA (linear, dsDNA of random sequence), nucleosomes (mixed mono-, di-, and tri-nucleosomes), or RNA showed that condensate formation was enhanced by DNA and nucleosomes, but not by RNA (condensate area WT only 9.05%; WT + DNA 14.89%, WT + nucleosomes 15.50%, and WT + RNA 8.24%), implicating cBAF complex DNA- and nucleosome-binding regions in promoting LLPS.

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(Figures 2B and S2D). In addition, WT but not DBDmut samples formed strings of condensates in reactions containing DNA, similar to observations of a pioneer transcription factor (TF)37 (Figure S2E). Of note, cBAF complexes contain several other DBDs within the core module; hence, attenuated condensation upon inactivation of the ARID domain alone suggests a prominent role for this domain. Interestingly, although the condensation of cBAF complexes carrying the DBDmut mutant was not enhanced by the addition of DNA, it was enhanced by the addition of nucleosomes, suggesting that bilateral engagement of cBAF at the acidic patch regions25,38 can enhance LLPS independent of ARID domain-mediated DNA binding (Figure 2B).

Addition of either DNA or nucleosomes moderately enhanced condensation of ARID1-containing cBAF complexes presumably via ARID domain-mediated DNA and nucleosome binding, although not significantly relative to complex-only control (Figures 2B and S2D). Furthermore, cBAF complexes nucleated by the ARID1A CBR alone failed to form condensates in any of the conditions tested, suggesting that although additional IDRs are present in other cBAF subunits,25 they are not sufficient to induce condensation of complexes (Figure 2B).

Next, we evaluated protein dynamics and exchange using fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) in AN3CA cells expressing eGFP-tagged ARID1A/B. Addition of eGFP to ARID1A did not disrupt cBAF complex assembly in AN3CA cells as assayed by IP-immunoblot and density sedimentation analyses (Figures S2F–S2H). Indeed, WT ARID1A-carrying cBAF complexes showed a clear punctate pattern by microscopy, whereas disruption of IDRs nearly completely attenuated the presence of nuclear puncta (Figures 2C and 2D). ARID1A DBDmut-expressing cells had consistently fewer condensates, each with increased area, possibly reflecting enhanced coarsening enabled by loss of targeted interaction with genomic DNA (Figures 2C and 2D). Concentration-calibrated fluorescence imaging of eGFP-tagged ARID1A constructs demonstrated a threshold concentration of 1.13 ± 0.11 μM for WT and 1.08 ± 0.16 μM for DBDmut, above which the punctate nuclear pattern is observed (Figure 2D). Condensation and threshold concentration of all four ARID1A mutants were unaffected by proteasome inhibitor treatment (Figure S2I). Similar condensation patterns were obtained for the ARID1B paralog subunit (Figure S2J). Time-lapse imaging showed that individual ARID1A/B nuclear puncta are present over tens of minutes and exhibit fusion and coalescence, which characterizes either purely viscous fluids or viscoelastic materials with terminally viscous properties (Video S1). FRAP experiments in the ARID1A WT condition demonstrated rapid recovery (half time of recovery $T_{1/2} = 5.7$ s and $T_{1/2} = 7$ s for ARID1A and ARID1B, respectively) with low immobile fraction (27%), consistent with liquid-like materials that feature primarily mobile species (Figure S2K). The ARID1A and ARID1B DBDmut demonstrated similar dynamics with slight but statistically significant increases in half time of recovery (to $T_{1/2} = 9.4$ s for ARID1A, $T_{1/2} = 15$ s for ARID1B) but no change in immobile fraction, indicating that loss of DNA-binding activity does not drastically alter protein dynamics (Figure S2K). By immunoblot, levels of exogenous ARID1A expression in AN3CA cells were comparable with endogenous ARID1A levels across a range of human and murine cell types (Figure 2E) and immunofluorescence detected punctate nuclear cBAF structures in endogenous contexts (Figures 2F and S2L). These data provide the first visual evidence of cBAF condensates under endogenous expression levels.

To further characterize the self-interaction capabilities of the ARID1A/B N-terminal IDRs, we employed the Corelet system,39 which makes use of a multivalent “Core” particle (24-mer Ferritin) to act as a scaffold for assembly of phase-separation-prone proteins in a light-dependent manner (Figure 2G, top). We generated variants of ARID1A containing IDR1, IDR2, or the full N terminus (IDRs and ARID domain, FL), each lacking the C-terminal BAF-binding CBR region to enable us to study the low-complexity N terminus in isolation (Figure 2G, bottom). Notably, the ARID1A N terminus formed light-dependent condensates over a wide range of concentrations and valences, whereas IDR alone or DBDmut exhibited significant attenuation in condensation potential (Figures 2H, 2I, and S2M). Again, the DBDmut formed fewer droplets of larger size (Figures 2H and S2N). Similar results were obtained for ARID1B N terminus, except that IDR1 more closely mirrored the full-length N-term variant, perhaps suggesting its stronger LLPS propensity (Figures S2O and S2P). Repeated on-off light cycles revealed that the specific nuclear localization of ARID1A IDR puncta, observed as high correlation between nuclear positioning in subsequent cycles, was dependent on the ARID domain (Figures S2Q and S2R). Together, these data highlight the functionality of the IDRs and ARID DBD of ARID1A/B subunits in conferring LLPS and sub-nuclear localization properties to cBAF remodeling complexes.
A graphics showing expression levels of different proteins and their clusters.

B shows a distribution of peak fraction against distance to TSS.

C illustrates cBAF-occupied enhancer sites with PCA scores.

D contains heatmaps comparing different conditions.

E presents a Venn diagram showing chromatin accessibility peaks.

F displays transcription factor motif enrichment analysis.

G presents RNA-Seq results with bar charts.
ARID1A IDR1s and ARID domain are required for cBAF targeting, chromatin accessibility, and gene expression in cells

To determine the functional contributions of the IDR1s and ARID domain of ARID1A/B, we introduced ARID1A WT, ΔIDR1, DBDmut, and CBR-only mutant variants (Figure 1C) or empty vector control into AN3CA cells and performed CUT&Tag, assay for transposase-accessible chromatin with sequencing (ATAC-seq), and RNA-seq to evaluate chromatin localization of cBAF, DNA accessibility, and gene expression, respectively. We first examined the chromatin occupancy of cBAF complexes, the enhancer mark H3K27ac, and DNA accessibility. Global clustering analyses performed on over 40,964 merged SMARCC1/SMARCA4 sites revealed a set over which only WT ARID1A restored complex occupancy and accessibility, whereas IDR1 deletion (ARID1A restored complex occupancy and accessibility, SMARCC1/SMARCA4 sites revealed a set over which only WT ARID1A showed a concordant increase in occupancy of H3K27ac and were enriched for similar TF motifs as cluster 2 and 3 sites (Figures 3A, 3E, S3G, and S3H). Intriguingly, sites at which cBAF complex occupancy and DNA accessibility were reduced upon rescue with WT ARID1A but not the mutant variants or empty vector control were significantly enriched for CTCF and CTCFL (BORIS) motifs (cluster 4; 5,915 sites), consistent with recent observations that lack of cBAF assembly and/or function results in increased non-canonical BAF (ncBAF) complex abundance and function at its key target sites (CTCF) (Figures 3A, cluster 4, 3F, and S3A). Finally, genes most strongly upregulated in the WT ARID1A condition were significantly less upregulated across mutant conditions, with the CBR mutant producing the most prominent differential gene regulatory impact (Figures 3G and S3I–S3K). In the AN3CA endometrial cellular context specifically, N-terminal mutants failed to rescue expression of genes involved in endometrial cell differentiation (Figure S3L), suggesting that proper condensation of cBAF is essential to its functions at target sites, including tissue-specific gene loci. These data collectively demonstrate that the IDR-rich N terminus, coupled with the ARID DBD, are together required for the stable occupancy of cBAF complexes at distal enhancers over which they establish and maintain accessibility.

Figure 3. ARID1A IDR1s and DNA-binding functions govern cBAF occupancy, DNA accessibility, and gene expression in cells (A) Chromatin occupancy of cBAF complexes marked by HA (ARID1A), SMARCC4, and SMARCC1, H3K27ac enhancer mark occupancy and DNA accessibility (ATAC) at cBAF-occupied sites in AN3CA cells, divided into 4 clusters using k-means clustering. (B) Distance-to-TSS distribution of merged CUT&Tag and ATAC-seq peaks for all conditions, across clusters 1–4 from (A). (C) Principal-component analysis (PCA) of cBAF-occupied enhancer sites across conditions as assayed by SMARCC4 and SMARCC1 signals. (D) Representative CUT&Tag and ATAC-seq tracks at the MAP2, NCAPH, and intergenic enhancer loci in AN3CA cells across empty and ARID1A WT or mutant conditions. (E) Overlap of accessible sites by ATAC-seq in empty vector control (empty) versus ARID1A WT or mutant conditions in AN3CA cells. Gained sites relative to empty condition are highlighted in bold.

Sites most affected by disruption of the ARID N terminus were enriched in TF motifs corresponding to the AP-1, FOS/Jun, NFI, and TEAD factors, several of which have been shown to localize to enhancers via interaction with mSWI/SNF complexes (Figure 3F). 72% of accessible sites gained in cells expressing WT ARID1A showed a concordant increase in occupancy of H3K27ac and were enriched for similar TF motifs as cluster 2 and 3 sites (Figures 3A, 3E, 3G, and S3H). Intriguingly, sites at which cBAF complex occupancy and DNA accessibility were reduced upon rescue with WT ARID1A but not the mutant variants or empty vector control were significantly enriched for CTCF and CTCFL (BORIS) motifs (cluster 4; 5,915 sites), consistent with recent observations that lack of cBAF assembly and/or function results in increased non-canonical BAF (ncBAF) complex abundance and function at its key target sites (CTCF) (Figures 3A, cluster 4, 3F, and S3A). Finally, genes most strongly upregulated in the WT ARID1A condition were significantly less upregulated across mutant conditions, with the CBR mutant producing the most prominent differential gene regulatory impact (Figures 3G and S3I–S3K). In the AN3CA endometrial cellular context specifically, N-terminal mutants failed to rescue expression of genes involved in endometrial cell differentiation (Figure S3L), suggesting that proper condensation of cBAF is essential to its functions at target sites, including tissue-specific gene loci. These data collectively demonstrate that the IDR-rich N terminus, coupled with the ARID DBD, are together required for the stable occupancy of cBAF complexes at distal enhancers over which they establish and maintain accessibility.
Heterotypic cBAF interactions with TFs require IDR sequences and the ARID DBD of ARID1A

We next sought to define the mechanistic basis underlying the necessity of the ARID1A/B N terminus for cBAF function. We reasoned that proteins localizing into ARID1A/B-containing nuclear condensates could be identified by their proximity; hence, we performed proximity labeling followed by mass spectrometry by fusing an engineered biotin ligase TurboID (TbID)\(^{16,49}\) to the C terminus of ARID1A WT and mutant variants to map changes in the proximal protein repertoire of cBAF complexes (Figure S4A). TbID fusion did not disrupt nucleation and assembly of cBAF (Figure 4A). Upon confirmation of self-labeling of the bait (ARID1A), non-self-labeling with biotin (50 \(\mu\)M for 10 min), and visualization with streptavidin (Figure S4B), we performed TMT-MS to identify proximal proteins for each cBAF complex variant (Figure S4C). Notably, truncation of the full N-terminal region (CBR variant) or IDR1 alone, but not inactivation of the ARID DBD\(^{\text{mut}}\), resulted in a significantly depleted repertoire of proximal proteins (Figure 4B; Table S2). This set of proteins was enriched in factors associated with chromatin organization, histone modification, and transcription (Figures 4C and S4D). Losses in associated proteins were IDR dependent with no significant changes in the DBD\(^{\text{mut}}\) mutant (relative to WT) (Figure 4C). We found that mSWI/SNF components themselves (cBAF as well as PBAF and ncBAF) were markedly reduced near cBAF complexes lacking the IDRs of ARID1A (Figure S4E, left), absent changes in their total nuclear protein levels (Figure S4E, right), indicative of reduced proximity due to a loss of condensate formation. Furthermore, we measured a marked reduction in the abundance of Mediator complex components, RNA polymerase II, the p300 acetyl transferase, and selected TFs in proximity of ARID1A IDR-mutant complexes relative to WT, again, absent changes in their total nuclear protein levels (Figure S4E, right), indicative of reduced proximity due to a loss of condensate formation.

To validate these data, we performed immunofluorescence co-localization studies of p300 with ARID1A-WT or -mutant cBAF complexes (Figure S4F and S4G). To validate these data, we performed immunofluorescence co-localization studies of p300 with ARID1A-WT or -mutant cBAF complexes, revealing altered nuclear distribution of p300 and a loss of co-condensation with cBAF (Figures 4D, S4H, and S4I). These findings demonstrate the critical role of the ARID1A N-terminal IDR1 in facilitating localized condensation of cBAF complexes and their association with the transcriptional machinery, TFs, and other factors required for functional chromatin remodeling.

Although the proximal protein repertoire of ARID1A DBD\(^{\text{mut}}\)-carrying cBAF complexes was similar to that of WT cBAF, these complexes were defective in genomic localization (Figure 3A). To investigate the reason behind this observation, we used IP-MS to identify high-stringency protein interactors of cBAF complexes and determine whether these interactors are dependent on ARID mutation. We identified 1,076 interacting proteins that were dependent on ARID1A WT for association with cBAF, >90% of which overlapped with those identified in the TbID-based proximity-labeling experiments (Figures 4E, 4F, and S4J; Table S2). cBAF-interacting factors were particularly enriched for TFs such as FOS/Jun, TEAD1, NFIA, NFIB, RELA, GATA2, ATF3, and CUX1, consistent with the roles of TF-cBAF interactions in genomic navigation\(^{50,51}\) (Table S2). The identified TFs correspond to key DNA motifs that were enriched under ARID1A IDR-dependent sites genome wide (Figures 3F, 4G, and S4K). Of the DNA-interacting IP-MS hits, 75% were TFs, including six factors that interacted with cBAF by IP-MS that also had motifs enriched in cluster 2/3 sites, such as cJUN, NFIA, and TEAD1 (Figure 4G). Importantly, by IP-MS, ARID1A DBD\(^{\text{mut}}\)-carrying complexes were equally deficient for TF tethering as IDR-mutant complexes (Figures 3A and 4E), suggesting that the ARID domain stabilizes a broad set of TF-cBAF interactions. Similarly, transcription initiation machinery components detected by proximity labeling were not enriched by IP-MS, indicating that these factors localize near to but do not bind cBAF complexes (Figure 4F; Table S1).

Genomic targeting and protein interactions of cBAF complexes require the ARID1A-specific IDR

Given the critical role of the ARID1A/B IDRs in driving condensation, protein interactions, and genomic localization of cBAF in cells, we sought to determine whether these functions can be performed by other LLPS-prone IDRs. To evaluate this, we generated constructs replacing IDR1 of ARID1A with alternate well-known self-interacting IDRs from FUS and DDX4\(^{132}\) (Figure 5A). As expected, given the retention of the ARID1A CBR, these fusion constructs were able to nucleate cBAF assembly in AN3CA cells (Figure S5A). Live-cell microscopy revealed the presence of condensates in FUS\(^{\text{DR}}\) and DDX4\(^{\text{DR}}\)-ARID1A mutant expressing cells, comparable in count, area, saturation concentration, and FRAP dynamics with those detected in the ARID1A WT condition (Figures S5B–S5D, S5E, S5F, and S5G), suggesting that these alternate IDRs are sufficient for condensation of cBAF in living cells.

To define whether FUS\(^{\text{IDR}}\)/DDX4\(^{\text{IDR}}\)-ARID1A can rescue cBAF chromatin targeting, we profiled complex occupancy, DNA accessibility, and gene expression in AN3CA cells. We focused specifically on de novo cBAF-occupied and accessible sites that were specific to the WT ARID1A condition (Figure 3A, clusters 2 and 3). Importantly, cBAF complexes containing FUS\(^{\text{DR}}\) and DDX4\(^{\text{DR}}\)-ARID1A were unable to recapitulate WT targeting, indicating sequence-specific functions of the ARID1A IDR1 (Figures 5E, S5D, and S5E). PCA of ATAC-seq sites revealed that FUS\(^{\text{DR}}\) and DDX4\(^{\text{DR}}\) ARID1A mutants clustered more closely with \(\Delta\)IDR1 than ARID1A WT, suggesting that although they rescue cBAF condensation, they fail to recapitulate genomic targeting, implicating the requirement for the ARID1A IDR1 sequence in cBAF chromatin occupancy (Figure S5E).

Importantly, FUS\(^{\text{IDR}}\)/DDX4\(^{\text{IDR}}\)-ARID1A variants failed to activate gene expression relative to WT ARID1A (Figures 5F and S5F).

Next, we investigated the underlying basis for the specificity of the ARID1A IDR1 in mediating cBAF activity using IP-MS experiments. Following confirmation that replacement of ARID1A IDR1 with FUS- or DDX4-derived IDRs did not alter cBAF assembly...
Figure 4. ARID1A IDR1s mediate local proximity of cBAF complex with cellular transcriptional machinery, enabling ARID domain-dependent TF binding
(A) Immunoblot for input and anti-HA IP from AN3CA cells expressing HA-ARID1A fused to biotin ligase TurboID (TbID).
(B) Distribution of biotinylated proteins fold changes.
(C) Volcano plots comparing biotinylated protein levels.
(D) Immunofluorescence analysis of ARID1A and p300 in AN3CA cells.
(E) Volcano plots comparing detected protein levels following IP-MS.
(F) Overlap of ARID1A WT-carrying cBAF interactomes measured using proximity labeling or IP-MS.
(G) Protein class enrichment of detected cBAF-interacting proteins via IP-MS (DNA interactors in red).
(H) Input and selected transcription factor (cJUN, NFIA, TEAD1) reciprocal IPs using AN3CA cells expressing empty vector or WT- and mutant-ARID1A. See also Figure S4 and Table S2.

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(Figure S5G), we found that FUS\textsuperscript{IDR}- and DDX4\textsuperscript{IDR}-ARID1A mutants carrying cBAF complexes each failed to capture TFs associating with WT cBAF complexes (Figure 5G; Table S1). As expected, proximity-labeling experiments using a FUS\textsuperscript{IDR}-ARID1A-TbiD fusion construct confirmed that FUS\textsuperscript{IDR}-ARID1A failed to restore proximity of cBAF to TFs and the transcriptional machinery relative to ARID1A WT (Figures S5H and S5I; Table S2). Instead, the repertoire of proteins nearby FUS\textsuperscript{IDR}, ARID1A containing cBAF complexes was more similar to the ΔIDR1 ARID1A mutant-carrying BAF (Figures S5J and S4F).

Furthermore, immunofluorescence confirmed that p300 does not colocalize with cBAF complexes carrying FUS/DDX4\textsuperscript{IDR}, ARID1A fusions, despite nuclear protein levels of p300 remaining unchanged (Figures S5H, S5K, and S5L). Finally, FUS/DDX4\textsuperscript{IDR}, ARID1A fusions showed increased occupancy over ΔIDR1 or CBR-only ARID1A-bound sites, absent corresponding changes in chromatin accessibility (Figure 5I), exemplified over the BRD2 and CD320 loci (Figure 5J), suggesting potential homotypic (self) interactions over existing open chromatin regions. These data indicate that generic condensation of cBAF is insufficient for genomic targeting in cells, imparting a marked specificity to the ARID1A N-terminal IDR and indicating that condensate-driving IDRs need not be functionally interoperable with one another.

**Analysis of ARID1A IDR sequence features enables uncoupling of condensation and heterotypic protein-protein interactions**

To decipher the underlying basis of the specificity of ARID1A IDR1, we performed IDR-specific comparative analyses of the “sequence grammar” of ARID1A/B IDRs, including distinctive compositional biases, non-random binary sequence patterns that influence conformational properties of IDRs, and the presence, if any, of short linear motifs.\textsuperscript{53} To uncover these features, we collated all disordered sequences across the entire mSWI/SNF family of protein subunits (within cBAF, PBAF, and nCBF complexes) and analyzed their amino acid compositional and sequence patterning features using the NARDINI+ algorithm,\textsuperscript{53-55} which combines the work of Zarin et al. and Cohan et al., and enunciates the findings in terms of sequence feature vectors. These vectors were then hierarchically clustered using Euclidean distance and Ward’s clustering.\textsuperscript{53,54} We found that IDR1 of ARID1A and ARID1B cBAF-defining subunits represents a distinct evolutionary cluster among all other mSWI/SNF IDRs, including IDR2 of ARID1A/B, indicating that they harbor distinctive non-random sequence features (Figure 6A).

The ARID1A/B IDR1s are uniquely enriched in alanine-glutamine-glycine stretches or “blocks” (Figures 6B and S6A). This highly non-random blocky patterning in the ARID1A/B IDR1s was found to be conserved across eukaryotes (at the phyla level) despite divergence in the amino acid sequence across homologs (Figure S6B). Additionally, we identified a pronounced compositional bias, with more than 40 aromatic residues (tyrosine, tryptophan, and phenylalanine) distributed uniformly across the 1,016-amino acid IDR; aromatic residues contribute to pi-pi and cation-pi interactions that have been shown to drive homotypic (self)-interactions and LLPS in IDRs from other condensation-prone proteins including FUS.\textsuperscript{16,57} Given these features, we next generated ARID1A IDR1 mutant variants that either disrupt blockiness of AQG patches by scrambling the amino acid content within them (AQGscram) or disrupt aromatic character by mutating 42 tyrosines to serines (42YS) (Figures 6B and S6C). Both designs maintain the overall IDR length. Disruption of AQG blocks in the AQGscram mutant and preservation in the 42YS mutant were confirmed using NARDINI\textsuperscript{14} (Figure 6D). Following confirmation that these mutant variants maintained expression level and complex integration when expressed in AN3CA cells, we performed live condensate imaging. Indeed, ARID1A 42YS mutant-containing cBAF complexes failed to form condensates in cells, whereas the AQGscram mutant-containing complexes formed condensates comparable with those carrying WT ARID1A, with slightly increased area and attenuated FRAP recovery times (Figures 6E-6G and S6C). These data indicate that the 42 tyrosine residues found in ARID1A IDR1 are the main “stickers”\textsuperscript{56} that drive LLPS of the ~1+ MDa cBAF complex and that the evolutionarily conserved, non-random AQG blocks found in this region are not essential for cBAF condensate formation.

Importantly, both the 42YS and AQGscram ARID1A mutant variants showed equivalent failure to rescue cBAF localization and DNA accessibility at de novo WT cBAF-occupied sites (n = 9,159 sites) in a manner similar to the DBD\textsuperscript{mut}, ΔIDR1, and

**Figure 5. Sequence-specific heterotypic interactions of ARID1A IDR1 are required for cBAF-mediated chromatin and gene regulation**

(A) Schematic of ARID1A FUS\textsuperscript{IDR} and DDX4\textsuperscript{IDR} fusion mutant variants.

(B) Representative images of eGFP-tagged constructs in live AN3CA cells.

(C) Count and average area of condensates. Statistical test, one-way ANOVA, error bars = standard deviation.

(D) FRAP curves, immobile fraction, and half time of recovery (T1/2) quantification for indicated constructs. Error bars: standard deviation. n = 3 biological trials, 15 cells each. Statistical test, one-way ANOVA, error bars = standard deviation.

(E) Chromatin occupancy of cBAF complexes marked by HA (ARID1A), SMARCA4 and SMARCC1, H3K27ac enhancer mark occupancy, and DNA accessibility (ATAC-seq) at cluster 2 and 3 sites from Figure 3A.

(F) Fold change of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) relative to empty vector. Error bars represent standard deviation. ****p < 0.0001, as calculated using unpaired t test.

(G) Volcano plots comparing detected protein levels by IP-MS. Hits meeting the cutoff of log2-fold change >1 and >1 and p value < 0.25 are blue and red, respectively.

(H) Immunofluorescence analysis of ARID1A and p300. Error bars represent standard deviation.

(I) Top, metaplots of SMARCA4 occupancy over cBAF sites (shared SMARCA4/SMARCC1 sites) ΔIDR1 (left) or CBR-only (right) cBAF complex target sites; bottom, metaplots of ATAC-seq accessibility.

(J) Example tracks of SMARCA4 occupancy and DNA accessibility in the ARID1A CBR-only, FUS\textsuperscript{IDR}, and DDX4\textsuperscript{IDR} mutant conditions at the BRD2 and CD320 genomic loci. See also Figure S5 and Tables S1 and S2.
CBR mutants (Figures 3A, 6H, and S6D–S6H), >60% of the sites with reduced occupancy of these two convergent mutants overlapped with reduced occupancy sites in ΔIDR1, CBR, or DBDmut contexts (Figures 3A, clusters 2 and 3, 6f, S6F, and S6G). At the gene expression level, relative to WT ARID1A, expression of 42YS and AQGscram ARID1A mutants resulted in overall downregulation of genes (Figures 6A and S6H).

To further understand the mechanism of action of these two IDR disruptions, we mapped the proximal protein repertoire of complexes containing the 42YS or AQGscram mutant using Tbid-based proximity labeling. Intriguingly, we find that complexes carrying the 42YS mutant have a comparable proximal protein repertoire to WT, whereas complexes containing the AQGscram are severely deficient in their interaction network (Figure 6K; Table S2). Indeed, we found a significant reduction in p300 colocalization in the setting of the ARID1A AQG AQGscram variant (Figures 6L and S6f). Both mutants are deficient in cBAF TF tethering, as assayed by colP immunoblot analysis of the TFs NFIA and TEAD1 (Figure 6M).

Mapping the occurrence of NDD-associated mutations within the 26 AQG-rich blocky sequences (Figure 6) reveals that block 9, a large AG-rich block, and block 13, a shorter polyA-rich amino acid sequence, are disproportionately perturbed (Figures 7B and 7C). We designed and cloned ARID1B in-frame truncation variants lacking these regions (block 9 or block 13 deletion) and selected causal NDD-associated mutations falling within these regions (S320_327del within block 9, and A457_G461del within block 13) (Figure 7C) to test for condensation, genomic localization, and accessibility generation in cells. As expected, the ARID1B mutant variants did not affect cBAF complex assembly (Figure 7D). We found that the block deletions and patient-derived ARID1B mutant-carrying complexes are still capable of condensation (Figure 7E), and their mobility by FRAP is not significantly different from WT (Figure S7B), in line with the result that scrambling the blocky AQQ sequences did not abolish condensation propensity or significantly affect cBAF complex diffusion (Figures 6F and 7E). Interestingly, the saturation concentration of block 13 del mutant was higher than WT, suggesting that deleting this block disrupts self-interaction, although this phenotype was not significant in the shorter patient-derived A457_G461del mutant (Figures 7E and 7F). Although we did not observe major changes in condensate count (except for the S320_G327del mutant) across mutants, we noticed an overall increase in condensate area (Figure 7F), similar to that observed for the ARID DBDmut variant (Figure 2D), suggesting that these mutations may disrupt TF tethering or chromatin-bound stability. To contextualize these results, we measured the effect of the SMARCA2/4 ATPase inhibitor, compound 14, on the condensation propensity of the complex.30,60 ATPase inhibition has been demonstrated to result in destabilized cBAF complexes at distal enhancers at which they interact with key TFs, resulting in accumulation of complexes over open promoters.30,61 Consistently, upon ATPase inhibition, we find formation of cBAF condensates, albeit fewer puncta and with greater area per nucleus (Figure S7C).

Finally, we mapped chromatin occupancy of cBAF complexes carrying ARID1B WT or mutants (CUTARUN) and measured DNA accessibility (ATAC-seq) as well as gene expression (RNA-seq) to test the functional impact of deletion and disease-associated IDR perturbations on cBAF function. We found that the block 9
Figure 7. Mutations in ARID1B IDR1 sequence pattern disrupt condensation and genomic targeting of cBAF
(A) Mutational frequencies in ARID1A/B IDRs associated with neurodevelopmental disorders (NDDs) from DECIPHER.
(B) NDD-associated mutations (DECIPHER) plotted across the 26 sequence blocks within IDR1 of ARID1B.
subunits contain IDRs, they do not confer self-interaction properties sufficient for condensation, at least in this cellular system. Beyond cBAF, additional subunits within the mSWI/SNF family contain IDRs, suggesting, by extension, that IDRs of related chromatin remodelers may serve as critical components of spatial genome organization (Figure 6A). Furthermore, the protein subunits that comprise human cBAF complexes contain increased intrinsic disorder relative to those of yeast SWI/SNF complexes. This suggests a model in which additional IDRs evolved to confer condensation properties and highly specific protein–protein interaction networks, to facilitate gene regulation in the mammalian nucleus.

Incubation of cBAF complexes with DNA in vitro potentiates condensation. This can be reversed by inactivation of ARID DBD, despite the fact that the core module of cBAF complexes contains several other sequence non-specific DBDs, highlighting its unique function (Figures 2A and 2B). Moreover, the ARID domain is required for cBAF to appropriately interact with TFs in the nucleus (Figure 4E), implying a distinct role for the ARID1A/B ARID domain. These results begin to provide insights regarding the order of events of nucleation and assembly of cBAF complexes on chromatin, their interactions with DNA, and their association with binding partners.

One notable finding of our study is that alternate low-complexity IDRs derived from unrelated proteins cannot rescue cBAF genomic targeting and protein interactions in cells (Figures 5E and 5G) despite identical condensation properties (Figures 5C and 5D), underscoring the key roles for condensation-specific and interaction-specific sequence grammars in IDRs. The integrative approach used here enabled our conclusions, in that quantification of condensation alone would have suggested that the ARID1A IDR swap mutants are functionally comparable with WT ARID1A; however, when combined with genomic and biochemical evaluation, we found that condensation alone does not confer cBAF function.

Importantly, condensate formation and heterotypic biomolecular interaction networks can be distinct, each playing critical but separable roles in biological function. We demonstrate here that condensate formation and protein–protein interactions of the ARID1A N-terminal IDR are independent of each other, but they are both required for chromatin targeting of cBAF in cells. Our results suggest that cells may be able to regulate and evolve these features independently to create localized, compositionally defined, and functionalized, high-concentration compartments in a modular way.

**DISCUSSION**

Most studies on chromatin regulatory complexes, including mSWI/SNF complexes, have focused on highly structured domains, characterizing how their physical features dictate chromatin binding and activity. Our findings provide understanding of a unique disordered domain present on a remodeler, the mSWI/SNF family cBAF complex, for which localized condensation and heterotypic interactions are both essential and independently directed by a distinct set of non-random sequence features encoded within ARID1A/B N-terminal IDRs (Figure 7N). These features are critical in governing cBAF-mediated genome-wide targeting, accessibility generation, and gene regulatory activities.

Our results reveal that IDR1 of ARID1A/B carries a set of unique sequence features relative to all IDR sequences within the mSWI/SNF family subunits (Figure 6A). We found that deleting IDR1 alone almost entirely prevents condensate formation of full cBAF complexes in cells. Additionally, within IDR1, short AQG-rich block deletions or NDD-associated mutations within these blocks maintained condensation but attenuated TF binding and genomic targeting of WT cBAF complexes. Furthermore, our data imply that although other cBAF complex
Our analysis of the non-random sequence features of cBAF IDRs provides a framework upon which to mechanistically assign the extensive number of disease-associated missense and indel mutations that fall within the ARID1A/B IDRs (Figure 1C). Our data suggest that NDD-associated mutations are live birth compatible. Intellectual disability (Coffin-Siris syndrome)-associated mutations in the C-terminal domain of the SMARCB1 subunit result in similarly subtle live-cell phenotypes.

Limitations of the study
Significant additional investigation will be needed to define the similarities and differences between these frameworks and other nuclear, and even other mSWI/SNF family subunit, IDRs, particularly given that repertoires of TFs and other IDR-interacting factors expressed among different cell types are highly variable. Furthermore, it remains to be determined whether chemical approaches to disrupt the protein interaction network encoded by the ARID1A/B IDRs, inhibit the DBD, or affect the biophysical properties leading to condensate formation may represent viable targeted strategies for specific cancers in which BAF complexes represent functional dependencies.

STAR+METHODS
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SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION
Supplemental information can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2023.08.032.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS
A.P., A.R.S., C.P.B., and C.K. conceived of and designed the study. A.P. and A.R.S. performed all experiments with help from J.A.P., G.X., and J.D.S.L. In vitro LLPS experiments were initiated by A.P. and T.W., L.A.B. dissected and cultured primary rat neurons. Computational analyses on genomics data were performed by C.K.C. and K.S.C. TMT-MS experiments were performed by A.P. and J.A.P., analyzed by J.A.P. and A.S., and supervised by S.P.G. K.M.R. and M.K.S. performed computational analyses of mSWI/SNF subunit sequences with oversight from R.V.P. C.P.B., R.V.P., and C.K. funded the study. A.P., A.R.S., C.P.B., and C.K. wrote the manuscript with input from all authors.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS
C.K. is the scientific founder, Scientific Advisor to the Board of Directors, Scientific Advisory Board member, shareholder, and consultant for Foghorn Therapeutics. C.K. also serves on the Scientific Advisory Boards of Nereid Therapeutics (shareholder and consultant), Nested Therapeutics (shareholder and consultant), Accent Therapeutics (shareholder and consultant), and Fibrogen (consultant) and is a consultant for Cell Signaling Technologies and Google Ventures (shareholder and consultant). C.P.B. is a scientific founder, Scientific Advisory Board member, shareholder, and consultant for Nereid Therapeutics. R.V.P. is a member of the Scientific Advisory Board for Dewpoint Therapeutics (shareholder and consultant). The authors have submitted a patent application related to this work.

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REFERENCES


## STAR METHODS

### KEY RESOURCES TABLE

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**Critical commercial assays**

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**Experimental models: Cell lines**

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RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead contact
Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Cigall Kadoch (cigall_kadoch@dfci.harvard.edu).

Materials availability
Cell lines generated in this study will be available upon reasonable request from the lead contact.

Data and code availability
- All genomic data have been deposited on the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus via GSE209961.
- No original code was created in this study.
- Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available from the lead contact upon request.

EXPERIMENTAL MODELS AND STUDY PARTICIPANT DETAILS

Cell lines and culture conditions
All human and mouse cell lines were grown at 37°C with 5% CO₂. HEK293T and U2OS cell lines are female human cells. HEK293T ΔARID1A/B and U2OS cells were grown in DMEM media (Gibco) supplemented with 10% FBS (Gibco), 1X GlutaMAX (Gibco), 100 U/mL Penicillin-Streptomycin (Gibco), 1 mM Sodium Pyruvate (Gibco), 1X MEM NEAA (Gibco), and 10 mM HEPES (Gibco). AN3CA endometrial cancer cells are human female cells and were grown in EMEM media (Gibco) supplemented with 15% tetryccline-free FBS (Omega), 1X GlutaMAX (Gibco), 100 U/mL Penicillin-Streptomycin (Gibco), 1 mM Sodium Pyruvate (Gibco), 1X MEM NEAA (Gibco), and 10 mM HEPES (Gibco). For immunofluorescence data, U2OS and MDA-MB-231 (human female breast-cancer derived) cells were grown in DMEM media with glucose, glutamine and pyruvate (ThermoFisher) supplemented with 10% FBS.
The inner 60 wells of 96 well glass bottom plates were treated with 0.01 mg/mL poly-D-lysine at 37°C overnight and washed x4 in HBSS. The outer 36 wells of the 96 well plate were filled with ultrapure water. 50 μL of neuron media (Gibco Neurobasal Plus with 2% Gibco B27 Plus, 1% penstrep, and 250 ng/mL Amphotericin B) with 2% Gibco CultureOne supplement (antimitotic) was added to each well, and the plates were stored at 37°C overnight and washed x4 in HBSS. Lysates were incubated on ice for 10 min with occasional vortexing and then spun at 21,000 g for 11 min at 4°C. Supernatants were discarded, and nuclei were resuspended in EB300 high salt buffer containing 50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 300 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM MgCl₂ supplemented with protease inhibitors. Lysates were incubated on ice for 10 min with occasional vortexing and then spun at 21,000 g for 11 min at 4°C. 0.5–1 mg of nuclear lysate was used for immunoprecipitation with rabbit anti-HA antibody (1:200 v/v) (Cell Signaling Technology) overnight at 4°C to bind to HA-tagged ARID1A/B (bait). Protein-G Dynabeads (ThermoFisher) were then added for 2 hours and washed five times with EB300.

**Primary rat neuron dissection and culture**

The inner 60 wells of 96 well glass bottom plates were treated with 0.01 mg/mL poly-D-lysine at 37°C overnight and washed x4 in HBSS. The outer 36 wells of the 96 well plate were filled with ultrapure water. 50 μL of neuron media (Gibco Neurobasal Plus with 2% Gibco B27 Plus, 1% penstrep, and 250 ng/mL Amphotericin B) with 2% Gibco CultureOne supplement (antimitotic) was added to each well, and the plates were stored at 37°C overnight and washed x4 in HBSS. Lysates were incubated on ice for 10 min with occasional vortexing and then spun at 21,000 g for 11 min at 4°C. Supernatants were discarded, and nuclei were resuspended in EB300 high salt buffer containing 50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 300 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM MgCl₂ supplemented with protease inhibitors. Lysates were incubated on ice for 10 min with occasional vortexing and then spun at 21,000 g for 11 min at 4°C. 0.5–1 mg of nuclear lysate was used for immunoprecipitation with rabbit anti-HA antibody (1:200 v/v) (Cell Signaling Technology) overnight at 4°C to bind to HA-tagged ARID1A/B (bait). Protein-G Dynabeads (ThermoFisher) were then added for 2 hours and washed five times with EB300.
Protein was eluted from beads with 4X LDS buffer by boiling for 7 min and loaded onto SDS-PAGE gels for Western blotting. Antibodies are listed in the STAR Methods section.

**Transcription factor-cBAF complex immunoprecipitation**

Reciprocal immunoprecipitations to validate cBAF Immunoprecipitation-Mass Spectrometry results were performed as follows: Cells were washed with cold PBS and resuspended in EBO hypotonic buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 0.1% NP-40, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM MgCl2 supplemented with protease inhibitors. Lysates were pelleted at 5,000 rpm for 5 min at 4 °C. Supernatants were discarded, and nuclei were resuspended in EB150 salt buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM MgCl2 supplemented with protease inhibitors. Lysates were incubated on ice for 10 min with occasional vortexing and then spun at 21,000 g for 11 min at 4 °C. 1-2.2 mg of nuclear lysate was used for immunoprecipitation with rabbit anti-NFIA, rabbit anti-TEAD1, or rabbit anti-cJUN antibodies (1:200 v/v) (Cell Signaling Technology) overnight at 4 °C. Protein-G Dynabeads (ThermoFisher) were then added for 2 hours. The beads were then extremely gently washed on a magnet three times with EB150 supplemented with protease inhibitors to avoid disrupting low affinity interactions, followed by boiling in 4X LDS buffer for 7-10 min and loading onto SDS-PAGE gels for Western blotting. Antibodies are listed in STAR Methods.

**Western blotting**

Western blot analysis was performed using a standard protocol. Nuclear extracts were separated using a 4%–12% Bis-Tris PAGE gel (Bolt 4%–12%Bis-Tris Protein Gel, Thermo Fisher) and transferred onto 0.2 μm Nitrocellulose membranes (Biorad) at 400 mA for 2 hours on ice. Membranes were blocked with 5% milk in 1X TBST for 30 min at room temperature and then incubated with primary antibody overnight at 4 °C (1:2000 v/v for Cell Signaling antibodies, 1:1000 v/v for others). They were then washed thrice with 1X TBST and incubated with near-infrared fluorophore-conjugated species-specific secondary antibodies (LI-COR Biosciences) for 1 hour at room temperature (1:10,000 v/v). Following secondary antibody incubation, membranes were washed twice with 1X TBST, once with 1X TBS, and imaged using a Li-Cor Odyssey CLx imaging system (LI-COR Biosciences). Western blot analysis was performed using a standard protocol. Nuclear extracts were separated using a 4%–12% Bis-Tris PAGE gel (Bolt 4%–12%Bis-Tris Protein Gel, Thermo Fisher) and transferred onto 0.2 μm Nitrocellulose membranes (Biorad) at 400 mA for 2 hours on ice. Membranes were blocked with 5% milk in 1X TBST for 30 min at room temperature and then incubated with primary antibody overnight at 4 °C (1:2000 v/v for Cell Signaling antibodies, 1:1000 v/v for others). They were then washed thrice with 1X TBST and incubated with near-infrared fluorophore-conjugated species-specific secondary antibodies (LI-COR Biosciences) for 1 hour at room temperature (1:10,000 v/v). Following secondary antibody incubation, membranes were washed twice with 1X TBST, once with 1X TBS, and imaged using a Li-Cor Odyssey CLx imaging system (LI-COR Biosciences).

**ATAC-seq**

Omni-ATAC protocol was used to measure DNA accessibility with slight modifications covered below. 100,000 cells per sample were trypsinized and washed with cold PBS to remove trypsin. Cell pellets were lysed in 50 μL cold resuspension buffer (RSB) supplemented with fresh NP40 (final 0.1% v/v), Tween-20 (final 0.1% v/v), Digitonin (final 0.01% v/v) (RSB recipe: 10 mM Tris–HCl pH 7.4, 10 mM NaCl, and 3 mM MgCl2). Lysis step was quenched with 1 mL of RSB supplemented with Tween-20 (final 0.1% v/v) and nuclei were pelleted at 500 g for 10 min at 4 °C after incubating on ice for 3 minutes. Nuclei were then resuspended in 50 μL transposition reaction mix containing 25 μL 2X Tagment DNA buffer (Illumina), 25 μL Tn5 transposase (Illumina), 16.5 μL 1X PBS, 0.5 μL 1% digitonin (final 0.01% v/v), 0.5 μL 10% Tween-20 (final 0.1% v/v), and 5 μL nuclease-free water. The transposition reaction was 30 min with constant shaking (1000 rpm) on a thermomixer. Tagmented DNA was purified using the MinElute Reaction Cleanup Kit (Qiagen). Standard ATAC-seq amplification protocol with 7 cycles of amplification was used to amplify tagmented libraries. Libraries were sequenced on a NextSeq 500 (Illumina) using 37 bp pair-end sequencing.

**CUT&Tag**

CUT&Tag was performed as described previously using a protocol developed by Epicypher (https://www.epicypher.com/content/documents/protocols/cutana-cut&tag-protocol.pdf) in 8-strip PCR tubes with slight modifications as described below. Briefly, Concanavalin A (ConA) coated magnetic beads (Polysciences) were activated with Bead Activation Buffer containing 20 mM HEPES pH 7.9, 10 mM KCl, 1 mM CaCl2, 1 mM MnCl2; beads were stored on ice until used. 300,000 cells/sample were trypsinized and pelleted by centrifugation at room temperature (600g for 3 min). Cells were lysed using cold Nuclear Extraction Buffer containing 20 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.9, 10 mM KCl, 0.1% Triton X-100, 20% Glycerol supplemented with fresh 0.5 mM Spermidine and 1X protease inhibitor (Roche) for 2 min. Nuclei were pelleted by centrifugation (600 g for 3 min), resuspended in 100 μl/sample Resuspension buffer (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl supplemented with fresh 0.5 mM Spermidine and 1X protease inhibitor) and incubated with activated ConA beads at room temperature for 15 min. The nuclei-ConA bead complexes were then resuspended in Antibody 150 Buffer containing 20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM EDTA supplemented with fresh 0.5 mM Spermidine, 1X protease inhibitor, 0.01% Digitonin, and 0.5 ug primary antibody/sample. Following overnight incubation at 4 °C on a nutator, supernatant was discarded, and the ConA-nuclei complexes were then incubated with Digitonin 150 buffer (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM Spermidine, 1X protease inhibitor, 0.01% Digitonin) supplemented with 0.5 ug/sample Secondary antibody for 1 hour at room temperature on a nutator. They were then washed with Digitonin 150 Buffer twice before resuspension in 50 μL cold Digitonin 300 Buffer containing 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 300 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM Spermidine, 1X protease inhibitor, and 0.01% Digitonin. 2 μL CUTANA pAG-Tn5 (Epicypher) was added to each sample and incubated on a nutator for 1 hr at room temperature. Following incubation, beads were washed twice with cold Digitonin 300 Buffer. Targeted chromatin tagmentation and library amplification were carried out according to Epicypher’s protocol mentioned above. Size distribution was measured on a D1000 ScreemTape run on a TapeStation 2200 (Agilent). Equimolar amounts of barcoded libraries were pooled and sequenced on a NextSeq 500 (Illumina) using 37 bp pair-end sequencing with the goal of achieving a minimum of 8-10 million reads per library.
CUT&RUN was performed based largely on Epicypher’s protocol (https://www.epicypher.com/content/documents/protocols/cutana-cut-run-protocol.pdf) and the CUT&Tag protocol described above but with key modifications as described below. Briefly, Concanavalin A (ConA) coated magnetic beads (Polysciences) were activated with Bead Activation Buffer containing 20 mM HEPES pH 7.9, 10 mM KCl, 1 mM CaCl₂, 1 mM MnCl₂. Beads were stored on ice until used. 500,000 cells/sample were trypsinized and pelleted by centrifugation at room temperature (600 g for 3 min). Cells were lysed using cold Nuclear Extraction Buffer containing 20 mM HEPES–KOH pH 7.9, 10 mM KCl, 0.1% Triton X-100, 20% Glycerol supplemented with fresh 0.5 mM Spermidine and 1X protease inhibitor (Roche) for 2 min. Nuclei were pelleted by centrifugation (600 g for 3 min), resuspended in 100 ul/sample Resuspension buffer (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl supplemented with fresh 0.5 mM Spermidine and 1X protease inhibitor) and incubated with activated ConA beads at room temperature for 15 min. The nuclei-ConA bead complexes were then resuspended in Antibody Buffer containing 20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM EDTA supplemented with fresh 0.5 mM Spermidine, 1X protease inhibitor, 0.01% Digitonin, and 0.5 ug primary antibody/sample. Following overnight incubation at 4 °C on a nutator, the supernatant was discarded, and the ConA-nuclei complexes were then washed twice with Digitonin 150 buffer (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM Spermidine, 1X protease inhibitor, 0.01% Digitonin). They were then resuspended in Digitonin 150 buffer and 2.5 μL of CUTANA pAG-MNase (Epicypher) was added to each sample followed by incubation on a nutator for 30-60 min. The supernatant was then discarded and the ConA-nuclei complexes were then washed twice with Digitonin 150 buffer and resuspended in fresh Digitonin 150 buffer supplemented followed by addition of 1 μL of 100 mM CaCl₂ to each sample. The samples were then incubated on a nutator for 2 hours at 4 °C, followed by addition of the Stop buffer (340 mM NaCl, 20 mM EDTA, 4 mM EGTA, 50 ug/mL RNase A, 50 ug/ml Glycogen). Samples were then incubated at 37 °C for 10 minutes to release MNase-digested DNA fragments. The supernatants were then transferred to a new tube and DNA was purified using the MiniElute Reaction Cleanup Kit (Qiagen). Libraries were prepared using the CUTANA CUT&RUN Library Prep Kit (EpicypHER). Size distribution was measured on a D1000 ScreenTape run on a TapeStation 2200 (Agilent). Equimolar amounts of barcoded libraries were pooled and sequenced on a NextSeq 500 (Illumina) using 37 bp pair-end sequencing with the goal of achieving a minimum of 8-10 million reads per library.

NGS Data Processing
CUT&Tag, CUT&RUN, ATAC-Seq, and RNA-Seq samples were sequenced on an Illumina NextSeq500 instrument. RNA-Seq reads were aligned to the hg19 genome with STAR v2.5.2b, and tracks were generated using the deepTools v2.5.3 bamCoverage function with the normalizeUsingRPKM parameter. Output gene count tables from STAR were used as input into the edgeR v3.12.1 R software package to evaluate differential gene expression. For ATAC-Seq data, read trimming was carried out by Trimmomatic v0.36, followed by alignment, duplicate read removal, and read quality filtering using Bowtie2, Picard v2.8.0 (http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/), and SAMtools v 0.1.19, respectively, and ATAC-seq peaks were called with MACS2 v2.1 using the BAMP/E option and a broad peak cutoff of 0.001. For ATAC-Seq track generation, output BAM files were converted into BigWig files using MACS2 and UCSC utilities in order to display coverage throughout the genome in RPM values. For CUT&Tag and CUT&RUN libraries, the CutRunTools pipeline was leveraged to perform read trimming, quality filtering, alignment, peak calling, and track building using default parameters. All sequencing data analyzed in this study have been deposited at NCBI’s Gene Expression Omnibus under accession number GSE209961.

CUT&Tag, CUT&RUN and ATAC-seq data analyses
Heatmaps and metaplots displaying signals aligned to peak centers were generated using ngsplot v2.63. RPM values were quantile normalized across samples, and K-means clustering was applied to partition the data into groups. The Bedtools multIntersectBed and merge functions were used for peak merging, and distance-to-TSS peak distributions were computed utilizing Ensembl gene coordinates provided by the UCSC genome browser. Principle Component Analysis was performed using the wt.scale and fast.svd functions from the corrC R package on CUT&Tag/CUT&RUN quantile normalized log₂-transformed RPMK values within merged peaks. Transcription factor motif enrichment analyses were carried out by the HOMER v4.9 software.

cBFA complex purification
mSW/SNF complex purification was performed essentially as described previously. Briefly, HEK293TARID1A/B knock-out cells stably expressing HA-tagged ARID1A WT or mutants under a doxycycline-inducible promoter created using piggybac transfection (described above) were plated in 50-100 15-cm plates. Expression of the bait (HA-ARID1A) was induced by addition of 200 ng/ml Dox for 48 hours. Cells were then scrapped from plates, washed with cold PBS, and centrifuged at 5,000 rpm for 5 min at 4 °C. Pellets were resuspended in hypotonic buffer (HB: 10 mM Tris HCl pH 7.5, 10 mM KCl, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, supplemented with 1 mM DTT and 1 mM PMSF) and incubated for 5 min on ice. The suspension was centrifuged at 5,000 rpm for 5 min at 4 °C, and pellets were resuspended in 5 volumes of HB containing protease inhibitor cocktail. The suspension was then homogenized using a glass Dounce homogenizer (Kimble Kontes). Nuclei were pelleted by centrifugation at 5000 rpm for 15 min at 4 °C. Nuclear pellets were resuspended in high salt buffer (HSB: 50 mM Tris HCl pH 7.5, 300 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM EDTA, 1% NP40 supplemented with 1 mM DTT, 1 mM PMSF, and 1X protease inhibitor cocktail). The homogenate was then incubated on a rotator for 1 hr at 4 °C followed by centrifugation at 20,000 rpm for 1 hr at 4 °C using a SW32Ti rotor in an ultracentrifuge. The high salt nuclear extract supernatant was filtered through a 5 μm filter (EMD Millipore) and incubated with Pierce Anti-HA Magnetic Beads (Thermo Fisher) overnight at 4 °C. HA beads were
were aliquoted, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C. Eluted proteins were then subjected to dialysis (Slide-A-Lyzer MINI Dialysis Device, 10K MWCO, ThermoFisher) using Dialysis Buffer (25 mM HEPES pH 8.0, 0.1 mM EDTA, 100 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl₂, 15% glycerol, and 1 mM DTT) overnight at 4 °C, and finally concentrated using Amicon Ultracentrifugal filters (30kDa MWCO, EMD Millipore). Complexes were aliquoted, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C.

**In vitro condensation assay**

Purified cBAF complexes containing C-terminally eGFP-tagged ARID1A WT, DBDmut, ΔIDR1 or CBR were stored in 25 mM HEPES pH 8.0, 0.1 mM EDTA, 100 mM KCl,1 mM MgCl₂,15% glycerol, and 1 mM DTT, at -80 °C. Reaction chambers for the in vitro assay were prepared by coating the interior glass of a 96-well glass bottom plate (Cellvis, P96-1.5H-N) with 1% w/v PF-127 (Pluronic F-127, ThermoFisher, P3000MP) for 15 minutes. Unused wells were filled with distilled water to maintain humidity in the nearby reaction chambers and prevent sample evaporation. Protein complexes were thawed on ice, then diluted to four concentrations (2, 0.66, 0.22, 0.074 μM) in physiological salt buffer (150 mM NaCl, 25 mM HEPES pH 7.5) in 4 μL reaction volume. For assays containing DNA, nucleosomes, or RNA, each reaction additionally contained 100 ng/μL DNA, 100 ng/μL nucleosomes, or 100 ng/μL RNA. Source of DNA was a linearized double-stranded 10 kb plasmid of random sequence. Nucleosomes were mono- di- and tri-nucleosomes purified from HeLa cells (Epicypher). Source of RNA was in vitro transcribed 18s rRNA from HEK293T cell cDNA (ThermoFisher). Reactions were allowed to equilibrate at room temperature for 30 min for droplets to form and settle onto the coverslip. Visualization of the reaction chambers was performed on a spinning-disk confocal microscope (Yokogawa CSU-X1) with 100X oil immersion Apo TIRF objective (NA 1.49) and Andor DU-897 EMCCD camera on a Nikon Eclipse Ti inverted microscope body. Images were obtained in DIC (Differential Interference Contrast) and GFP (488 nm laser) channels; at least 6 fields of view per sample were gathered. For quantification, images were deidentified, segmented for droplets in the GFP channel using FIJI, and droplet area measured. ‘Percent Area’ metric was calculated for each image as the area in microns squared covered by droplets over the area in microns square of the entire field of view.

**Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP)**

FRAP assays were performed in AN3CA patient-derived endometrial cells with doxycycline-inducible expression of C-terminally eGFP-tagged ARID1A or ARID1B constructs. Cells were plated in 24-well glass bottom plates (Cellvis) 48 hours prior to imaging. Expression was induced 24 hours prior to imaging by exchanging for media with 200 ng/mL doxycycline (Fisher Scientific). Cells were imaged on a Nikon Ti2 microscope equipped with an A1R HD25mm scanhead, with Plan Apo 1.4 NA oil lens, maintained at 37 °C and 5% CO₂ with a Tokai Hit StageTop incubator equipped with a Ti ZWX stage insert. Images were obtained with 0.1-0.8 % laser power 488 nm with 10-70 HU gain at 11.1X zoom, 1 AU pinhole, 256x256 pixels each 0.0625 μm. Three pre-bleach images were acquired, then bleaching was performed with the 488 laser at 10% power. Post-bleach images acquired every 0.25 seconds for the first 10 seconds, every 1 sec for the next 20 sec, then every 5 sec for the next 2 minutes. For each construct, three biological replicates were prepared, and at least 15 cells bleached per replicate. For quantification, movies were registered using StackReg plugin in FIJI, bleached area recognized by segmentation, then intensity of the bleached area in each frame measured. Measurements were normalized by subtracting the background (nucleoplasmic) intensity, then dividing over the average pre-bleach intensity from three pre-bleach images.

**Live time-lapse movies**

AN3CA cells expressing ARID1A-WT-eGFP, ARID1A-DBDmut-eGFP, ARID1B-WT-eGFP or ARID1B-DBDmut-eGFP were prepared on the Nikon Ti2 microscope with A1R scanhead and Tokai Hit StageTop incubator as described above. Images were obtained with 0.1-0.8% laser power 488 nm with 10-70 HU gain at 4X zoom, 1AU pinhole, 512x512 pixels. Images were obtained every 20 seconds for 60 minutes to observe long-term stability of condensates, or every 5 seconds for 10 minutes to observe fusion and coalescence of nuclear puncta.

**Immunofluorescence**

AN3CA cells were plated in 24-well glass bottom plates at 50% confluency (Cellvis) 48 hours prior to fixation, and expression induced 24 hours prior to fixation by adding 200 ng/mL doxycycline (Fisher Scientific). Cells were washed once with DPBS, then fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (diluted in DPBS from 16% paraformaldehyde, Electron Microscopy Science #15710) for 15 minutes at room temperature. Fixed cells were washed three times, five minutes each in room temperature DPBS, then permeabilized in 0.2% PBST (Triton X-100, ThermoFisher) for 60 minutes with rocking. Permeabilized cells were washed again three times, five minutes each in room temperature DPBS, then blocked in 0.1% PBST with 5% goat serum (Vector Laboratories S-1000-20) + 5% BSA for 60 minutes with rocking. Cells were stained with primary antibody in block overnight at room temperature with rocking (1:500 rabbit mAb anti-p300; 1:500 rabbit mAb anti-SMARCC1; 1:1000 rabbit mAb anti-ARID1A or 1:1000 rabbit mAb anti-ARID1B). Cells were washed three times, five minutes each with DPBS, then stained with secondary antibody (1:5000 Goat anti-rabbit highly cross-adsorbed 568-conjugated antibody) for 3 hours with rocking at room temperature. This antibody staining protocol was developed to faithfully recognize condensates in exogenous ARID1A WT-eGFP-expressing AN3CA cells, then applied to the additional panel of cell types (KLE, CRL-7250, MDA-MB-231, MCF10A, MCF10-CA, C2C12 mouse myoblasts and primary rat cortex neurons). All antibodies are listed in the STAR Methods.
Saturation Concentration Measurement

Microscope fluorescence intensity to concentration calibration

Prior to imaging, the Nikon A1 scanning confocal microscope and live oil immersion objective (Plan Apo 60X/1.4, Nikon) were calibrated for fluorescence-to-concentration conversion using Fluorescent Correlation Spectroscopy for mCherry and GFP (568 nm and 488 nm lasers) as in Bracha et al. Briefly, mCherry fluorescence was converted to absolute concentration using FCS, then GFP fluorescence conversion was done by an exact mCherry-to-GFP fluorescence ratio with mCherry-P2A-eGFP construct. Diffusion and concentration were measured with 30 sec FCS measurement time, then a conversion table was created for fluorescence-intensity-to-concentration at specific optical settings. Activation was performed with an 488 nm excitation channel power of 84 uW/um², measured with an optical power meter (PM100D, Thorlabs), and images obtained with 1% head power on 488 nm laser, with intensity 0.1-1%, gain between 10-70 HU, 1X zoom, 1 AU pinhole (33.2 μm), 1024x1024 pixels.

Measuring saturation concentration

AN3CA cells were plated in 24-well glass bottom plates (Cellvis) 48 hours prior to imaging, and expression induced 24 hours prior to imaging by adding 200 ng/mL doxycycline (Fisher Scientific). Live cells were imaged on a Nikon A1 point-scanning laser confocal with 60x oil immersion lens of NA 1.4. Cells were maintained at 37 °C and 5% CO₂ with Okolab stagetop incubation. To quantitatively determine saturation concentration, images of nuclei were obtained with calibrated settings, then nuclei segmented from background in FIJI by Otsu’s method and classified as having no condensates (no PS) or as having condensates (yes PS) by the variance in pixel intensity across a 4μm x 4 μm area within the nucleus that does not overlap a skewing feature like a nucleolus; those areas with no puncta have low variance (<10% of mean intensity), while those with condensates have high variance (>10% of mean intensity). Concentrations of ARID1A/B in each nucleus were mapped and plotted, and the threshold at which the ‘yes PS’ and ‘no PS’ categories are most separated by a logistic regression was marked as the Saturation Concentration.

Condensate count and area measurements

To quantify the number and size of condensates per nucleus, the identified nuclei counted as ‘yes PS’ were subjected to further image analysis. These images of a single z plane within nuclei were segmented by IsoData method in FIJI to recognize the puncta, then their count per nucleus and average size per nucleus was recorded using the Analyze Particles feature in FIJI. To account for cell-to-cell variability, in general three biological replicates were performed with greater than 100 cells measured in each replicate, then the averages of three replicates plotted with standard error shown as error bars.

Light cycling experiments

U2OS cells expressing the Corelet components were subjected to repeated on-off cycles of 488 laser exposure. To do this, the cells were imaged for three ‘pre-activation’ frames, one every five seconds, in only the mCherry (561 nm laser) channel. Then, images were acquired every 5 seconds for 3 minutes in both GFP and mCherry channels, which exposes them to 488 nm light and ‘activates’ the Corelet system to form condensates. Droplets were then dissipated for 5 minutes by only imaging in the mCherry channel and re-activated again for two more cycles of (3 minutes activation + 5 minutes deactivation). Nuclei were registered using HyperStackReg in FIJI (doi:10.5281/zenodo.2252521), then Pearson Correlation Coefficient of nuclear pixel intensities in the last frame of each activation cycle was calculated using the JaCoP plugin.

Restriction Enzyme Accessibility Assay (REAA)

Purified cBAF complexes carrying ARID1A WT or mutants were quantified using SMARCA4 protein levels via Western Blotting using Restriction Enzyme Accessibility Assay (REAA). Complexes were added to a 30 μL reaction containing 3 μL REAA buffer (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 5 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 0.5 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM DTT, 5 nM unmodified nucleosomes (Epiglyc Nucleosome Remodeling Assay Substrate ST601-GATC1, 50-N-66, Biotinylated, Epicypher), 10 U/μL DpnII restriction enzyme (New England Biolabs), 0.5 mM ATP (Ultrapure ATP, Promega), 0°C in a PCR thermocycler. After incubation, 15 μL of the reaction was used to measure ATPase activity using ADP-Glo Max Assay kit (Promega). The rest of the reaction was quenched with 20 mM EDTA and 12 μg Proteinase K (Ambion) and incubated at 55 °C for 1 h and 80 °C for 10 min, followed by DNA purification using 1X AMPure beads (Beckman Coulter) and DS1000 High Sensitivity DNA ScreenTape analysis (Agilent).

ATPase activity measurement

15 μL of the REAA reaction was transferred to a 96-well white bottom plate containing 5 μL water followed by addition and mixing of 20 μL of ADP Glo reagent. The plate was covered in aluminum foil and placed on a shaker for 1 hour. 40 μL of the ADP Glo detection reagent was then added and mixed, followed by another 1 hour incubation on the shaker with the plate covered in foil. Luminescence was measured using a spectrophotometer.

ARID domain purification

The ARID1A ARID domain (amino acids 958-1375) (wild-type and the DNA binding mutant S1086E, S1087E, S1091E) was cloned in an in-house bacterial expression vector downstream of a GST tag and transformed into E. coli Rosetta (DE3) cells. Colonies were grown in Terrific broth at 37 °C in the presence of 100 μg/ml Carbenecillin and 25 μg/ml Chloramphenicol until OD₆₀₀ was 0.7. Protein expression was then induced with 1 mM IPTG and the culture was incubated at room temperature for 5 hours at 225 rpm, following which cells were pelleted by centrifugation at 5000 rpm for 10 min. Pellets were washed once with cold PBS and frozen at -80 °C. For protein purification, pellets were resuspended in 40 mL cold Lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 0.5 mg/mL
Proximity labeling was performed as previously described. Briefly, no ligase Control or ARID1A-TurboID (WT or mutant) fusion constructs were incubated in 10 μL of TMT reagent in lysis buffer) on a rotator for 2 hours at 4°C. Cells were lysed by sonication on ice and the lysate was centrifuged at 20,000 rpm for 1 hour at 4°C. The clarified lysate was then incubated with magnetic Glutathione beads (ThermoFisher) (washed twice in lysis buffer) on a rotator for 2 hours at 4°C. The beads were washed five times with Wash buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 500 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT) supplemented with protease inhibitors. Five elutions were performed using Wash buffer supplemented with 20 mM reduced Glutathione (Boston Bioproducts). 10 μL of each elution fraction was denatured in 2X LDS buffer and subjected to SDS-PAGE. The gel was stained with Coomassie Blue and fractions containing protein were pooled. The pooled fractions were buffer exchanged in dialysis buffer (25 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 100 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl2, 0.1 mM EDTA, 10% glycerol) overnight at 4°C. Following dialysis, GST-ARID protein levels were quantified using Protein Qubit (ThermoFisher), aliquoted, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA)
GST-ARID protein (WT or DBD™) and an IRDye800-tagged dsDNA probe (random sequence) were incubated in 10 μL EMSA buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 20 mM NaCl, 20 mM KCl, 10% glycerol, 10 ng/ml BSA, 1 mM DTT) at room temperature for 30 min. Following incubation, 2 μL of Gel loading dye lacking SDS (New England Biolabs) was added to the reactions and run on 1% TAE agarose gels at 125 V for 20 min. Gels were then imaged using a Li-COR Odyssey CLx imaging system (Li-COR Biosciences).

10-30% glycerol gradient sedimentation
Glycerol gradient-based sedimentation was performed as previously described. 1 mg nuclear extracts were loaded on top of linear, 11 ml 10%-30% glycerol gradients containing 25 mM HEPES pH 8.0, 0.1 mM NP-40, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM MgCl2 supplemented with 1X protease inhibitors. Lysates were then loaded into a SW41 rotor and centrifuged at 40,000 rpm for 16 hours at 4°C. 550 μL fractions were manually collected from the top of the gradient, to which 10 μL of Strataclean beads (Agilent) were added and incubated on a rotator for 1 hour at 4°C for 10 min. The mixture was then spun at 21000 g for 1 min, and the supernatants were loaded onto SDS-PAGE gels followed by Western blot analysis.

Proximity labeling and TMT Mass Spectrometry
Proximity labelling was performed as previously described. Briefly, no ligase Control or ARID1A-TurboID (WT or mutant) fusion expressing AN3CA cells were treated with 200 μg/ml Doxycycline to induce gene expression for 48 h, following which cells were labelled with 50 μM Biotin (Sigma Aldrich) for 10 min. Media was aspirated and cells were washed five times with sterile cold PBS on the plate. They were then scraped and resuspended in EB0 hypotonic buffer containing 50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 0.1% NP-40, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM MgCl2 supplemented with 1X protease inhibitors. Lysates were pelleted at 5000 rpm for 5 min at 4°C. Supernatants were discarded, and nuclei were resuspended in EB300 high salt buffer containing 50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 300 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM MgCl2 supplemented with 1X protease inhibitors. Lysates were incubated on ice for 10 min with occasional vortexing and then spun at 21000 g for 11 min at 4°C. Supernatants were quantified and supplemented with 1 mM DTT. 1.3 mg nuclear lysate was then incubated with magnetic Streptavidin beads (Thermo Fisher) on a rotator at 4°C for 2 hours to isolate biotinylated proteins. Beads were then washed twice with EB300, once with 1 M KCl, and five times with 100 mM HEPES pH 8.0, following which they were resuspended in 100 μL of 100 mM HEPES pH 8.0 and flash frozen for mass spectrometry analysis. Each sample was run in biological triplicate.

Protein Digestion
Beads were resuspended in 200 mM HEPES pH 8.5 and digested at room temperature for 13 h with Lys-C protease at a 100:1 protein-to-protease ratio. Trypsin was then added at a 100:1 ratio and the reaction was incubated 6 h at 37°C. Peptides were separated from beads, vacuum centrifuged to near-dryness and desalted via StageTip.

Tandem mass tag labeling
For labeling, a final acetonitrile concentration of ~30% (v/v) in 200 mM HEPES pH 8.5 was added along with 2 μL of TMT reagent (20 ng/ml) to the peptides in 25 μL total volume. Following incubation at room temperature for 1.5 h, the reaction was quenched with hydroxyamine to a final concentration of 0.3% (v/v) for 15 min. The TMT-labeled samples were pooled at a 1:1 ratio across all samples. The combined sample was vacuum centrifuged to near dryness and subjected to C18 solid-phase extraction (SPE) via Sep-Pak (Waters, Milford, MA).

Off-line basic pH reversed phase (BPRP) fractionation
The pooled TMT-labeled peptide samples were fractionated using the Pierce High pH Reversed-Phase Peptide Fractionation Kit (ThermoFisher). Twelve fractions were collected using: 7.5%, 10%, 12.5%, 15%, 17.5%, 20%, 22.5%, 25%, 27.5%, 30%, 35%, and 60% acetonitrile and every sixth samples was concatenated, resulting in a total of six fractions per experiment. Samples were subsequently acidified with 1% formic acid and vacuum centrifuged to near dryness. Each fraction was desalted via StageTip, dried again via vacuum centrifugation, and reconstituted in 5% acetonitrile, 5% formic acid for LC-MS/MS processing.

Liquid chromatography and tandem mass spectrometry
Mass spectrometry data were collected using an Orbitrap Eclipse mass spectrometer (ThermoFisher) coupled to a Proxeon EASY-nLC 1200 liquid chromatography (LC) pump (ThermoFisher). Peptides were separated on a 100 mm inner diameter microcapillary column packed with ~30 cm of Accucore150 resin (2.6 μm, 150 Å, ThermoFisher). For each analysis, we loaded ~2 μg onto theColumn.
column and separation was achieved using a 90 min gradient of 5 to 25% acetonitrile in 0.125% formic acid at a flow rate of ~450 nL/min. For the high-resolution MS2 (hrMS2) method, the scan sequence began with an MS1 spectrum (Orbitrap analysis; resolution, 60,000; mass range, 400–1600 Th; automatic gain control (AGC) target 100%; maximum injection time, auto). All data were acquired with FAIMS using three CVs (-40V, -60V, and -80V) each with a 1 sec TopSpeed method. MS2 analysis consisted of high energy collision-induced dissociation (HCD) with the following settings: resolution, 50,000; AGC target, 200%; isolation width, 0.7 Th; normalized collision energy (NCE), 37; maximum injection time, 86 ms.

**Data analysis**

Mass spectra were processed using a Comet-based software pipeline. Spectra were converted to mzXML using a modified version of ReAdW.exe. Database searching included all entries from the human UniProt database. This database was concatenated with one composed of all protein sequences in the reversed order. Searches were performed using a 50-ppm precursor ion tolerance for total protein level profiling. TMTpro tags on lysine residues and peptide N termini (+304.207 Da) and carbamidomethylation of cysteine residues (+304.207 Da) were set as static modifications, while oxidation of methionine residues (+15.995 Da) was set as a variable modification. Peptide-spectrum matches (PSMs) were adjusted to a 1% false discovery rate (FDR).36 PSM filtering was performed using a linear discriminant analysis, as described previously, while considering the following parameters: XCorr, ΔCn, missed cleavages, peptide length, charge state, and precursor mass accuracy. For TMT-based reporter ion quantitation, we extracted the summed signal-to-noise (S/N) ratio for each TMT channel and found the closest matching centroid to the expected mass of the TMT reporter ion. PSMs were identified, quantified, and collapsed to a 1% peptide false discovery rate (FDR) and then collapsed further to a final protein-level FDR of 1%. Moreover, protein assembly was guided by principles of parsimony to produce the smallest set of proteins necessary to account for all observed peptides. Proteins were quantified by summing reporter ion counts across all matching PSMs, as described previously.36 PSMs with poor quality and reporter summed signal-to-noise ratio less than 100, or no MS3 spectra were excluded from quantification.36 Data from all samples were normalized to Acetyl-CoA Carboxylase signal (ACACA), an endogenously biotinylated protein present in all Streptavidin precipitations. ACACA was also omitted from downstream analyses. TMT signal of the No Ligase control was subtracted from samples of respective replicates after ACACA signal normalization and peptide filtering. Signals of replicates were averaged between replicates for downstream analyses. Unless otherwise noted, all plots were generated using matplotlib and seaborn.

**Coimmunoprecipitation followed by TMT mass spectrometry (IP-Mass Spec)**

Cells were scraped from 15-cm plates, washed with cold PBS and resuspended in EB0 hypotonic buffer containing 50 mM Tris pH7.5, 0.1% NP-40, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM MgCl₂ supplemented with 1X protease inhibitors. Lysates were pelleted at 5000 rpm for 5 min at 4°C. Supernatants were discarded, and nuclei were resuspended in EB150 salt buffer containing 50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM MgCl₂ supplemented with 1X protease inhibitors. Lysates were incubated on ice for 10 min with occasional vortexing. Nuclear lysate was pelleted at 21000 g for 11 min at 4°C. Supernatants were quantified and supplemented with 1 mM DTT. 1.5 mg of nuclear lysate was used for immunoprecipitation with rabbit anti-HA antibody (Cell Signaling Technology) overnight at 4°C on a rotator to isolate cBAF complexes with HA-ARID1A as bait. Protein-G Dynabeads were then added and incubated on a rotator for 2 hours, washed thrice with EB150 and thrice with 100 mM HEPES pH 8.0. They were then resuspended in 5% formic acid to elute protein (2 elutions per sample, 50μL 5% formic acid per elution, 6 minutes incubation at room temperature per elution). Elutions were then pooled per sample and frozen at -80°C.

**Protein Digestion**

Eluates were dried in a vacuum centrifuge and resuspended in 200 mM HEPES pH 8.5. Proteins were digested at room temperature for 13 h with Lys-C protease at a 100:1 protein-to-protease ratio. Trypsin was then added at a 100:1 ratio and the reaction was incubated 6 h at 37°C.

**Tandem mass tag labeling**

For labeling, a final acetonitrile concentration of ~30% (v/v) in 200 mM HEPES pH 8.5 was added along with 3 μL of TMT reagent (20 ng/μL) to the peptides in 25 μL total volume. Following incubation at room temperature for 1.5 h, the reaction was quenched with hydroxylamine to a final concentration of 0.3% (v/v) for 15 min. The TMT-labeled samples were pooled at a 1:1 ratio across all samples. The combined sample was subsequently acidified with 1% formic acid and vacuum centrifuged to near dryness. The sample was desalted via StageTip, dried via vacuum centrifugation, and reconstituted in 5% acetonitrile, 5% formic acid for LC-MS/MS processing.

**Liquid chromatography and tandem mass spectrometry**

Mass spectrometry data were collected using an Orbitrap Fusion Eclipse mass spectrometer (ThermoFisher) coupled to a Proxeon EASY-nLC 1200 liquid chromatography (LC) pump (ThermoFisher). Peptides were separated on a 100 μm inner diameter microcapillary column packed with ~30 cm of Accucore150 resin (2.6 μm, 150 Å, Thermo Fisher). For each analysis, we loaded one-half of the sample onto the column and separation was achieved using a 150 min gradient of 3% to 25% acetonitrile in 0.125% formic acid at a flow rate of ~450 nL/min. For this high-resolution MS2 (hrMS2) method, the scan sequence began with an MS1 spectrum (Orbitrap analysis; resolution, 120,000; mass range, 400–1500 Th; automatic gain control (AGC) target, “standard”; maximum injection time, “auto”). All data were acquired with FAIMS using three CVs (-40V, -60V, and -80V) each with a 1 sec TopSpeed method. MS2 analysis consisted of high energy collision-induced dissociation (HCD) with the following settings: resolution, 50,000; AGC target, 300%;
Data analysis

Mass spectra were processed using a Comet-based software pipeline. Spectra were converted to mzXML using a modified version of ReAdW.exe. Database searching included all entries from the human Uniprot database. This database was concatenated with one composed of all protein sequences in the reversed order. Searches were performed using a 50-ppm precursor ion tolerance for total protein level profiling. TMTpro tags on lysine residues and peptide N termini (+304.207 Da) and carbamidomethylation of cysteine residues (+304.207 Da) were set as static modifications, while oxidation of methionine residues (+15.995 Da) was set as a variable modification. Peptide-spectrum matches (PSMs) were adjusted to a 1% false discovery rate (FDR). PSM filtering was performed using a linear discriminant analysis, as described previously, while considering the following parameters: XCorr, ΔCn, missed cleavages, peptide length, charge state, and precursor mass accuracy. For TMT-based reporter ion quantitation, we extracted the summed signal-to-noise (S/N) ratio for each TMT channel and found the closest matching centroid to the expected mass of the TMT reporter ion. PSMs were identified, quantified, and collapsed to a 1% peptide false discovery rate (FDR) and then collapsed further to a final protein-level FDR of 1%. Moreover, protein assembly was guided by principles of parsimony to produce the smallest set of proteins necessary to account for all observed peptides. Proteins were quantified by summing reporter ion counts across all matching PSMs, as described previously. PSMs with poor quality and reporter summed signal-to-noise ratio less than 100, or no MS3 spectra were excluded from quantification. Scaled TMT values were normalized to the control by subtracting the scaled values of the corresponding replicate control from the scaled values of each condition. These control-normalized values were normalized to bait (ARID1A) by dividing the control normalized values for each condition by the control normalized values for ARID1A. Log-2 fold-changes between each condition and ARID1A WT were calculated using the mean control-bait-normalized values for each condition (any mean control-bait-normalized values less than 0 were set to 0) with a pseudocount of 0.0001. Two-sample t-tests (n=2) with equal variance were used to calculate p-values. Only protein isoforms with the greatest detected peptide counts per gene were used for downstream analysis and visualization. Heatmaps were generated using the control-bait-normalized values. Volcano plots were generated using the log2 fold changes and p-values calculated as described above. A log2FC = +/- 1 and p-value = 0.25 were used to define gained and lost proteins. Unless otherwise noted, all plots were generated using matplotlib and seaborn.

Identification of non-random amino acid sequence features in disordered regions of mSWI/SNF subunits

The Swissprot database was used to download the Homo sapiens proteome (May 2015, 20882 entries). Disordered regions were then extracted from each protein sequence using MobiDB. Specifically, a residue was considered disordered if the consensus prediction labeled it as being disordered. Then, all consecutive disordered stretches greater than or equal to 30 residues in length were extracted to create what we refer to as the human IDRome, consisting of 24508 IDRs. Ninety sequence features previously found to be important for IDR conformational ensembles, phase separation, and function were calculated for all IDRs in the human IDRome. Sequence features are split into two broad categories: patterning and composition. To extract patterning z-scores we employed the NARDINI program which calculates the degree of blockiness of groups of residues compared to 10 randomly generated sequences with the same composition. Residues are grouped into the following eight types: polar (Q, S, H, T, C, N), hydrophobic (I, L, M, V), positive (K, R), negative (D, E), aromatic (F, Y, W), alanine (A), proline (P), and glycine (G). Considering all pairs of residue types leads to 36 patterning features. Positive z-scores imply the patterning of the two residue types is more blocky than random, whereas negative z-scores imply the patterning is more well-mixed than random.

Fifty-four compositional features were also calculated for each human IDR. localCIDER was utilized to calculate most of the compositional features including amino acid fractions (20 features), fraction of polar, aliphatic, aromatic, positive, negative, charged, chain expanding, and disorder promoting residues (8 features), the ratio of numbers of Rs to Ks and Es to Ds (2 features), and general features such as the net charge per residue, isoelectric point, hydrophobicity, and polyproline II propensity (4 features). We also calculated 20 patch features defined as the fraction of the IDR in a specific residue or RG patch. Here, W was excluded as no W patch was found in the human IDRome. A patch was calculated as a region of the sequence that had at least four occurrences of the given residue or two occurrences of RG and was not allowed to extend past two interruptions. Then, z-scores for each of the 54 compositional features were generated using the mean and standard deviation of the entire human IDRome. Here, positive z-scores imply the compositional feature is enriched in the IDR of interest, whereas negative z-scores imply the compositional feature is depleted in the IDR of interest.

Ninety-one IDRs were extracted from the human IDRome from the 29 mSWI/SNF proteins. Sequence feature z-score vectors of the IDRs were hierarchically clustered using the Euclidean distance and Ward’s linkage method. Only sequence features with a standard deviation > 0.1 across all 91 IDRs are shown in Figure 6A. The sequence features analyzed were divided into six categories: (1: red) patterning of X residues with Z residues, (2: orange) fraction of X residues, (3: green) fraction of IDR in X residue or RG patch, (4: blue) fraction of X+...+Z residues, (5: purple) ratio of number of X residues to Z residues, and (6: grey) additional compositional features calculated using localCIDER (http://pappulab.github.io/localCIDER/). Four clusters were identified: Cluster 1 (red) consists only of the N-terminal ARID1A and ARID1B IDRs which are enriched in blocks of polar residues, alanines, and glycines. Cluster 2 (orange) consists of IDRs enriched in patches of prolines and glutamines. Cluster 3 (green) consists of highly negatively charged IDRs, and Cluster 4 (blue) consists of IDRs enriched in patches of positive and negative residues.
To quantitatively determine the sequence features enriched / blocky in each of the four mSWI/SNF IDRome clusters, the z-score distributions from the IDRs in each cluster were compared to the z-score distributions of the remaining human IDRome. Colored values in Figure 6B imply that sequence feature is more enriched or blockier in that cluster compared to the rest of the human IDRome. Specifically, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to determine if the two distributions were identical and extract a p-value for each of the ninety sequence features. If the p-value was less than 0.05, then the signed log10(p-value) was calculated. A positive/negative log10(p-value) implies the mean z-score was greater/less than the cluster distribution compared to the distribution from the remaining human IDRome. Only features with signed log10(p-value) greater than zero for at least one cluster are shown in Figure 6B.

**NARDINI plots**

Non-random sequence patterning features of the ARID1A and ARID1B sequences are calculated. The 20 canonical amino acids are grouped into eight categories: polar, hydrophobic, positively charged, negatively charged, aromatic, Ala, Pro, and Gly. Here, the polar residue categories are further broken down to Q, S, H, and TCN, as noted in the figure legends. The z-scores are calculated with respect to the null model of 10^5 randomly scrambled sequences with fixed amino acid composition. Z-scores > 0 indicate clustering of residue category into blocks in the linear sequence, whereas z-score < 0 indicate that the residues are evenly distributed, or well-mixed, throughout the sequence.

**Amino acid sequence patterning of the N-terminal IDR of eukaryotic ARID1A orthologs**

Eukaryotic ARID1A ortholog sequences were obtained from the EggNOG database (KOG2510, N = 307). The N-terminal intrinsically disordered regions were extracted for the analysis. In the heatmap, each row corresponds to an ARID1A ortholog sequence, and each column corresponds to the z-score of a sequence feature. H. sapiens ARID1A IDR sequence is outlined in black. Each sequence (row) is color-coded by its taxonomic ranks in phylum, class, and order. The sequence patterning features were calculated as described. The sequence composition features were calculated from the primary sequence features and the z-scores were calculated with respect to the null model of all ortholog sequences. The dendrogram was generated using the Frobenius norm of the z-score matrices, where the norms were used as Euclidean distances, and Ward’s clustering was used.

**Mapping of cancer- and neurodevelopmental disorder-associated mutations on to ARID1A/B non-random pattern blocks**

Cancer- and neurodevelopmental disorder-associated ARID1A/B mutations were obtained from Valencia et al. Duplicate amino acid mutations were eliminated from the analyses. Silent mutations were not considered. Mutations found in the list were categorized into five categories: deletion, insertion, substitution, frameshift, and complex. Complex mutations indicate occurrence of more than one type of mutation.

**QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

Statistical analyses on quantified imaging data was performed with Prism. Statistical details, exact values of n and what n represents (individual cells or biological replicates) for each experiment can be found in the figure legends. In general, p values of significance less than 0.05 are denoted with one asterisk ***, less than 0.01 with two asterisks ****, less than 0.001 with three ***** and less than 0.0001 with four asterisks ******. No outlier data was omitted, no samples were excluded from our analyses. To identify differentially expressed genes (DEGs) or differentially interacting proteins, t-tests were performed on RNA-sequencing and mass spec data respectively. Error bar representation is indicated in the figure legends.
Figure S1. Structural and functional features of ARID1A/B cBAF subunits, related to Figure 1

(A) Left, 3D structure of the human cBAF complex (PDB: 6LTJ) with the ARID1A C-terminal core-binding region (CBR) highlighted; right, structure of the yeast SWI/SNF complex (PDB: 7EGP) with the ARID1A homolog Swi1 highlighted. Residues of complex subunits within 10 Å of ARID1A or Swi1 are highlighted in color.

(B) Mutational frequencies of ARID1A and ARID1B associated with cancer (TCGA) or neurodevelopmental disorders (NDDs) (DECIPHER), respectively. Percentages of total cancer and NDD cases for each are indicated.

(C) Amino acid level conservation between ARID1A and ARID1B, defined by pairwise alignment using EMBOSS Needle.

(D) Structural models of ARID1A and ARID1B subunits using AlphaFold highlights disordered regions (IDR1 and IDR2). The N and C termini of IDR1 and 2 and the ARID and CBR (Arm repeat) domains are labeled.

(E) Nuclear proteins ranked based on degree of disorder using MobiDB-lite.

(F) Interaction model of the ARID1A ARID domain and dsDNA (PDB: 1RYU, 1KQQ overlap). Highlighted residues S1086, S1087, and S1090 were mutated to glutamic acid (E) to compromise DNA-binding domain mutant (DBDmut).

(G) Left, electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) using GST-tagged wild-type (WT) or DBDmut ARID domain proteins (aa958–1,375) and a IRDye800 labeled dsDNA probe. Right, quantification of DNA binding. Error bars are standard deviation.

(H) Immunoblot performed on nuclear extracts isolated from naïve HEK293T, HEK293T ΔARID1A/B, and AN3CA cells.

(I) Immunoblots performed on nuclear protein input and anti-HA IPs in ΔARID1A/B HEK293T cells with rescue of HA-tagged ARID1A WT or mutant variants.

(J) Immunoblot of MG-132 proteasome inhibitor treated AN3CA cells expressing ARID1A WT and mutants.

(K) Density sedimentation analysis using 10%–30% glycerol gradients performed on nuclear extracts of AN3CA cells (top) and AN3CA cells rescued with HA-WT ARID1A (bottom).

(L) Immunoblot and quantitative densitometry for HA, SMARCA4, and SMARCC1 performed on purified WT and mutant cBAF complexes used for in vitro nucleosome remodeling assays.

(M) TapeStation analysis of REAA-based in vitro nucleosome remodeling assays shown in Figure 1G.
Figure S2. ARID1A/B IDR s and ARID DNA binding promote localized condensation of cBAF in vitro and in cells, related to Figure 2
(A) Schematic of eGFP-tagged ARID1A WT and mutant constructs.
(B) Left, silver stain of purified cBAF complexes containing WT or mutant eGFP-tagged ARID1A, purified from HEK293T ΔARID1A/B cells; middle, immunoblot of ATPase and core cBAF subunits using purified complexes; right, quantitative densitometry of HA (ARID1A), SMARCA4, SMARCC1, and SMARCE1.
(C) Representative images from in vitro droplet assays performed across a range of concentrations for all eGFP-tagged complexes. Scale bars, 20 μm.
(D) Left, representative images from in vitro droplet assay, scale bars, 20 μm; right, quantification of droplet area coverage for WT and mutant ARID1A-containing eGFP-tagged cBAF complexes at 2, 0.66, 0.22, and 0.074 μM, alone or with addition of 100 nM DNA, nucleosomes, or RNA. Error bars represent standard deviation of 8 fields of view in each condition.
(E) Representative images of in vitro droplet assays with 100 nM DNA added in indicated conditions. Strings of droplets from in in WT ARID1A + DNA condition only.
(F) (Top) Immunoblot for input and (bottom) anti-HA IP in AN3CA rescued with HA-tagged ARID1A WT or mutant eGFP-tagged variants.
(G) Quantitative densitometry of subunit protein levels across conditions from (F) (input and IP).
(H) Density sedimentation analysis using nuclear extracts of AN3CA cells rescued with eGFP-tagged ARID1A showing that the eGFP tag does not disrupt complex formation.
(I) Representative images (left) and saturation concentration (right) of control and MG-132 proteasome inhibitor treated AN3CA cells expressing ARID1A WT-eGFP or mutants.
(J) Representative images, puncta count and size of eGFP-tagged ARID1B WT and DBDmut in AN3CA cells (n = 25 cells each). ***p < 0.0001 by unpaired t test. Error bars represent standard deviation.
(K) FRAP curves, half time of recovery (T1/2) and immobile fraction quantification for ARID1A-eGFP (left) and ARID1B-eGFP (right) containing cBAF complexes. Scale bars, 10 μm. Error bars represent standard deviation. n = 3 biological trials containing 15 cells each. p values were calculated using an unpaired t test. ns, not statistically significant.
(L) Confocal imaging of condensates using anti-ARID1A antibody in CRL-7250, MCF-10A, MDA-MB-231, and for anti-ARID1B in primary rat neurons, alongside Hoechst stain. Scale bars, 10 μm.
(M) Representative images of one nucleus expressing each construct without (–light) and with (+light) light-induced oligomerization through the Corelet system. Scale bars, 10 μm.
(N) Corelet system phase diagrams of indicated ARID1A constructs in U2OS cells.
(O and P) Corelet system phase diagrams of indicated ARID1B constructs in U2OS cells.
(Q) Representative images for repeated light activation-deactivation cycles of indicated constructs in Corelet system in U2OS cells, and subsequent PCC of droplet nuclear localization. Scale bars, 10 μm.
(R) Quantification of PCC across three activation-deactivation cycles for indicated constructs. Error bars represent standard deviation, n = 32, 20, and 20 cells. p values were calculated using a one-way ANOVA test.
Figure S3. ARID1A IDR.s and ARID domain mediate cBAF occupancy, DNA accessibility, and gene expression in cells, related to Figure 3
(A) Meta-plots of HA (ARID1A), SMARCA4, SMARCC1, H3K27ac occupancy and DNA accessibility (ATAC) at clusters 2, 3, and 4 sites from Figure 3A across empty and ARID1A WT/mutant conditions.
(B) Venn diagrams indicating overlap between accessible sites gained in ARID1A WT (red) and DBDmut, ΔIDR1, CBR mutant conditions (green, purple, brown, respectively) in AN3CA cells.

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(C) Principal-component analysis (PCA) of all ATAC-seq sites in AN3CA cells across empty control and ARID1A WT/mutant conditions.

(D) RNA-seq PCA in AN3CA cells across empty control and ARID1A WT/mutant conditions.

(E) Overlap of gained ATAC sites shared between WT, DBDmut, ΔIDR1, CBR conditions.

(F) Overlap of WT-only gained ATAC sites not overlapping with DBDmut, ΔIDR1, CBR mutant gained sites.

(G) cBAF (ARID1A, SMARCA4, SMARCC1) and H3K27ac chromatin occupancy (CUT&Tag) at gained DNA-accessible sites (ATAC-seq) in AN3CA cells expressing ARID1A WT compared to empty control.

(H) Transcription factor motif enrichment analysis (HOMER) of cluster 2 sites from (G).

(I) Volcano plots reflecting gene expression changes (RNA-seq) between conditions indicated. Red and blue dots indicate genes upregulated and downregulated with an adjusted p value cutoff of 0.01 and a log2-fold change threshold of 1.

(J) Upregulated and downregulated genes (DEG count) across comparisons indicated.

(K) Expression of genes nearest to cBAF-occupied sites in clusters 1–4 from Figure 3A across ARID1A WT or mutant conditions relative to empty control.

(L) Differentially expressed genes (left) with differential cBAF target sites (ARID1A/SMARCA4 sites) within 1 kB of genes (right) in ARID1A WT versus empty vector conditions. Metascape enrichment analysis performed on genes closest to clusters 2/3 sites from Figure 3A. Epithelial cell differentiation term highlighted in red.
Figure S4. The ARID1A IDR and DNA-binding ARID domain facilitate interactions with transcription factors and transcriptional machinery, related to Figure 4.

(A) Schematic of HA-tagged ARID1A WT or mutant variants fused to the biotin ligase TurboID (TbID).
(B) Immunoblot using nuclear extract from AN3CA cells expressing TbID fused to ARID1A WT or mutant variants labeled with 50 μM biotin for 10 min.
(C) Schematic for TbID-TMT-MS experiments.
(D) Metascape enrichment analysis of downregulated biotinylated hits in ΔIDR1 and CBR compared to WT.
(E) Left, heatmap of normalized TMT peptide signal of BAF complex subunits; right, immunoblot of pan-BAF, cBAF, PBAF, and ncaBAF specific subunits in AN3CA cells expressing ARID1A WT or mutant TbID fusions.
(F) Normalized TMT signal heatmaps of clusters 2/3 motif enriched transcription factors from Figure 3A, Mediator complex and RNA polymerase II-associated proteins across the same conditions as in (E).
(G) Immunoblot of indicated proteins in AN3CA cells expressing ARID1A WT or mutant TbID fusions.
(H) Co-immunofluorescence studies performed on AN3CA cells rescued with ARID1A WT and mutant variants and visualized for cBAF (eGFP) and SMARCC1. Arrows indicate colocalization. Scale bars, 10 μm.
(I) Immunoblot for p300 in AN3CA cells expressing empty control, ARID1A WT-eGFP or mutants.

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(J) Molecular function (GO) enrichment analysis of proteins overlapping between IP-MS and proximity labeling experiments.

(K) Correlation of proximity labeling (TurboID) log₂-fold change and changes in DNA accessibility (log₂-fold change) at cluster 2 and cluster 3 sites from Figure 3A across human transcription factors. Factors corresponding to highly enriched motifs (from Figure 3G) are highlighted in red.

(L) mRNA expression (CPM) of key TF genes across ARID1A rescue conditions in AN3CA cells shown in Figure 4H. Error bars are standard deviation.
Figure S5. IDR s of FUS and DDX4 rescue cBAF condensation in cells but not chromatin occupancy, DNA accessibility, and gene expression, related to Figure 5

(A and B) Immunoblot for input and anti-HA IP experiments in AN3CA cells expressing HA-tagged or HA- and eGFP dual tagged ARID1A WT or FUS- and DDX-fusion mutant variants along with densitometry measurements.

(C) Saturation concentration of WT and mutant variants of ARID1A in AN3CA cells calculated using calibrated fluorescence imaging. PS, phase separation.

(D) Metaplots of HA (ARID1A), SMARCA4, SMARCC1, H3K27ac occupancy and DNA accessibility (ATAC) at clusters 2 and 3 from Figure 3A, across empty control, ARID1A WT, and mutant conditions.

(E) PCA of all ATAC-seq sites in AN3CA cells across empty control, ARID1A WT, and mutants.

(F) Volcano plots comparing global gene expression profiles (RNA-seq) of AN3CA cells expressing ARID1A mutants (ΔIDR1, FUSΔIDR, DDX4ΔIDR) compared to ARID1A WT with an adjusted p value cutoff of 0.01 and a log2-fold change threshold of 1.

(G) Normalized TMT-MS signal heatmaps of detected cBAF subunits from IP-MS experiments in AN3CA cells.

(H) Top, schematic of ARID1A WT and mutant TbID fusions; bottom, immunoblot using nuclear extract from AN3CA cells expressing ARID1A WT-TbID or mutant variants labeled with 50 μM biotin for 10 min.

(I) Volcano plots comparing biotinylated protein levels of cBAF in cells expressing ARID1A variants versus WT TbID fusions.

(J) Normalized TMT-MS signal heatmaps of detected Mediator complex subunits, RNA polymerase II-associated proteins and clusters 2, 3 motif enriched transcription factors from Figure 3A for indicated conditions.

(K) Immunofluorescence analysis of ARID1A and SMARCC1 in AN3CA cells expressing ARID1A WT-eGFP or indicated mutants. Scale bars, 10 μm.

(L) Immunoblot for p300 in AN3CA cells expressing ARID1A WT-eGFP or indicated mutants.
Figure S6. ARID1A IDR mutants affecting either phase separation or protein partner interactions result in convergent defects in cBAF complex chromatin targeting and activity, related to Figure 6
(A) Schematic for all IDRs across mSWI/SNF subunits.
(B) IDR sequence patterning conservation of ARID1A orthologs across eukaryotes.
(C) FRAP studies for WT and AQG scramble mutant sequences; half time of recovery, and mobility measurements are shown. n = 3 biological trials containing 15 cells each. Error bars represent standard deviation.
(D) Distance-to-TSS for clusters A–C from Figure 6H.
(E) HOMER TF motif analysis from cluster B sites in Figure 6H.
(F) PCA analyses of SMARCA4 sites, ATAC-seq, and RNA-seq datasets across empty and ARID1A WT or mutant variant conditions in AN3CA cells.
(G) Metaplots for HA (ARID1A) and ATAC-seq for clusters A–C from Figure 6H.
(H) Volcano plots reflecting changes in gene expression; significantly downregulated and upregulated genes are highlighted in blue and red, respectively.
(I) PCC correlation between ARID1A and p300 across WT and AQGscram conditions. ****p < 0.0001 by unpaired t test.
(J) Sequence grammar schematics of FUS and DDX4 IDRs, showing their abundance of aromatic residues but lack of blocky AQG patches.
Figure S7. Block deletion and NDD-associated mutations impact cBAF condensation and function genome-wide, related to Figure 7.

(A) NDD- and cancer-associated mutations (DECIPHER) plotted across distinct blocks within IDR1 of ARID1A/B. Types of mutations are indicated in legend.

(B) Left, FRAP curves for ARID1B-WT-eGFP, block 9 del, block 13 del, and NDD-associated mutant-containing cBAF complexes. Error bars represent standard deviation. n = 3 biological trials containing 15 cells each. p values were calculated using a one-way ANOVA test. ns, not statistically significant. Right, immobile fraction and T1/2 for all variants.

(C) Left, schematic of experiment to test the impact of SMARCA2/4 ATPase inhibition on cBAF condensate formation; middle, live-cell imaging of eGFP-tagged cBAF complexes containing WT ARID1A across indicated conditions. Scale bars, 10 μm.

(D) Clustered heatmaps reflecting chromatin occupancy of cBAF complexes marked by HA (ARID1B) and SMARCA4 and DNA accessibility (ATAC-seq) at cBAF-occupied sites.

(E) Distance-to-TSS plots for clusters defined in (D).

(F) PCA of ATAC-seq peaks for all ARID1A/B variants tested.

(G) PCA of ATAC-seq peaks for all ARID1/B variants tested.