Single-cell absolute contact probability detection reveals that chromosomes are organized by multiple, low-frequency yet specific interactions

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Abstract

At the kilo- to mega-base pair scales, eukaryotic genomes are partitioned into self-interacting modules or topologically associated domains (TADs) that associate to form nuclear compartments. Here, we combined high-content super-resolution microscopies with state-of-the-art DNA labeling methods to reveal the variability in the multiscale organization of the *Drosophila* genome. We found that association frequencies within TADs and between TAD borders are below ~10%, independently of TAD size, epigenetic state, or cell type. Critically, despite this large heterogeneity, we were able to visualize nanometer-sized epigenetic domains at the single-cell level. In addition, absolute contact frequencies within and between TADs were to a large extent defined by genomic distance, higher-order chromosome architecture, and epigenetic identity. We propose that TADs and compartments are organized by multiple, small frequency, yet specific interactions that are regulated by epigenetics and transcriptional state.

Introduction

The multi-scale organization of eukaryotic genomes defines and regulates cellular identity and tissue-specific functions [1–3]. At the kilo-megabase scales, genomes are partitioned into self-interacting modules or topologically associated domains (TADs) [4–6]. TAD formation seems to require specific looping interactions between TAD borders [7,8], while the association of TADs can lead to the formation of active/repressed compartments [9]. These structural levels were often seen as highly stable over time, however, recent single-cell Hi-C studies have reported different degrees of heterogeneity [10,11]. Other studies have reported that genomes also display stochasticity in their association with the nuclear lamina [12], in the formation of chromosome territory neighborhoods [13], and in gene kissing [14]. However, access to single-cell absolute probability contact measurements between loci and efficient detection of low-frequency, long-range interactions are essential to quantify the stochastic behaviour of chromatin at different scales.

Here, we combined high-content super-resolution microscopy with state-of-the-art DNA labeling methods to reveal the variability in the multiscale organization of chromosomes in different cell-types and developmental stages in *Drosophila*. Remarkably, we found that stochasticity is present at all levels of chromosome architecture, but is locally modulated by sequence and epigenetic state. Contacts between consecutive TAD borders were infrequent, independently of TAD size, epigenetic state, or cell type. Moreover, long-range contact probabilities between non-consecutive borders, the overall folding of chromosomes, and the clustering of epigenetic domains into active/repressed compartments displayed different degrees of stochasticity that globally depended on cell-type. Overall, our results show that contacts between and within TADs are rare, but can be epigenetically modulated to

give rise to different levels of higher-order genome organization. We anticipate that our results will guide new statistical models of genome architecture and will be a starting point for more sophisticated studies to understand how a highly variable, multi-scale organization can ensure the maintenance of stable transcriptional programs through cell division and during development.

Results

Multiple, low-frequency interactions mediate TAD assembly and insulation

A major mechanism for TAD formation in mammals involves the stable looping of TAD borders [8]. Stable looping between TAD borders was also recently proposed to be relevant for the maintenance of transcriptional programs during *Drosophila* development [7]. However, long-lived stable interactions are unlikely to allow for rapid responses in gene regulation. To study this apparent contradiction, we developed a method to dissect the changes in TADs organization at the single-cell level in three transcriptionally distinct *Drosophila* cell types: early (stage 5) and late (stage 16) embryos; and an immortalized cell line (S2). Pairs of TAD borders were labeled with Oligopaints libraries [15] and imaged using multi-color three-dimensional structured illumination microscopy (3D-SIM [16,17]) (Fig. 1a). TAD chromatin types were defined as active, repressed or inactive following the distribution of epigenetic marks (Supplementary Fig. 1a). Borders flanking TADs with different chromatin states were imaged in chromosomes 2L and 3R (Fig. 1b and Supplementary Fig. 1b), and appeared in microscopy as well defined foci (Fig. 1a) whose size increased proportionally with the genomic length of the library (Supplementary Fig. 1c). A large proportion of cells (60-70%) displayed a single foci, consistent with a high degree of homologous pairing independently of the ploidy of each cell type (Supplementary Fig. 1d) [18,19]. Distances between TAD borders were Gaussian distributed for all cell types (Figs. 1c and Supplementary Fig. 1f-h). Remarkably, the width of these distributions was comparable to the mean distance between TAD borders, revealing a high degree of structural variability, independently of TAD size or epigenetic state (Fig. 1c and Supplementary Fig. 1i). Further, the linear relation between dispersion and physical distance (Supplementary Fig. 1i-j) suggests that this variability is regulated

by the polymer properties of the chromatin fiber.

Next, we quantified the absolute contact probability between consecutive

borders by integrating the probability distance distributions below 120 nm (99%

confidence interval obtained from single library two-color control experiments, Fig. 1c

and Supplementary Fig. 1e). Notably, the contact probability between consecutive

TAD borders was below 10%, independently of cell type or of the epigenetic state of

the TAD being flanked (Fig. 1d). Consistently, Hi-C contact frequencies between

consecutive TAD borders *vs.* random genomic loci were indistinguishable (Fig. 1e).

These results, combined with the lack of enrichment of CTCF and cohesin at TAD

borders in *Drosophila* [20], suggest that TAD assembly does not involve stable loops in

flies, but rather can be explained by an 'insulation-attraction' mechanism [21]. This

model may provide an alternative explanation for the formation and maintenance of

more than 50% of metazoan TADs whose boundaries are not formed by looping

interactions as defined by Hi-C experiments [8].

In agreement with this model, absolute contact probabilities within TADs and

between their borders were similar (Fig. 1f and Supplementary Fig. 1k), with

inactive/repressed TADs displaying higher contact probabilities than active TADs (7 ±

1% *vs.* 2.7 ± 1%). Contact probabilities within TADs were in all cases considerably

higher than with neighboring TADs (Fig. 1f), indicating that stochasticity is locally

modulated at the TAD level. Of note, contacts across TAD borders were not

uncommon (~3%, Fig. 1f), implying frequent violations of boundary insulation at TAD

borders. These results indicate that confinement of chromatin into TADs may require

only small differences in absolute contact probabilities (~2 fold). Thus, condensation

of chromatin into TADs may arise from a multitude of low-frequency, yet specific,

intra-TAD contacts.

 Infrequent, long-range interactions modulate chromatin folding

Recent Hi-C studies suggested that stable clustering between neighboring

active TAD borders regulates transcriptional programs that persist during

development [7]. We directly tested this hypothesis by measuring the contact

probabilities between non-consecutive TAD borders (Fig. 2a). Hi-C contact

frequencies among TAD borders increased nonlinearly with absolute contact

probabilities (Fig. 2a and Supplementary Fig. 2a), with both exponential and power-

law empirical models fitting the data equally well. Our results highlight the ability of

Hi-C to enhance the detection of high probability contacts and also suggest the need

to relate Hi-C data to physical distances with a nonlinear relationship. This would

allow a better discrimination of low-frequency contacts (1-3%, Fig. 2a) such as those

observed within and between TADs (Fig. 1f) and a more realistic conversion of Hi-C

maps into 3D folded structures.

Contact probabilities between non-consecutive TAD borders were in all cases

low (<9 %, Fig. 2b) and decreased monotonically with physical and genomic distance

following a power law behaviour (Fig. 2b and Supplementary Fig. 2b-c). Notably, the

decay exponents were different between cell types (Fig. 2b and Supplementary Fig.

2b), indicating that levels of stochasticity are globally modulated between cell-types,

possibly reflecting cell-type specific transcriptional programs. To test whether this

tendency held genome-wide, we calculated the ratio between normalized Hi-C

contact maps of embryos and S2 cells. For all chromosomes, embryos displayed a

higher relative contact frequency than S2 cells below a few Mb (Fig. 2c and

Supplementary Fig. 2d), in accordance with our microscopy results. Furthermore, the

frequency of contacts between non-consecutive TAD borders genome-wide was

similar to that of random genomic loci for both cell types (Fig. 2d). As the large

majority of TAD borders in *Drosophila* contain active chromatin [22,23], our results are

inconsistent with stable preferential looping of active borders [7,24], and rather indicate

that these contacts are rare or short-lived. This interpretation is consistent with the

transient assembly and disassembly of transcription clusters in human cells [25].

Next, we sought to determine if this modulation in contact probabilities resulted

from cell-type specific changes in the local folding properties of the chromatin fiber.

To this end, we measured the end-to-end distance ($_3$) for active or

inactive/repressed chromatin domains of varying genomic (   ) lengths. For all cell

and chromatin types, we observed a power-law scaling behavior ($_3$,

Fig. 2e-f and Supplementary Fig. 2e-f) with scaling exponents being higher for active

than for repressed domains, consistent with previous measurements in Kc_{167} cells [26].

Theoretical studies of polymer physics suggest that the exponent of polymers with

random coil behaviour is ½, while that of an equilibrium globule is ⅓ (Mirny 2011).

Thus, our power-law exponents situate between these two extremes, suggesting an

intermediate behaviour. Remarkably, scaling exponents were considerably lower in

embryos than in S2 cells, for both types of chromatin. TAD border localization is

conserved between cell types [22,27], however, our results show that TAD conformation

and structural heterogeneity strongly depend on cell type. This cell-type specificity in

TAD organization may result from the interplay between the degree of chromatin

compaction and the frequency of stochastic long-range interactions.

Modulated stochasticity regulates cell-specific chromosome compaction

To quantitatively dissect stochasticity at larger genomic scales, we labeled 69

quasi-equidistant TAD borders encompassing 90% of chromosome 3R (Fig. 3a and

Supplementary Fig. 3a-b). Tens of foci were resolved in embryonic and S2 cells by

3D-SIM (Fig. 3a). The paired probability distance distribution $p(r)$ between any two

foci exhibited moderate single-cell variations (Fig. 3b) but were considerably different

between cell types (Fig. 3b and Supplementary Fig.3c). The chromosome elongation

and mean volume, obtained from the maximum pairwise distance (D_{max}) and the

radius of gyration (R_g, Fig. 3c), decreased to almost half when comparing S2 and

late embryonic cells, while early embryonic cells adopted intermediate values (Fig.

3b).

From the number of labeled barriers (69) and the pairing frequency of

homologous chromosomes (Supplementary Fig. 1c), we can estimate a maximum of

90-100 resolvable foci/cell in the absence of any long-range interactions

(Supplementary Fig. 3). Our imaging results show an average of 89 ± 28 foci/cell for

S2 cells (Fig. 3b), confirming our predictions and consistent with a very low frequency

of long-range interactions for this cell type (see discussion in Supplementary Fig. 3).

Surprisingly, in early and late embryos the number of observed foci was considerably

reduced (51 ± 20 for early and 36 ± 13, respectively, and Fig. 3b), revealing higher

probabilities of long-range interactions for these cell-types. The lower number of foci

detected was not associated with the smaller volume of embryonic cell nuclei causing

the probes to be closer than the resolution limit of 3D-SIM microscopy

(Supplementary Fig. 3e). Furthermore, for each cell type, the number of foci

displayed very low or nonexistent correlation with nucleus size (Supplementary Fig.

3f).

Reinforcing these findings, changes in Hi-C contact frequency of S2 *vs.* late

embryo for the 69 TAD borders were notable in the sub-Mb scale (200-600 kb), and

they extended to genomic distances as high as ~10 Mb (Fig. 3d), suggesting that

changes in chromosome compaction between cell types arise from an increased

frequency of interactions affecting all genomic scales. All in all, these data indicate

that chromosome folding is highly variable, with mild, cell-type specific increases in

the probability of long-range contacts being sufficient to produce large changes in the

manner in which chromosomes occupy the nuclear space (Fig. 3c).

Stochastic nanoscale organization of epigenetic marks

Inter- and intra-chromosomal Hi-C maps have revealed that active and

repressed TADs may associate to form two types of compartments (namely A and B)

[9,28]. To study this higher-order level of organization in single cells and at the single-

molecule level, we immunolabeled active and repressive epigenetic marks (histones

H3K4me3 and H3K27me3, respectively) and performed multicolor direct stochastic

optical reconstruction microscopy (dSTORM) [29–31], a method that provides a higher

spatial resolution than 3D-SIM. dSTORM imaging revealed that active and repressive

histone marks distributed non-homogeneously across the cell nucleus, forming

discrete compartments of tens to hundreds of nanometers for all cell types (Fig. 4a

and Supplementary Fig. 4a). Repressed and active chromatin marks were strictly

segregated at the nanoscale for all cell types, as revealed by coordinate-based co-

localization analysis (aCBC[32], Fig. 4b). These findings were confirmed by

independent colocalization methods and by additional controls using doubly-labeled

nuclear factor and non-colocalizing epigenetic marks (Supplementary Figs. 4b-d).

Interestingly, active marks were often observed at borders of/or demarcating large

repressed compartments, mirroring their alternating one-dimensional genomic

distributions (Fig. 4c).

To investigate if active and repressed compartments also varied among cell

types and development, we resorted to one-color dSTORM using Alexa 647 as the

fluorophore of choice (results were similar when using other fluorophores,

Supplementary Fig. 4e). Compartments were detected using a Voronoi diagram-

based algorithm (Figs. 4d-e) [33]. In all cases, active compartments were smaller than

repressive compartments in agreement with two-color dSTORM observations (Figs.

4c-e and Supplementary Figs. 5a-b). Interestingly, for both marks, the number of

compartments and their sizes showed variations between single cells of the same

type (Supplementary Figs. 5c-d). To further evaluate if changes in compartment sizes

correlated with changes in local chromatin folding, we quantified the density of single

molecule detections in active and repressed compartments. Notably, the local density

of compartments was higher for both types of marks in embryonic cells than for S2

cells (Supplementary Fig. 6a), consistent with our previous findings (Figs. 2e-f) and

with compartment contact density from Hi-C counts (Supplementary Fig. 6b).

To study whether the nanoscale organization of repressive and active marks

reflected the epigenomic domain organization from ensemble genome-wide methods,

we predicted the physical sizes of epigenomic domains (Supplementary Fig. 6c) and

compared them with those obtained by direct observation. The predicted size

distributions failed to recover the largest compartments observed by microscopy

(Figs. 4f-g and Supplementary Fig. 6c). We reasoned that large compartments are

likely to arise from clustering of smaller epigenetic domains ('clustered

compartments').

To quantify this phenomenon, we calculated the percentage of compartments

not accounted for by the distribution of epigenetic domains. This percentage of

clustered compartments was below <10% for embryonic cells and almost absent in

S2 cells (Fig. 4h). The latter is consistent with higher Hi-C contact frequency between

H3K27me3 domains in embryos that in S2 cells (Fig. 4i). Repressive and active

compartments showed different degrees of clustering (Figs. 4f-h), indicating that

stochasticity can be specifically modulated by transcriptional/epigenetic states. This

is likely due to the different mechanisms of clustering formation at play, such as

Polycomb regrouping of repressed genes [34] *vs.* transient interactions of active genes

[35,36]. It is important to note, however, that the large majority of compartments (~90%)

could be accounted for by the predicted distributions of epigenomic domains,

consistent with the majority of the epigenetic domains described by genome-wide

methods existing at the single-cell level. These results are consistent with the cell-

type specific higher-order organization of chromatin arising from stochastic contacts

between chromosomal regions harboring similar epigenetic marks, likely reflecting

cell-type specific transcriptional programs.

Discussion

In this work, we showed that genome organization in *Drosophila* is not driven

by stable or long-lived interactions but rather relies on the formation of transient, low-

frequency contacts whose frequencies are modulated at different levels. Stochasticity

is modulated locally at the TAD level by specific intra-TAD interactions, and globally

at the nuclear level by interactions of TADs of the same epigenetic type.

Furthermore, stochasticity is also regulated between cell-types. These modulated

stochasticities reveal a novel mechanism for the spatial organization of genomes.

These pieces of evidence could be critical for a more accurate understanding of how

different cell types interpret genomic and epigenomic states to produce different

phenotypes. Dynamic measurements of chromosome organization with high

coverage will be needed in future to further explore the origin of heterogeneity in

chromosome architecture and to determine whether genome organization is a

stationary or a fully stochastic process.

In mammals, a large proportion of consecutive TAD borders are looped by

specific interactions apparently mediated by CTCF and cohesin [8,37,38]. Recent reports

suggested that this mechanism may also be at play in *Drosophila* [7,24]. Our results,

however, provide compelling evidence that looping of consecutive TADs borders in

Drosophila is rare at the single-cell level. These observations, supported by recent

studies showing that cohesin-enriched loop anchors in *Drosophila* are found within

TADs rather than at TAD borders [39,40], are against TAD boundaries being the bases

of stable chromatin loops. Thus, the lack of frequent interactions between TAD

borders could be consistent with a model where TADs arise from a dynamic balance

between cohesin-mediated loop extrusion [41], the blocking of that movement by

architectural proteins, and factors that may load or remove cohesin [42,43]. In

Drosophila, however, CTCF and cohesin are not found enriched at TAD borders.

Thus, we envision that other factors (e.g. Beaf-32 and CP190/chromator instead of

CTCF and cohesin) could play a role at looping and dynamically extruding distant

DNA fragments within the same TAD. In addition, active marks may help determine

the properties of TAD boundaries [23] while other epigenetic marks could play a role in

the formation of polycomb and inactive TADs [44]. Similar epigenetic mechanisms may

even play a role in TAD folding in mammals, consistent with the observation that

CTCF depletion leads only to minor changes in TAD organization [45]. Importantly, our

data provides quantitative estimates of the stochasticity and absolute frequencies of

interactions within TADs, imposing important constraints on any model of TAD

formation in *Drosophila*.

Recent reports suggested that TAD borders enriched in housekeeping genes

form stable 3D co-localization patterns that persist during development [7]. In contrast,

we found that 3D contacts between TAD borders are rare and highly stochastic in all

cell types investigated. These results are consistent with recent single-nucleus-Hi-C

studies reporting that TAD formation in highly stochastic in mammals [11], and with the

rapid association and dissociation of transcription foci [25] rather than with stable

transcription factories.

Most current spatial models of genome architecture rely on interpreting

interaction maps from chromosome conformation capture based experiments, which

seize relative frequencies of interactions between loci at close spatial proximity.

However, translation of relative contact frequencies into spatial distances is

challenging. Our direct single-cell measurements of absolute contact probabilities, full

distance distributions, and dissection of low frequency events for different chromatin

and cell types will complement existing methods to refine the next generation of

statistical models of genome architecture. Our results call for more sophisticated

studies to reveal how a highly stochastic genome organization can ensure the

maintenance of stable transcriptional programs through cell division and during

development.

Methods

Cell culture and embryonic tissue preparation

Drosophila S2 cells were obtained from the *Drosophila* Genomics Resource Center.

S2 cells were grown in serum-supplemented (10%) Schneider's S2 medium at 25 °C.

Oregon-R w[1118] fly stocks were maintained at room temperature with natural

light/dark cycle and raised in standard cornmeal yeast medium. Following a pre-

collection period of at least 1 hour, fly embryos were collected on yeasted 0.4%

acetic acid agar plates at and incubated at 25 C until they reached the desired

developmental stage: 2-3 h or 12-14 h (total developmental time) for early for late

embryos, respectively. Embryos were mechanically broken and immediately fixed as

described[46] by using 4% PFA in PBS for 10 min at room temperature (RT). S2 cells

were allowed to adhere to a poly-l-lysine coverslip for 30 min in a covered 35-mm cell

culture dish before 4% PFA fixation.

Immunostaining

Cells were permeabilized with 0.5% Triton X-100 for 10 min and blocked with 5% of

bovine serum albumin (BSA) for 15 min at RT. Primary antibodies anti-H3K27me3

(pAb-195-050, Diagenode and ab6002, Abcam), anti-H3K4me3 (cat#04-745,

Millipore and ab1012, Abcam), anti-Polycomb[47] and anti-Beaf-32[48] (made from rabbit

by Eurogentec) were coupled to Alexa Fluor 647 or Cy3b as described elsewhere[32].

Antibodies were used at a final concentration of 10 µg ml^{-1} in PBS and 1% BSA.

Coverslips were incubated overnight at 4 °C in a humidified chamber and washed 3

times with PBS before introducing fiducial markers diluted 1/4000 (Tetraspeck,

#10195142, FisherScientific). Coverslips were mounted on slides with 100 µl wells

(#2410, Glaswarenfabrik Karl Hecht GmbH & Co KG) in dSTORM buffer composed

of PBS, glucose oxidase (G7141-50KU, Sigma) at 2.5 mg ml^{-1}, catalase at 0.2 mg ml^{-}

^{1} (#C3155-50MG, Sigma), 10% glucose and 50 mM of β-mercaptoethylamine (MEA,

#M9768-5G, Sigma). Coverslips were sealed with duplicating silicone (Twinsil,

Rotec).

Oligopaint libraries

Oligopaint libraries were constructed from the Oligopaint public database

(http://genetics.med.harvard.edu/oligopaints). All libraries consisted of 42mer

sequences discovered by OligoArray2.1 run with the following settings: -n 30 -l 42 -L

42 -D 1000 -t 80 -T99 -s 70 -x 70 -p 35 -P 80 -m 'GGGG;CCCC;TTTTT;AAAAA' -g

44. Oligonucleotide for libraries 1-18 and BX-C were ordered from CustomArray

(Bothell, WA). The procedure used to synthesize Oligopaint probes is described

below. Chr3R-69 borders oligonucleotides were purchased from MYcroarray (Ann

Arbour, MI). Oligopaint probes for this library were synthesized using the same

procedure as for the other libraries except for the initial emulsion PCR step.

Secondary, fluorescently-labeled oligonucleotides were synthesized by Integrated

DNA Technologies (IDT; Coralville, IA for Alexa488) and by Eurogentec (Angers,

France for Cy3b). See Supplementary Table 1 for a list of Oligopaint probe sets used

for libraries 1-18. Sequences for secondary oligonucleotides and PCR primers are

described below (Supplementary Tables 2-4). Details for the methods used for probe

synthesis are provided in Online Methods.

Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH)

To prepare sample slides containing fixed S2 cells for FISH, S2 cells were allowed to

adhere to a poly-l-lysine coverslip for 1h in a covered 35-mm cell culture dish at 25C.

Slides were then washed in PBS, fixed 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 10 min,

rinsed 3 times for 5 min in PBS, permeabilized 10min with 0.5% Triton, rinsed in PBS,

incubated with 0.1M HCl for 10min, washed in 3 times for 1 min with 2X saline-

sodium citrate - 0.1% Tween-20 (2XSSCT) and incubated in 2XSSCT/50%

formamide (v/v) for at least 30min. Then, probes were prepared by mixing 20µl of

hybridization buffer FHB (50% Formamide, 10% Dextransulfat, 2X SSC, Salmon

Sperm DNA 0.5 mg ml^{-1}), 0.8 µL of RNAse A, 30 pmol of primary probe and 30 pmol

of secondary oligo. 12µl of this mix were added to a slide before adding and sealing

with rubber cement the coverslips with cells onto the slide. Probes and cells are

finally co-denaturated 3 min at 78 C before hybridization overnight at 37 C. The

next day, the slides were washed for 3 times for 5 min in 2X SSC at 37 C, then for 3

times for 5 min in 0.1X SSC at 45 C. Finally, they were stained with 0.5 µg ml^{-1} of

DAPI for 10 min, washed with PBS, mounted in Vectashield and sealed with nail

polish. For a more detailed protocol, see [49].

Image acquisition and post-processing of 3D-SIM data

Samples were prepared as described above and mounted on an OMX V3

microscope (Applied Precision Inc.) equipped with a 100X/1.4 oil PlanSApo objective

(Olympus) and three emCCD cameras. 405 nm, 488 nm and 561 nm excitation

lasers lines were used to excite DAPI, Alexa488 and Cy3b, respectively. Each

channel was acquired sequentially. A transmission image was also acquired to

control for cell morphology. For each channel, a total of 1455 images made of 97

different Z-planes separated by 125 nm were acquired, in order to acquire a stack of

12 µm. Three different angles (60°, 0° and +60°) as well as five phase steps were

used to reconstruct 3D-SIM images using softWoRx v5.0 (Applied Precision Inc.).

Final voxel size was 39.5 nm in the lateral (xy) and 125 nm in the axial (z) directions,

respectively, for a final 3D stack volume of ~40 x 40 x 12 µm. Multicolor TetraSpeck

beads (100 nm in diameter, Invitrogen) were used to measure x, y and z offsets,

rotation about the z-axis and magnification differences between fluorescence

channels. These corrections were applied to the reconstructed images. The same

beads were used to validate the reconstruction process ensuring a final resolution of

~120 nm in xy and ~300 nm in z at 525 nm of emission wavelength. 3D-SIM raw and

reconstructed images were analyzed with SIMCheck ImageJ Plug-in [50]. Acquisition

parameters were optimized to obtain the best signal-to-noise ratio avoiding

photobleaching between the different angular, phase, and axial acquisitions.

3D nuclei segmentation from 3D-SIM data

3D-SIM images were analyzed employing homemade software written in Matlab. In

order to identify nuclear shells, nuclei are first segmented by manually selecting

rectangular regions of interest (ROIs) of the DAPI signal in the XY-plane and keeping

all the Z-planes and then a low-pass filter is applied to the DAPI intensities so that

only the large-scale information (i.e. nuclear shape) is kept. For each plane of the 3D

ROIs, an intensity threshold is computed as described by Snell et al. [51] in order to

distinguish voxels inside or outside the nucleus. The average intensity threshold

calculated from the threshold of the single planes is used to identify the complete

nuclear shell. After nuclei segmentation, foci were identified by calculating, for each

channel separately, the maximum entropy threshold of the fluorescence intensities in

the 3D ROIs. By using the intensity thresholds the 3D ROIs are finally binarized

(voxels above threshold are set to 1 while the others to 0) and the different foci

identified as groups of connected voxels. From the group of connected voxels the

center of mass was estimated with subpixel resolution. Distance between TBs was

estimated as the linear distance between the closest foci imaged in two different

emission channels.

Image acquisition of two-color dSTORM data

Super-resolution experiments were carried out in a custom-made inverted

microscope employing an oil-immersion objective (Plan-Apocromat, 100x, 1.4NA oil

DIC, Zeiss) mounted on a z-axis piezoelectric stage (P-721.CDQ, PICOF, PI). For 2D

imaging, a 1.5x telescope was used to obtain a final imaging magnification of 150 fold

corresponding to a pixel size of 105 nm. Three lasers were used for excitation/photo-

activation: 405 nm (OBIS, LX 405-50, Coherent Inc.), 488 nm (OBIS, LX 488-50,

Coherent Inc.), 561 nm (OBIS, LX 561-50, Coherent Inc.), and 640 nm (OBIS, LX

640-100, Coherent Inc.). Laser lines were expanded, and coupled into a single beam

using dichroic mirrors (427, 552 and 613 nm LaserMUXTM, Semrock). An acousto-

optic tunable filter (AOTFnc-400.650-TN, AA opto-electronics) was used as to

modulate laser intensity. Light was circularly polarized using an achromatic quarter

wave plate (QWP). Two achromatic lenses were used to expanded the excitation

laser and an additional dichroic mirror (zt405/488/561/638rpc, Chroma) to direct it

towards the back focal plane of the objective. Fluorescence light was spectrally

filtered with emission filters (ET525/50m, ET600/50m and ET700/75m, Chroma

Technology) and imaged on an EMCCD camera (iXon X3 DU-897, Andor

Technologies). The microscope was equipped with a motorized stage (MS-2000,

ASI) to translate the sample perpendicularly to the optical axis. To ensure the stability

of the focus during the acquisition, a home-made autofocus system was built. An 785

nm laser beam (OBIS, LX 785-50, Coherent Inc.) was expanded twice and directed

towards the objective lens by a dichroic mirror (z1064rdc-sp, Chroma). The reflected

IR beam was redirected following the same path than the incident beam and guided

to a CCD detector (Pixelfly, Cooke) by a polarized beam splitter cube (PBS). Camera,

lasers and filter wheel were controlled with software written in Labview [52].

For image acquisition, on average of 30,000 frames (per detection channel in two-

color acquisitions) were recorded at a rate of 50 ms/frame. Continuous excitation and

activation was employed for all fluorophores employed in this work with powers as

follows: 1 kW cm^{-2} at 641 nm (for AF647), 0.8–1.2 kW cm^{-2} at 561 nm (for mEos2),

and 0–0.1 kW cm^{-2} at 405 nm for activation. The intensity of activation was

progressively increased throughout the acquisition to ensure a constant amount of

simultaneously emitting fluorophores within the labeled structures. These excitation

powers were optimized to ensure single-molecule detection, despite the large nuclear

density of epigenetic compartments. More technical details and the method used to

ensure single-molecule detection are described elsewhere [32,53].

Post-processing and Analysis of two-color dSTORM data

Unless stated otherwise, all homemade software and routines were developed in

Matlab. Before further processing, super-resolution image quality was quantitatively

assessed by using NanoJ-SQUIRREL [54]. Next, single-molecule localizations were

obtained by using Multiple Target Tracing (MTT) [55]. Localization coordinates were

further processed using SMLM_2C, a custom software written in Matlab [32].

Fluorescent beads were used to correct for drift and chromatic aberrations. Lateral

drift was corrected with 5 ± 3 nm precision as previously described [52]. Chromatic

aberration correction was performed as described in [32,56]. Samples with abnormal

drift or lesser precision of drift or chromatic aberration correction were discarded.

Clustering of localizations was performed as described in Cattoni et al. [53].

Colocalization of single-molecule detections was performed by using a custom

implementation of the Coordinate-based colocalization (CBC) analysis [57] adapted for

whole-cell automated analysis [32]. Three additional methods were employed as

controls: pixel, Pearson, and Manders correlation. For the latter, two-color digital

images were reconstructed from the localization using standard procedures [52] and

then used to plot the correlation between pixel intensities (pixel correlation analysis),

or to calculate the Pearson or Manders correlation coefficients [58,59].

Analysis of one-color dSTORM data

Single-molecule localizations are converted into a Voronoi diagram using a

modified version of the Voronoi tesselation algorithm of Levet et al. [33]. Compartment

segmentation is directly calculated from the Voronoi diagram using three steps. First,

densities of each polygon are calculated as the inverse of their area. Densities are

then thresholded using the general criteria of Levet et al. [33]. Using this criterion, in

which the threshold is determined by the average localization density, a random

distribution of localizations did not provide any segmented polygon. Finally, polygons

that have a density higher than the threshold and that are touching each other are

merged to define the compartment outline. Compartment sizes are obtained by

interpolating each segmented compartment on a grid of 5 nm size and calculating

their equivalent diameter using standard morphological operations. Probability

density functions in compartment size histograms are calculated such that the area of

each bar is the relative number of observations and that the sum of the bar areas is

equal to 1.

Analysis of genome-wide data

Chromatin states were defined according to the enrichment in the percentages of H3K4me3 and H3K27me3/PC as described in Supplementary Fig. 1. Calculation of the genomic size distributions of H3K27me3 and H3K4me3 domains (Supplementary Fig. 6) was performed as follows: (1) ChIP-chip/seq computed peaks were downloaded from ModEncode (ftp://data.modencode.org/D.melanogaster/) [60]. Datasets used are described in the Online Methods (Supplementary Table 5). (2) Peak positions and intensities were used to resample the data and produce a continuous signal as a function of genomic position. (3) This signal was thresholded with a threshold of 0.1 of the log of the maximum intensity signal, ensuring that even peaks with very low intensity were retained. (4) Domains were defined as continuous segments extending for more than 2 bp with non-zero intensity. (5) Domains that were closer than 1 kb were fused together. This procedure was robust to calculate domain size distributions above 3kb (Supplementary Fig. 6). (6) Finally, we estimated physical domain sizes from their genomic length as follows. The size of each genomic domain in bp was converted into nanometers using the empirical power law that relates genomic sizes to physical distances (Figs. 2e-f). The parameters of the power-law depended on chromatin type (active or repressed) and on cell type (S2, early or late embryo), and are shown in the insets of Figs. 2e-f. After repeating this process for all genomic domain sizes, we obtained the distribution of domains sizes in nm for a specific chromatin type and cell type (Fig. 4f-g).

Clustering of domains of different epigenetic marks was defined as the ratio between the number of clusters of sizes larger than 150 nm obtained from Chip-seq *vs.* microscopy imaging. Changes in this threshold did not affect our main conclusions.

In-situ Hi-C data processing and normalization

Hi-C data was processed using an in-house pipeline based on TADbit [61]. First, quality

of the reads was checked using the *quality_plot()* function in TADbit, which is similar

to the tests performed by the FastQC program with adaptations for Hi-C datasets.

Next, the reads are mapped following a fragment-based strategy as implemented in

TADbit where each side of the sequenced read was mapped in full length to the

reference genome (dm3). After this step, if a read was not uniquely mapped, we

assumed the read was chimeric due to ligation of several DNA fragments. We next

searched for ligation sites, discarding those reads in which no ligation site was found.

Remaining reads were split as often as ligation sites were found. Individual split read

fragments were then mapped independently. Next, we used the TADbit filtering

module to remove non-informative contacts and to create contact matrices. From the

resulting contact matrices, low quality bins (those presenting low contacts numbers)

were removed as implemented in TADbit's *filter_columns()* function. Next, the

matrices were normalized using the ICE algorithm [62]. The normalization iterations

stopped when the biases were diverting less than 10% of the previous values or a

max of 10 iterations. Finally, all matrices were corrected to achieve an average

content of one interaction per cell. All parameters in TADbit were kept at default

values.

The resulting late-embryo and S2 Hi-C interaction maps (at 10kb resolution) of the

different replicates for each experiment were highly correlated (correlation coefficient

from genomic distances ranging from 10Kb to 20Mb were 0.99 to 0.75 and 0.95 to

0.45, respectively) and thus were further merged into the final datasets with more

than 282 and 210 million valid pairs each (Supplementary Table 6).

Data availability

543 The Hi-C data reported in this study is available at the Gene Expression Omnibus

544 (GEO) repository under accession code GSE104961. Computer code and other data

545 that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author

546 upon reasonable request.

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Author contribution

D.I.C, A.M.C.G. M.G. and M.N. designed experiments and conducted research. A.V.

J.B.F., M.G. and M.N. developed software for image analysis. D.I.C, A.M.C.G., A.V.

and F.B. designed Oligopaint probes. F.B. performed fly handling. M.D. and M.A.M-

R. performed Hi-C bioinformatics analysis. D.C., C.H. and S.D. synthesized and

purified oligopaints libraries and performed S2 cells handling. D.I.C, A.M.C.G. M.G.,

G.C. and M.N. wrote the manuscript. All the authors reviewed and commented the

data.

Competing   financial   interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

 Figure legends

Figure 1. TAD organization arises from modulation of stochasticity.

(a) Top, region of Hi-C contact matrix of chromosome 2L. Black dotted line

demarcates a single TAD and pink and cyan boxes represent the Oligopaint

labelled TAD borders (TB). Chromatin epigenetic state is indicated at the

bottom using the color code of panel b. Bottom, representative three-color 3D-

SIM image in two different orientations. DAPI, TB2 and TB3 are shown in gray,

pink and cyan respectively. Scalebar = 1 µm for main image. 5x amplification

of selected region is depicted in the insets.

(b) Oligopaint libraries in chromosomes 2L and 3R employed in this study (TB1-

16 at TAD borders and IT17-19 within TADs). Colored boxes display the

chromatin type of TADs as defined in Supplementary Fig. 1a-b. Red: active,

blue: repressed, black: inactive. Dotted colored lines indicate the combinations

of libraries measured.

(c) 3D distance distributions between TB2-TB2 and TB2-TB3. Mean colocalization

resolution, estimated from two-color labelling of a single border (40 nm,

vertical blue dashed line). Blue and black solid lines represent Gaussian

fittings. Absolute contact probability between libraries was obtained from the

integral of the area of the Gaussian fitting (shaded gray) below 120 nm (see

Supplementary Fig. 1e). N = 161 and 556 for TB2-TB2 and TB2-TB3

respectively, from more than three biological replicates.

(d) Absolute contact probability between consecutive borders *vs.* genomic

distance. Chromatin state of TADs is color-coded as defined in panel 1b. Error

bars represent SEM.

(e) Normalized Hi-C counts between consecutive TAD borders (circles) and random loci (solid gray line) as a function of genomic distance for S2 and late embryonic cells. Matrix resolution = 10kb. Two biological replicates for each cell-type were performed.

(f) Schematic representation of contact probability between and within TADs (solid colored lines) for late embryo and S2 cells at the chromosomal region shaded in panel b. Sizes of TADs (grey shaded triangles) is proportional to genomic length (scale bar on top). Chromatin type is indicated at the bottom. Thickness of the lines and color indicate absolute contact probability. Dotted lines indicate inter-TADs contacts. Early embryo measurements are depicted in Supplementary Fig. 1j. Numbers of cells for each combination is provided in Supplementary Fig. 1f-h.

Figure 2. Long-range absolute contact probability is specifically modulated for each cell type

(a) Left, a schematic representation of pairwise distance measurements between consecutive and non-consecutive borders, with color code and positions as in Fig. 1b. Right, normalized Hi-C counts *vs*. microscopy absolute contact probability for consecutive and non-consecutive domain borders for embryo and S2 cells. Solid black and red lines represent exponential and a power-law fits respectively. Matrix resolution = 10kb. N for microscopy pairwise measurements is provided in Supplementary Figs. 1f-h. N = 2 for Hi-C data, from at least three and two biological replicates, respectively.

(b) Absolute contact probability *vs*. mean physical distance between probes for consecutive and non-consecutive TAD borders (filled circles). Solid lines

represent power-law fittings with scaling exponent described in Supplementary

Fig. 2b. Triangles represent measurements within TADs.

(c) Matrix of relative frequency of normalized Hi-C counts for late embryo *vs.* S2

cells for chromosome 2L. Contact frequency ratio is color coded according to

scale bar. Matrix resolution = 50kb. N=4, biological replicates.

(d) Log-log plot of normalized Hi-C counts between TADs borders *vs.* genomic

distance for embryo and S2 cells. Solid lines represent the average contact

frequency for randomly chosen positions in the genome. Matrix resolution =

10kb. N=2, biological replicates.

(e-f) Log-log plot of the mean physical distance vs. genomic length for (e) active

and (f) inactive/repressed chromatin domains for different cell types. Mean

distance values were normalized by the pre-exponential factor from the

power-law fit of each dataset (Supplementary Figs. 2d-e). Solid lines show the

power-law fits, with the scaling exponents β shown in the panel. Circles and

triangls are depicted as described in panel 2b. Error bars represent SEM. N >

140 for each data point, from more than three biological replicates (see

Supplementary Fig. 1)

Figure 3. Cell-type specific frequency of long-range contacts defines

chromosome folding in 3D space.

(a) Left, schematic representation of 69 domain borders labelled by a single

Oligopaint library (Lib-69) in Chr. 3R. Each probe spanned ~20 kb, probes

were separated by 320 kb in average (see Supplementary Fig. 3a-b). Right,

representative two-color 3D-SIM images for all studied cell types. DAPI signal

(white) and Lib-69 (pink) are shown. Scalebar = 200 nm.

(b) Left panel, single-cell probability distance distribution $p(r)$ between all pairs of foci imaged by 3D-SIM. White line represents the population averaged $p(r)$ frequency. Detailed R_g and D_{max} values are shown in Supplementary Fig. 3. D_{max} is defined as the distance that comprises <97% of the area under the $p(r)$ function. Right panel, number of foci per cell for each condition with mean population values shown as solid vertical lines and indicated above. N = 180, from more than three biological replicates.

(c) Schematic representation of the chromosome structure for each cell type. Solid grey line represent the chromatin fiber and pink circles represent domain borders with sizes proportional to the number of regrouped borders.

(d) Hi-C contact frequencies of S2 *vs.* late embryo cells for all the pairwise combinations of the 69 borders. Solid red line represents the relation expected if frequencies of interactions between the 69 borders were equal between cell-types. Insets depicts chromosome 3R and different combinations of genomic distances and frequencies of interaction between borders. Matrix resolution = 50kb. N=4, from at least three biological replicates.

Figure 4. Chromatin reorganization between cell types is modulated by stochastic clustering between epigenetic domains.

(a) Two-color dSTORM image of active (H3K4me3, blue) and repressive (H3K27me3, red) chromatin marks in a representative S2 cell. Images of early and late embryo are displayed in Supplementary Fig. 4a and panel c. Scalebar = 1 µm

(b) Quantification of co-occurrence (CA>0.5) between active and repressive chromatin using aCBC [32]. Boxplots of CAs for H3K4me3 and H3K27me3 are shown in the upper panel and lower panels, respectively.

(c) Representative zoomed images of two-color dSTORM for the three cell-types investigated. Black arrows indicate the localization of small active chromatin domains in the periphery of large repressive domains. Lower panel display active and repressive marks Chip-Seq enrichment profiles for late embryo. Scalebar = 200 nm.

(d-e) dSTORM rendered images of Alexa-647-labelled **(d)** H3K27me3 and **(e)** H3K4me3. Images show density maps computed from the area of the polygons obtained from the Voronoï diagram with scale defined on top. Scalebar = 1 μm. Zoomed regions display detected compartments (highlighted with different colors). Scalebar = 200 nm Additional, images for all cell types and chromatin marks are displayed in Supplementary Fig. 5a-b.

(f-g) Population based distribution of epigenetic domains sizes as obtained from dSTORM and predicted from ChiP-seq data for H3K27me3 **(f)** and H3K4me3 **(g)**. PDF is probability density function. Single cell distributions of physical sizes and Chip-Seq data are shown in Supplementary Figs. 5c-d and 6b, respectively. N=60, from two to three biological replicates in microscopy imaging.

(h) Percentage of clustering for active and inactive chromatin marks for each cell type. Error bars = SD. One-sample t-test p-values: *p<0.01; **p<0.001.

(i) Box plots of the distributions of normalised Hi-C counts between chromatin domains of H3K27me3 or H3K4me3 in embryos and S2 cells. Results were independent of matrix resolution (10, 20 and 50 kb). Boxes contain 50% of the

849   data (0.67σ), and red lines mark the median values. Outliers (>3.3σ away from

850   the mean values) are shown as black dots. p-values were calculated using the

851   Welch t-test.

a

Genomic distance, kb

Contact frequency

Chromatin type

TB2   TB3

B1 B2

B1 B2 DAPI

b

Chr. 2L   Chr. 3R

TB   kb   kb

1   5275
2   5330
3   5535
4   5730

IT-17   5   10000
IT-18   6   10195
IT-19   7   10480
        8   10730

10995
11115
11280
11515

12295
12465
BX-C
16   12900

13   13010

Active
Repressed
Inactive

c

TB2-TB2
TB2-TB3

120 nm

d_{3D} d_{3D}

d

Late embryo

Early embryo

S2 cells

e

random   borders

Late embryo

S2 cells

f

100 kb   Late embryo

TB-5 IT-17 TB-6   IT-18   TB-7 IT-19 TB-8

repressed   active   repressed

S2 cells

TB-5 IT-17 TB-6   IT-18   TB-7 IT-19 TB-8

Contact probability, %

9.0

6.0

3.0

a

Chr. 3R
69 borders

27 Mb

Late embryo   Early embryo   S2 cells

69-Lib   DAPI

b

Frequency
0   0.085

Rg   Dmax   36

Late embryo

Early embryo

S2 cells

Cell number

Distance, nm

N clusters

c

domain border

Rg

Late embryo

Dmax

Early embryo

S2 cells

d

Log₂ (norm. Hi-C counts, S2 cells)

Log₂ (norm. Hi-C counts, Late embryo)

log10 distance, Mb