Epigenetic memory is governed by an effector recruitment specificity

toggle in Heterochromatin Protein 1

Amanda Ames[1], Melissa Seman[1], Ajay Larkin[1], Gulzhan Raiymbek[2], Ziyuan Chen[3], Alex

Levashkevich[1], Bo Kim[4], Julie Suzanne Biteen[3,5], and Kaushik Ragunathan[1*]

[1] Department of Biology, Brandeis University, Waltham, MA 02453

[2] Department of Biological Chemistry, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109

[3] Department of Biophysics, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48104

[4] Department of Biochemistry, Brandeis University, Waltham, MA 02453

[5] Department of Chemistry, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48104

These authors contributed equally: Melissa Seman, Ajay Larkin

* Correspondence: kaushikr@brandeis.edu (K.R.)

ABSTRACT

HP1 proteins are essential for establishing and maintaining transcriptionally silent

heterochromatin. They dimerize, forming a binding interface to recruit diverse chromatin-

associated factors. HP1 proteins are specialized and rapidly evolve, but the extent of variation

required to achieve functional specialization is unknown. To investigate how changes in amino

acid sequence impacts epigenetic inheritance, we performed a targeted mutagenesis screen of

the S. pombe HP1 homolog, Swi6. Substitutions within an auxiliary surface adjacent to the HP1

dimerization interface produced Swi6 variants with divergent maintenance properties.

Remarkably, substitutions at a single amino acid position led to the persistent gain or loss of

epigenetic inheritance. These substitutions increased Swi6 chromatin occupancy *in vivo* and

altered Swi6-protein interactions that reprogram H3K9me maintenance. We show that relatively

minor changes in Swi6 amino acid composition can lead to profound changes in epigenetic

inheritance which provides a redundant mechanism to evolve novel effector specificity.

INTRODUCTION

Chromatin organization is critical for maintaining genome integrity and regulating gene

expression[1]. Establishing distinct chromatin compartments consisting of active or repressed

genes depends, in part, on the post-translational modifications of DNA packaging proteins called

histones[2-4]. Inheriting chromatin states following DNA replication enables cells to maintain their

unique identities[5,6]. Disrupting the epigenetic regulatory landscape leads to aneuploidy and

genome instability, which are established hallmarks of cancer[7]. Over 50% of all sequenced

cancers have at least a single mutation in core histones, histone-binding proteins, or

nucleosome remodelers, underscoring the devastating impacts of epigenetic misregulation in

cancer[8]. Therefore, advancing our knowledge of how epigenetic states are established and

maintained is critical to illuminate normal cellular physiology and potentially develop novel,

innovative therapeutic strategies.

Site-specific DNA or RNA binding proteins recruit histone modifiers to target unique

locations in the genome to place repressive histone modifications as part of a process referred

to as "*establishment*"[9]. These repressive modifications can then be propagated over multiple cell

divisions in a DNA sequence-independent manner through a process known as "*maintenance*"

or "*epigenetic inheritance*". The molecular basis for epigenetic inheritance is thought to involve

the random but equal partitioning of modified H3-H4 parental histones between daughter DNA

strands during each cycle of DNA replication[10-13]. In this model, modified histones are expected

to serve as templates to restore pre-existing histone modification states on newly synthesized

DNA[14]. Histone-modifying enzymes restore these states by engaging in a process called 'read-

write' wherein pre-existing histone modifications can recruit enzymes to modify newly

incorporated histones[15-19]. However, in addition to the enzyme having read-write properties,

several non-histone proteins that bind to H3K9me have also been implicated in regulating

epigenetic inheritance, in particular by inducing changes in chromatin conformation[20,21]. For

example, *in vitro* reconstitution studies show that PRC1 (polycomb repressive complex 1), a

protein complex that belongs to the Polycomb group (PcG) and is involved in H3K27 (histone

H3 lysine 27) methylation (H3K27me) dependent silencing, remains continuously bound to old

and newly replicated DNA independent of H3K27me[22]. Furthermore, the ability of PRC1 to

undergo liquid-liquid phase separation and form condensates in conjunction with modified

histones can tune epigenetic memory[23]. In an analogous silencing pathway, proteins called

Heterochromatin Protein 1 (HP1) recognize and bind to histone H3 lysine 9 (H3K9) methylation

(H3K9me), remain bound to their cognate chromatin marks both before and after DNA

replication, suggesting that HP1 proteins might be part of the epigenetic imprint[24]. HP1 proteins

can also undergo phase separation, and their ability to oligomerize is crucial for maintaining

epigenetic memory[25,26]. Collectively, these results suggest that proteins that can drive changes

in chromatin organization contribute to the inheritance of modified chromatin states. However,

the mechanisms that coordinate the interplay between histone and non-histone proteins to

enable epigenetic inheritance remain poorly understood.

Reader domains that recognize and bind to specific histone modifications play important

roles in specifying the transcriptional context of an epigenetic state[27]. Canonical reader

domains, such as bromodomains, chromodomains, and Tudor domains, are part of protein

complexes that moderate gene expression and chromatin accessibility[28]. Intriguingly, some

reader domain paralogs bind to the same mark yet produce opposite transcriptional outcomes[29].

Many regulatory mechanisms contribute to this diversity, including multivalent interactions with

nucleosomes, RNA or DNA, autoinhibition driving protein conformational changes, and

cooperative binding to combinations of histone modifications[30-32]. Readers are enigmatic

because, despite being highly conserved, their ability to be co-opted by diverse effectors

enables them to fulfill functionally distinct roles in regulating gene expression[33]. Further, the

aforementioned processes thought to regulate epigenetic inheritance; such as "read-write",

oligomerization, and phase separation; accomplish this by co-opting reader domain containing

proteins (such as HP1), These observations underscore the critical role that reader domains

have in promoting epigenetic inheritance.

A pivotal reader domain-containing protein involved in heterochromatin formation is

heterochromatin protein 1 (HP1)[34]. HP1 proteins have both a conserved chromodomain (CD),

which binds specifically to H3K9me, and a chromoshadow domain (CSD) that promotes

dimerization[35,36]. HP1 proteins can engage in higher-order interactions, leading to the formation

of condensates that have liquid-like or gel-like properties *in vitro* and *in vivo*[37-40]. Although its

physiological relevance remains an active area of investigation, one possibility is that the ability

of HP1 proteins to form condensates leads to the assembly of distinct compartments that

increase the local concentrations of silencing factors while selectively excluding transcriptional

activators[26,41,42]. Upon dimerization, the CSD subunits also create a binding interface that

facilitates protein interactions[43]. HP1 proteins typically bind to proteins containing variations of a

consensus pentapeptide motif, with the defining feature in most cases being a central valine

residue, such as the PxVxL motif in mouse CAF1 or the LxVxI motif present in the *Drosophila*

HP2 protein[44,45]. Some HP1 variants demonstrate altered specificity for binding partners that

contain degenerate equivalents of this motif. Notably, the *S. pombe* HP1 paralog Chp2 binds to

a chromatin remodeler Mit1 through a CkIvV motif[46]. HP1 proteins recruit factors that both

enhance and antagonize heterochromatin formation, many of which bind to the same shared

CSD interface[47,48]. This raises an important question about how the recruitment of factors with

opposing activities is coordinated, given that all these effectors presumably compete for the

same CSD interface.

HP1 proteins are among the most rapidly evolving protein families[49,50]. An instance of

this evolutionary dynamic is seen in Dipteran flies[50]. Phylogenomic studies reveal an unusually

high number of HP1 gene duplications, leading to new opportunities for functional specialization

of paralogs. These young HP1 genes show an elevated percent identity at amino acid positions

involved in histone modification recognition and protein dimerization, indicating they are

functional HP1 paralogs that evolved through positive selection[50]. In contrast, across HP1

paralogs, and to a more considerable extent between HP1 orthologs, there is substantial

variation in amino acid residues at positions within the CD and CSD that are functionally

undefined[32,44]. Non-conserved sequences could contribute to functional diversity in HP1 proteins

by influencing some paralog-specific functions. In mouse HP1a, the N-terminal extension serves

as a site for hyperphosphorylation, which leads to higher chromatin binding and compaction[51].

The strength of CSD dimerization, which can be influenced by amino acid composition in the

CSD and C-terminal extension, can differ across HP1 proteins and is thought to tune their

affinity for various protein ligands[32,52,53]. However, we have limited knowledge of how much

sequence variation is required to alter the function of HP1 proteins and achieve specialization.

The fission yeast *Schizosacchromyces pombe* (*S. pombe*) represents an outstanding

model system to study heterochromatin[54]. Heterochromatin establishment and maintenance

involves H3K9 methylation and the enzymatic activity of an H3K9 methyltransferase in *S.*

pombe called Clr4, a Suv39h homolog[55]. *S. pombe* has two HP1 reader proteins, Chp2 and

Swi6, with extensive sequence similarity and shared structural similarities to HP1 proteins in

metazoans, including an H3K9me binding chromodomain (CD) and a dimerization domain

(CSD)[56-58]. Swi6 and Chp2 have distinct yet additive roles in transcriptional silencing at

pericentromeric repeats, telomeres, and the mating type locus[59]. The two HP1 proteins interact

with distinct sets of heterochromatin regulators and have vastly different expression levels (Swi6

is expressed 100-fold higher than Chp2)[60]. Swi6 interacts with many factors, including those

involved in RNAi-mediated heterochromatin formation, the histone deacetylase (Clr3), and a

putative H3K9 demethylase (Epe1)[47,61-66]. Chp2 recruits the Snf2/HDAC repressive effector

complex (SHREC) that includes Clr3 and the chromatin remodeler Mit1 to promote

transcriptional silencing[18,46,59,67]. Given the potential role of reader proteins, such as Swi6, in

epigenetic inheritance, we anticipate that their plasticity to evolve new protein-protein

interactions could serve as a potential mechanism to tune epigenetic memory.

In this work, we determine how sequence changes in Swi6 influence epigenetic

inheritance by performing a targeted PCR-based mutagenesis screen. By modifying the amino

acid composition in the Swi6-CSD through a targeted, PCR-based mutagenesis strategy, we

alter the durability of H3K9me-dependent epigenetic inheritance. Notably, we show substitutions

at a single residue (Thr 278) are sufficient to achieve complete functional divergence. While

some amino acid substitutions at this residue produce a gain of function maintenance

phenotype, other substitutions at the same site result in a persistent loss of function phenotype.

Furthermore, we demonstrate that a gain of function substitution leads to specific alterations in

protein-protein interactions that are known to regulate epigenetic inheritance; including a loss of

interaction with the putative H3K9 demethylase Epe1and a gain of interaction with the rixosome

complex, a central component of ribosome biogenesis which is required for heterochromatin

inheritance[21,68]. Additionally, these substitutions alter Swi6 chromatin occupancy *in vivo*. Our

study reveals that an HP1 protein, and possibly other reader proteins alike, can display

substantial plasticity wherein relatively minor variations in amino acid composition outside

primary structural interfaces can produce strikingly different functional outcomes.

RESULTS

Novel Swi6 variants affect heterochromatin maintenance.

To uncouple the effects of sequence-dependent heterochromatin establishment from

epigenetic inheritance, we used a system where a TetR-Clr4-I fusion protein binds to *10X-tetO*

DNA binding sequences placed upstream of an *ade6+* reporter gene. TetR-Clr4-I binding allows

for site-specific H3K9me deposition, leading to H3K9me establishment and *ade6+*

silencing[15,18,69]. Cells appear red on low adenine media when *ade6+* is silenced and white when

ade6+ is expressed. The addition of tetracycline (+tet) triggers the release of TetR-Clr4-I, after

which we can measure epigenetic inheritance without continuous initiation (**Figure 1a**).

Consistent with previous work, deleting the eraser of H3K9me, Epe1 (*epe1Δ)*, is necessary to

maintain *ade6+* silencing, as indicated by the appearance of red and sectored colonies that

persist on +tetracycline-containing medium in contrast to white colonies in *epe1+* cells (**Figure**

1b, *epe1+* versus *epe1Δ,* +tet)[18].

To determine the role of Swi6 in epigenetic inheritance, we generated a site-directed

mutagenesis library using tiling primers containing degenerate NNN codons for each amino acid

position. Since it is the primary interaction site for heterochromatin-associated factors, we

focused our mutagenesis efforts on the Swi6-CSD, consisting of 65 amino acids. This PCR-

based *swi6-CSD* variant library was integrated into the *S. pombe* genome to replace the

endogenous *swi6+* sequence (**Supplementary Figure 1a**). To identify Swi6 gain-of-function

mutations that lead to enhanced maintenance, we transformed our *swi6*-CSD variant library in

an *epe1+* background where cells are normally white when plated on +tet medium. We

expected a gain-of-function Swi6 variant to produce red/sectored colonies on +tet medium.

Based on an initial hit in our screen (T278Y), we discovered that several Thr 278 substitutions

produced a gain-of-function maintenance phenotype, including phenylalanine (F), tyrosine (Y),

alanine (A), cysteine (C), and serine (S) (**Figure 1b**). This subset of residues are all conserved

or semi-conserved substitutions with uncharged side chains (A, C, F, S, Y). When Thr 278 was

replaced with amino acid substitutions containing charged side chains- we observed a gain of

maintenance in the case of glutamate (E) and arginine (R) substitutions, but unexpectedly, we

observed a loss of maintenance in the case of aspartate (D) and lysine (K) substitutions (**Figure**

1c). These phenotypic differences were not due to changes in Swi6 protein levels, given that the

expression of all Thr 278 variants is comparable to Swi6-WT protein (**Supplementary Figure**

1b-c).

We quantitatively measured transcriptional silencing of the reporter locus in *swi6* T278Y

(*swi6*-Y*)* and *swi6* T278K (*swi6*-K*)*. We performed quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) on the

gene upstream of *10XTetO-ade6*, *SPCC330.06c*. Consistent with the *ade6+* silencing

phenotype, *swi6*-Y*,* and *swi6*-K showed a similar decrease in RNA expression as observed in

swi6-WT (**Figure 1d**). After 24 hours of growth in +tet, we observed the maintenance of reduced

transcript levels in *swi6*-Y consistent with a gain of heterochromatin maintenance. Conversely,

swi6-K cells showed increased transcript levels consistent with no heterochromatin

maintenance (**Figure 1d**). We also measured H3K9me3 levels at *SPCC330.06c* using

chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by qPCR (ChIP-qPCR) before and after adding

tetracycline. As expected, we observed high H3K9me3 enrichment in the context of

establishment (-tet) in both *swi6*-Y and *swi6*-K. In contrast, H3K9me3 persisted during

maintenance (+tet) in the case of *swi6*-Y but not *swi6*-K (**Figure 1e**).

As mentioned previously, heterochromatin maintenance in our reporter system is

critically dependent on the absence of H3K9me eraser Epe1, with *epe1*Δ cells being the primary

genetic context in which we observed red or sectored colonies on +tet media. To determine if

the observed maintenance phenotypes in *swi6*-Y and *swi6*-K are dependent on Epe1, we

deleted Epe1 in both genetic backgrounds. We expected that *swi6*-Y gain-of-maintenance

would either be unaffected or further enhanced by *epe1*Δ, whereas *swi6*-K would acquire a

maintenance phenotype upon deleting *epe1*. Unexpectedly, maintenance was not restored in

swi6–K *epe1*Δ cells, as indicated by the continued appearance of white colonies in +tet medium

matching what we see in *swi6*-K *epe1+* cells. Although *epe1*Δ is sufficient to confer

heterochromatin maintenance in *swi6*-WT cells, it fails to produce a maintenance phenotype in

swi6-K expressing cells (**Figure 1f, Supplementary Figure 1d**). It is also noteworthy that *swi6*-

Y *epe1*Δ cells exhibited a slightly weaker epigenetic maintenance phenotype with fewer

sectored colonies than *swi6*-Y *epe1+* cells. Nevertheless, deleting *epe1*Δ in *swi6*-Y did not

completely disrupt maintenance since we still observed persistent transcriptional silencing

consistent with successful maintenance when cells were plated on +tet media (**Figure 1f,**

Supplementary Figure 1d). Based on these findings, we concluded that *swi6*-Y has a

persistent gain-of-function maintenance phenotype, whereas *swi6*-K, unlike *swi6*-WT, has a

persistent loss-of-function maintenance phenotype.

One possibility is that Swi6 phosphorylation is affected by Thr 278 substitutions. We

tested the effect of deleting Ckb1, a subunit of the casein kinase II complex (CK2) in *S. pombe*

that phosphorylates Swi6. Ckb1-mediated phosphorylation leads to the disruption of

heterochromatin silencing by inhibiting recruitment of the histone deacetylase Clr3 while

concomitantly upregulating Epe1 occupancy at sites of heterochromatin formation[70]. Upon

deleting the CK2 subunit, *ckb1* (*ckb1Δ*), *ade6+* silencing is lost in both *swi6*-WT and *epe1Δ*

cells. Surprisingly, heterochromatin silencing remains intact in *ckb1Δ swi6*-Y cells, suggesting

Swi6-Y gain-of-maintenance is not regulated by CK2 phosphorylation (**Figure 1g**).

Figure 1. Novel Swi6 variants affect heterochromatin maintenance. (a) Schematic of TetR-Clr4-I recruitment to *10XtetO* binding sites upstream of an *ade6+* reporter gene, initiating heterochromatin establishment. Addition of tetracycline (+tet) releases TetR-Clr4-I, enabling measurements of heterochromatin maintenance uncoupled from sequence-specific establishment. **(b-c)** Silencing assay of *ura4Δ::10XtetO-ade6+* reporter in indicated genotypes in the absence (-tet) and presence (+tet) of tetracycline. Red cells indicate ade6+ silencing. Cells are plated as 10-fold serial dilutions. **(d)** qRT-PCR measuring RNA levels at SPCC330.06c in indicated genotypes before (-tet) and after (+tet) tetracycline addition. Error bars indicate SD (N = 2). **(e)** ChIP-qPCR measuring H3K9me3 at *SPCC330.06c* in indicated genotypes before (-tet) and after (+tet) tetracycline addition. Error bars indicate SD (N = 2). **(f-g)** Silencing assay of *ura4Δ::10XtetO-ade6+* reporter in indicated genotypes in the absence (-tet) and presence (+tet) of tetracycline. Red cells indicate *ade6+* silencing. Cells are plated at 10-fold serial dilutions.

Maintenance in Swi6-Y depends on H3K9me.

To determine how *swi6*-Y or *swi6*-K substitutions affect heterochromatin spreading and

its epigenetic inheritance, we performed chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by sequencing

(ChIP-seq) of H3K9me2 and H3K9me3. We observed large H3K9me domains consistent with

successful heterochromatin establishment proximal to the *10XtetO-ade6* reporter site across all

Swi6 variant backgrounds (**Figure 2a-b**). Upon +tet treatment, H3K9me2 and H3K9me3 levels

are maintained only in *swi6*-Y like what we observed in *epe1Δ* cells and completely lost in *swi6*-

K like what we typically observe in *swi6*-WT (**Figure 2a-b**). These results suggest that the gain

of maintenance phenotype we observed in *swi6*-Y is dependent on the inheritance of H3K9me.

To determine the extent to which both Swi6 variants affect constitutive heterochromatin,

we replaced the endogenous *swi6+* gene with *swi6*-Y and *swi6*-K in cells where an *ade6+*

reporter was inserted at the pericentromeric outer repeats (*otr1R(SphI)::ade6+)* (**Figure 2c**).

Unlike *swi6*-WT cells that appeared uniformly red, we observed a small proportion of white,

ade6+ expressing colonies in *swi6*-Y and *swi6*-K, suggesting a minor defect in pericentromeric

reporter gene silencing. These minor silencing defects were also mirrored in our qRT-PCR

analysis of pericentromeric (*dg* and *dh*) and telomeric (*tlh1*) transcripts (**Figure 2d**).

Nevertheless, enrichment for H3K9me2 and H3K9me3 at pericentromeres were comparable in

swi6-Y and *swi6*-K expressing cells (**Figure 2e, Supplementary Figure 2a-d**) while slightly

decreased at telomeres in *swi6*-Y and *swi6*-K compared to *swi6*-WT cells. H3K9me2 and

H3K9me3 levels at the rDNA locus were elevated in s*wi6*-Y but not in *swi6*-K, compared to

swi6-WT (**Supplementary Figure 2a-d**). We also observed elevated H3K9me2 and H3K9me3

enrichment at facultative heterochromatin islands such as meiotic genes (*mei4* and *ssm4*) in

swi6-K cells compared to *swi6*-WT (**Supplementary Figure 2e-f**).

Figure 2. Maintenance in Swi6-Y depends on H3K9me. (a-b) ChIP-seq of H3K9me2 (**a**) and H3K9me3 (**b**) surrounding the *ura4Δ::10XtetO-ade6+* reporter in indicated genotypes and tetracycline treatment. The *ura4Δ::10XtetO-ade6+* reporter is highlighted in red. Each ChIP-seq track corresponds to a 40kb region. Enrichment in all samples is shown as normalized reads per kilobase million (RPKM). (**c**) Top- Schematic detailing the *otr1R::ade6+* reporter, where *ade6+* is inserted within the outer pericentromeric repeats. Bottom- Silencing assay of *otr1R::(SphI)ade6+* reporter in indicated genotypes. (**d**) qRT-PCR measuring RNA levels at *dg, dh*, and *tlh* in indicated genotypes and tetracycline treatment. Error bars indicate SD (N = 2). (**e**) ChIP-seq of H3K9me2 and H3K9me3 at the centromere on chromosome 1 in indicated genotypes. Each ChIP-seq track corresponds to a 45kb region with features within the centromere indicated in the schematic below. Enrichment in all samples is shown as normalized reads per kilobase million (RPKM).

240   **Swi6-Y and Swi6-K variants disrupt a direct interaction with Epe1**

241   As previously noted, deleting $epe1\Delta$ did not affect the maintenance phenotypes

242   associated with Swi6-Y (gain-of-maintenance) or Swi6-K (loss-of-maintenance). We reasoned

243   that our Thr 278 substitutions might disrupt a direct binding interaction between Epe1 and Swi6

244   while leaving other binding interactions required for heterochromatin establishment intact. We

245   mapped the position of Thr 278 within the Swi6-CSD relative to the dimerization interface using

246   an X-ray crystallography-based model (**Figure 3a**)[35]. The dimerization interface, consisting of

247   two helices, facilitates hydrophobic contacts between two Swi6-CSD monomers via Leu 315.

248   Disrupting the dimer by introducing a charged amino acid substitution (L315E or L315D) leads

249   to a loss of silencing *in vivo* and a loss of H3K9me binding specificity *in vitro*[35,71]. Interestingly,

250   Thr 278 lies within a beta-sheet outside the dimerization interface, with its side chain being

251   solvent-exposed. This observation supports our hypothesis that Thr 278 could be involved in

252   tuning Swi6-dependent protein-protein interactions.

253   We generated strains expressing a C-terminal V5-tagged Epe1 (Epe1-V5) to detect the

254   Swi6-Epe1 interaction using coimmunoprecipitation assays (CoIP) (**Figure 3b**). As expected,

255   Swi6-WT copurifies with Epe1-V5 from cell lysates, consistent with the two proteins directly

256   interacting *in vivo*[66]. In contrast, Swi6 is no longer detected in Epe1-V5 purifications from cells

257   expressing Swi6-Y or Swi6-K variants. This observation suggested that the Swi6-Epe1

258   interaction is disrupted in the case of both substitutions- Swi6-Y and Swi6-K irrespective of

259   whether the mutants exhibit a gain of maintenance or a loss of maintenance phenotype (**Figure**

260   **1b-c**). To further confirm that altering Thr 278 had a direct effect on Epe1 binding, we performed

261   a pulldown-based binding assay using recombinantly expressed and purified FLAG-Swi6 and

262   MBP-Epe1 (**Supplementary Figure 3a**). Consistent with our coIP results, we detected an

263   interaction between Epe1 and FLAG-Swi6-WT but not in the case of FLAG-Swi6-K *in vitro*. In

264   fact, FLAG-Swi6-K abolished Epe1 binding to a similar extent as our negative control FLAG-

Swi6 L315E, a mutation known to completely disrupt Swi6 dimerization and all PxVxL-

dependent protein interactions[44,72,73].

Consistent with our *ade6+* establishment phenotypes and Epe1 binding observations,

swi6-Y and *swi6*-K cells grown in -tet media also did not exhibit any additional enrichment of

H3K9me2 and H3K9me3 in *epe1Δ* cells compared to *epe1+* cells (**Figure 1f, 3c-d**). However,

H3K9me2 and H3K9me3 enrichment is selectively observed only in *swi6*-Y *epe1Δ* but not *swi6*-

K *epe1Δ* cells when grown in +tet media, which is fully consistent with their *ade6+* maintenance

phenotypes (**Figure 1f, 3c-d**).

To determine the molecular basis for how Swi6-Y or Swi6-K affects Epe1 binding, we used

AlphaFold2 Multimer (AF-M) to generate a structural model of the interaction between Epe1 and

Swi6[74]. First, we generated a structural prediction of the Swi6-CSD dimer. All five models

predicted the dimer as expected, with the highest-ranking model aligning to the published

crystal structures with an RMSD value of 0.49 Å (**Supplementary Figures 3b and 4**). Next, we

generated a structural prediction of the Swi6-CSD dimer and Epe1ΔC (amino acids 1–600),

which we previously showed is sufficient to strongly interact with Swi6 (**Supplementary Figure

3c**)[66]. We generated five models, all confidently predicting that Epe1ΔC binds to the Swi6

dimerization interface via a PxVxL-like IGVVI motif (**Supplementary Figures 3c and 5**,

residues 569-573). Consistent with most other variant HP1 interacting motifs, the key feature of

this interaction sequence is the presence of a central valine residue. In addition to this primary

mode of interaction, we observed a second interaction interface- namely, a predicted helix in

Epe1 that interacts with the auxiliary Swi6 beta-sheet surface containing Thr 278. We deleted

the regions of Epe1 predicted to interact with the CSD dimer (residues 566-600) to generate

three new alleles of Epe1 (*epe1Δ566-600*, *epe1Δ569-573*, and *epe1Δ577-589*), which harbor

internal deletions while the rest of the protein remains intact. Consistent with a loss of

interaction between Swi6 and Epe1, we observe an increase in red or sectored colonies when

cells were plated on +tet, consistent with increased heterochromatin maintenance much like

Figure 3. Swi6-Y and Swi6-K variants disrupt a direct interaction with Epe1. (**a**) X-ray crystallography structure of a Swi6-CSD dimer (PDB 1E0B, 1.90 Å). The dimerization interface and the side chains of Leu 315, a residue crucial for dimerization, are labeled. Thr 278 maps to a beta sheet interface with its side chain facing outward away from the dimerization interface. (**b**) Western blots of V5 coimmunoprecipitation (CoIP) performed with cell lysates to test the interaction between Epe1-V5 and Swi6. Epe1 is detected using a V5 antibody and Swi6 is detected using a primary antibody. (**c-d**) ChIP-seq of H3K9me2 (**c**) and H3K9me3 (**d**) surrounding the *ura4Δ::10XtetO-ade6+* reporter in indicated genotypes and tetracycline treatment. The *ura4Δ::10XtetO-ade6+* reporter is highlighted in red, displayed in a 40kb region. Enrichment in all samples is shown as normalized reads per kilobase million (RPKM).

what we previously observed in *epe1Δ* cells (**Supplementary Figure 3d**, *epe1Δ566-600*,

epe1Δ569-573, and *epe1Δ577-589 compared to swi6-WT*). Additionally, we confirmed Epe1

protein levels are comparable between Epe1Δ566-600, Epe1Δ569-573, Epe1Δ577-589, and full-

length Epe1-WT (**Supplementary Figure 3f**). To determine if the interaction with the auxiliary

surface where Thr 278 is embedded is generalizable, we generated a structural prediction of the

Swi6-CSD dimer and Sgo1, a known Swi6 interactor (**Supplementary Figures 3e and 6**)[75]. We

observed similar interactions in the Sgo1-Swi6 predicted structure. A helix within Sgo1, distal to

the PxVxL motif, interacts with the auxiliary Swi6 beta-sheet interface containing Thr 278. These

predictions suggest that the beta-sheet within the Swi6 CSD could serve as a novel binding site

outside of the dimerization interface that dictates Swi6 binding partner specificity.

Swi6-Y and Swi6-K exhibit increased chromatin occupancy *in vivo*.

We considered whether the molecular basis for the divergence in phenotypes between

Swi6-Y (gain of maintenance) and Swi6-K (loss of maintenance) might arise from biochemical

differences such as Swi6 dimerization or nucleosome binding. We recombinantly expressed and

purified different Swi6 variants (including Swi6-WT) from *E. coli* and analyzed their dimerization

and nucleosome binding properties *in vitro* (**Figure 4a-c, Supplementary Figures 7 and 8**). We

used mass photometry to measure the relative abundance of Swi6 species across a low

nanomolar concentration range (2.5-20 nM). Mass Photometry (MP) is a single-molecule

approach that uses light to detect the number and molar mass of unlabeled molecules in dilute

samples and, given its measurement range, we expected to detect mass differences between

Swi6 monomers and dimers[76]. We detected two molecular species with the predicted masses

for a Swi6 monomer (37 kDa) and a Swi6 dimer (74 kDa) in Swi6-WT, Swi6-Y, and Swi6-K

(**Supplementary Figure 7a-e**). The dimer population (74kDa) was not detected in Swi6 L315E,

a mutation that disrupts Swi6 dimerization (**Supplementary Figure 7c**). The observed

monomer-to-dimer ratios were consistent with concentration-dependent dimer formation. We

predominantly observed dimers at our lowest measured concentration (2.5 nM), with monomers

accounting for roughly 20% of the population (**Supplementary Figure 7d**). We determined

apparent dimerization constants using our observed relative abundance values (K_{dim},

Supplementary Figure 7f)[77]. Consistent with previous work, Swi6-WT dimerizes with an

apparent K_{dim} of 0.38 nM. We did not observe a significant change in dimerization affinity in

Swi6-Y and Swi6-K' with apparent K_{dim} values being 0.27 nM and 0.20 nM, respectively[58].

Although there may be modest differences in dimerization that fall outside the detection limits of

mass photometry, our results suggest dimerization is not significantly impacted by introducing

Swi6-Y or Swi6-K mutations *in vitro*.

To measure Swi6-nucleosome binding affinity and specificity, we performed

electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSAs) using reconstituted H3K9me0 or H3K9me3

mononucleosomes (**Figure 4a-c, Supplementary Figure 8**). We observed a shift of unbound

nucleosomes to higher molecular weight species as Swi6 binds in a concentration-dependent

manner. After fitting our concentration-dependent binding assays, we determined that Swi6-WT

binds to H3K9me3 mononucleosomes with an apparent $K_{1/2}$ of ~50nM, which was very similar to

the $K_{1/2}$ for Swi6-Y binding to H3K9me3 nucleosomes (~39nM). In addition, both Swi6-WT and

Swi6-Y bind to H3K9me3 mononucleosomes with similar specificity (2.4-fold for Swi6-WT and

2.3-fold for Swi6-Y) (**Figure 4a-c**). Consistent with previous studies, we confirmed the complete

loss of specificity for H3K9me3 binding in control experiments measuring Swi6 L315E (**Figure

4c**)[78]. We detected no substantive differences between Swi6-WT and Swi6-Y in our *in vitro*

nucleosome binding assays.

In vitro binding assays using mononucleosomes do not accurately reflect how Swi6

binds to chromatin *in vivo*, likely due to differences in substrate length and complexity[71,79]. To

determine how Swi6-Y and Swi6-K bind to H3K9me in a native chromatin context, we mapped

the dynamics of individual Swi6 molecules in living cells (**Figure 4d**)[79]. We tracked PAmCherry-

Swi6-Y and PAmCherry-Swi6-K dynamics and compared them to the dynamics of PAmCherry-

Swi6-WT. For each mutant, we identified mobility states that best described the single-molecule

trajectories we measured. Each state has a defined population and an average diffusion

coefficient (**Figure 4e-f**)[79,80]. Swi6-WT has four mobility states, namely a fast-diffusing state

(unbound Swi6), a medium-diffusing state (nucleic acid-associated Swi6), a slow-diffusing state

(unmethylated H3K9 chromatin-associated Swi6), and a slowest-diffusing state (H3K9me2/3

chromatin-bound Swi6). Swi6-Y and Swi6-K exhibited only three mobility states in contrast to

the four states we typically observed in the case of Swi6-WT (**Figure 4e-f**). The most prominent

change in our mobility state measurements was a 2-fold reduction in the fraction of Swi6

molecules across the two variants that occupy the fast-diffusing mobility state, corresponding to

unbound Swi6. The medium-diffusing mobility state, corresponding to nucleic acid-associated

Swi6, was at the limit of our analysis and detection methods and hence not observed in either

Swi6-Y or Swi6-K mutants. Furthermore, the fraction of Swi6 molecules in the mobility states

that correspond to H3K9me chromatin-binding increased, with an estimated shift from 50% of

Swi6-WT molecules being chromatin-bound to ~90% of Swi6-Y and Swi6-K molecules being

chromatin-bound. We additionally analyzed our data using a posterior distribution analysis

(DPSP) to avoid overfitting biases that may arise from Bayesian methods[81]. The posterior

distribution analysis with DPSP revealed a greater proportion of molecules in low-mobility states

(chromatin-bound) with a concomitant decrease in highly mobile (free) molecules in Swi6-Y and

Swi6-K compared to Swi6-WT (**Figure 4g**). The DPSP analysis supports our findings of an

increase in the number of trajectories corresponding to low mobility molecules in Swi6-Y and

Swi6-K compared to Swi6-WT. Since Swi6-Y and Swi6-K have divergent maintenance

phenotypes, our results suggested that mechanisms other than increased chromatin occupancy

must contribute to the unusual maintenance phenotypes we observed.

Figure 4. Swi6-Y and Swi6-K exhibit increased chromatin occupancy *in vivo*. (**a-b**) Concentration dependence curves of quantified electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSA) using H3K9me0 (black) and H3K9me3 (pink) mononucleosomes in (**a**) Swi6-WT and (**b**) Swi6-Y. Error bars indicate SD (N=5). (**c**) Table summarizing the apparent binding affinity (Kd) and specificity values observed for Swi6-WT, Swi6-Y and Swi6-L315E. (**d**) Schematic depicting single-molecule microscopy live-cell tracking workflow. PAmCherry-Swi6 molecules are photoactivated (406 nm) then imaged and tracked until photobleaching (561 nm, 25 frames/sec). The cycle is repeated 10 – 20 times/cell. (**e-f**) Mobility states detected by SMAUG analysis for (**e**) PAmCherry-Swi6-Y and (**f**) PAmCherry-Swi6-K. Each point is the average single-molecule diffusion coefficient of Swi6 following a single iteration of the Bayesian algorithm after convergence. Mobility states are color-coded by fast diffusing unbound state (yellow), moderately diffusing nucleic acid-associated state (purple), slow diffusing unmethylated H3K9 bound state (red), and slow diffusing H3K9me2/3 bound state (blue). Dataset: 17150 single-molecule steps from 2039 PAmCherry-Swi6-Y trajectories and 67 cells. 19718 single-molecule steps from 1225 PAmCherry-Swi6-K trajectories and 68 cells. Mobility states determined in Swi6-WT (gray) are plotted as a reference. (**g**) Posterior occupancy across diffusion coefficients for PAmCherry-Swi6-WT (black), Swi6-Y (blue), and Swi6-K (red) with DPSP analysis[81]. The dashed line represents the localization error limit separating fast diffusing molecules (right) from slow diffusing molecules (left).

365   **The Swi6-rixosome interaction modulates epigenetic inheritance.**

366   Since the loss of Epe1 binding alone cannot explain the differential maintenance

367   phenotypes we observed in Swi6-Y and Swi6-K, we investigated how all possible Swi6-

368   dependent protein interactions are affected across the two variants using quantitative mass

369   spectrometry[47,82]. We generated N-terminal FLAG-Swi6 strains to perform tandem mass tag

370   affinity purification mass spectroscopy (TMT-AP-MS, **Supplementary Figure 9a**). We compared

371   protein interactions that were significantly altered in Swi6-Y and Swi6-K relative to Swi6-WT

372   (**Figure 5a-b**). In agreement with our coIP measurements, Epe1 and its known binding partner

373   Bdf2 are downregulated ~6-fold in Swi6-Y and Swi6-K (**Figure 5a-c**)[83]. We also observed

374   selective and significant upregulation of factors with known roles in ribosomal RNA (rRNA)

375   processing, ribosome biogenesis, or nucleolar localization (~50% of all upregulated interactions)

376   in the case of Swi6-Y but not Swi6-K. Among this group are the core subunits of the conserved

377   rRNA processing and RNA degradation complex, the rixosome (**Figure 5a, c**)[21,68]. We also

378   noted a significant differential association of factors belonging to GO term categories, which

379   included heterochromatin regulation, RNA polymerase II-mediated transcription, chromatin

380   remodeling, RNA processing, DNA damage/cell cycle, and DNA replication (**Figure 5c-d**). We

381   did not observe any significant changes in interactions with heterochromatin-associated factors

382   that have known functions in epigenetic inheritance, which include subunits of the H3K9

383   methyltransferase CLRC complex, a deacetylase-remodeler complex, SHREC, the histone

384   chaperone complex. FACT, nuclear pore complex subunits, and the nucleosome remodeler,

385   Ino80 complex across both Swi6 variants (**Supplementary Figure 9b**)[21,47,84-87].

386   Our quantitative mass spectrometry results suggested that the gain-of-maintenance

387   phenotype we observed in Swi6-Y was determined by the extent of its interaction with subunits

388   of the rixosome complex. To test this hypothesis, we generated a separation-of-function

389   mutation in the Grc3 subunit of the rixosome (*grc3* V70M). This mutation disrupts the rixosome-

390   Swi6 interaction without affecting its ribosome biogenesis functions[68]. *swi6*-Y *grc3* V70M cells

exhibited red colonies in -tet media, consistent with successful heterochromatin establishment.

However, cells plated on +tet media turned white, consistent with a loss of *ade6+* silencing and

selective disruption of maintenance (**Figure 5e**). Therefore, the enhanced maintenance

phenotype in the case of Swi6-Y is critically dependent on its specific interaction with the

rixosome complex.

Our mass spectrometry data provided a straightforward explanation for enhanced

maintenance in the case of Swi6-Y. However, the molecular basis of Swi6-K defective

maintenance remains unclear. We considered the possibility that a change in rixosome binding

in Swi6-K is either too small for sensitive detection using mass spectrometry or that these

changes correspond only to the rixosome chromatin bound fraction. To test this, we fused the

Crb3 subunit of the rixosome with a C-terminal TAP tag and performed ChIP-qPCR to measure

its occupancy at the pericentromeric repeats (*dg*) and the *10XtetO-ade6+* reporter locus

(*SPCC.330.06c*) (**Figure 5f**). We detected a small but significant decrease in rixosome binding

at both loci in Swi6-K relative to Swi6-WT. Consistent with our mass spectrometry findings, we

observe a significant increase in rixosome binding at the pericentromeric repeats and reporter

gene locus in Swi6-Y. These results suggest that the persistent loss of maintenance observed in

Swi6-K is likely due to reduced rixosome binding at heterochromatin (**Figure 5f**). These

observations also explain why deleting Epe1 cannot rescue the maintenance defect in Swi6-K

(**Figure 1f**).

We generated a model of the Swi6-CSD dimer and Grc3 using AF-M (**Supplementary**

Figure 9c). Grc3 interacts with the Swi6-CSD dimer using a PxVxL-like motif, but the upstream

and downstream contacts between Grc3 and the Swi6-CSD are strikingly different compared to

what we previously observed in the case of Sgo1 and Epe1 (**Supplementary Figure 3c, f**). The

helix that we previously noted in our Epe1-Swi6 and Sgo1-Swi6 structural models interacting

with the Swi6 auxiliary surface containing Thr 278 was notably absent in all five Grc3-Swi6

models (**Supplementary Figure 10**). These *in silico* differences across Swi6 binding partners

Figure 5. The Swi6-rixosome interaction modulates epigenetic inheritance. (**a-b**) Volcano plot displaying the results from tandem mass tag mass spectrometry (TMT-MS) of affinity purifications of (**a**) 3XFLAG-Swi6-Y and (**b**) 3XFLAG-Swi6-K. Samples were normalized to untagged Swi6 and plotted against the reference (3XFLAG-Swi6-WT). The shaded boxes mark a p-value = 0.01 (horizontal) and a 1.25-fold enrichment over the 3XFLAG-Swi6-WT reference (vertical) (N = 3), only interactions detected with > 1 peptide are included in the dataset. Proteins are color-coded as upregulated interactions (orange), downregulated interactions (purple), unenriched interactions (grey), and relevant heterochromatin regulators are labeled. The full dataset of interacting proteins can be found in Table S1. (**c**) Heat map comparing upregulated (orange) and downregulated (purple) interactions observed in Swi6-Y and Swi6-K, p-value cutoff is < 0.01. (**d**) GO term analysis of biological process categories for upregulated and downregulated interactions. Each interaction within the (C) heat map is annotated with a colored box, denoting its corresponding GO-term biological process. The sample size for each GO term is as follows: ribosome biogenesis N = 14, heterochromatin regulation N = 4, pol II transcription N = 10, chromatin remodeling N = 4, RNA processing N = 2, DNA damage/ cell cycle N = 3, DNA replication N = 4, other N = 6. (**e**) Top- Schematic of the rixosome complex subunits. Bottom- Silencing assay of *ura4Δ::10XtetO-ade6+* reporter in indicated genotypes in the absence (-tet) and presence (+tet) of tetracycline. Red cells indicate ade6+ silencing. Cells are plated at 10-fold serial dilutions. (**f**) ChIP-qPCR measuring Crb3-TAP at *tub*, *dg*, and *SPCC330.06c* in indicated genotypes. Error bars indicate SD (N=3 or N=4, replicates plotted for each sample). Mean of each sample were compared to their corresponding swi6-WT mean using an unpaired one-tailed t-test (P value cutoff < 0.05) and the significance values are represented as follows P < 0.05 (*), P < 0.01 (**), P < 0.0001 (****).

417   (Grc3, Sgo1, and Epe1) could provide a potential molecular basis for tunability that depends on

418   interactions with an auxiliary binding surface that extends beyond the dimerization interface.

Genetic rescue of Swi6-K heterochromatin maintenance defects

Previous work has shown that targeting the histone deacetylase Clr3 to heterochromatin

(either by tethering Clr3 or by fusing chromodomains) is sufficient for epigenetic inheritance

despite the presence of Epe1[66,85]. The HDAC activity of Clr3 reduces histone turnover, a

characteristic feature of heterochromatin that is thought to promote epigenetic inheritance[88]. We

wanted to test if tethering Clr3 is sufficient to rescue defective maintenance in *swi6*-K

expressing cells. We expressed a Gal4-Clr3 fusion protein in strains containing two orthogonal

DNA binding sequences, i.e. *10XUAS* sites for Gal4 binding and *10XtetO* sites for TetR binding-

both of which are placed upstream of the *ade6+* reporter gene (**Supplementary Figure 11a**).

Despite Epe1 being present, we observed robust maintenance of *ade6+* silencing, with cells

appearing red or sectored when plated on +tet media (**Supplementary Figure 11a**, *swi6*-WT,

gal4-clr3). This process is critically dependent on Swi6 since both establishment and

maintenance were eliminated in cells lacking Swi6 (**Supplementary Figure 11a**, *swi6Δ*, *gal4-*

clr3). Interestingly, tethering Clr3 rescued the Swi6-K maintenance defect since we observed

both successful establishment (red colonies, -tet) and maintenance (red or sectored colonies in

+tet), although maintenance was not nearly as robust as what we observed in *swi6*-WT cells

(**Supplementary Figure 11a**). Furthermore, targeting Clr3 could not bypass the requirement for

the rixosome interaction in heterochromatin maintenance. In cells expressing *grc3*-V70M,

tethering Clr3 failed to produce red or sectored colonies when cells were plated on +tet-

containing medium (**Supplementary Figure 11a**). Hence, Clr3-mediated histone deacetylation

can compensate for defective heterochromatin maintenance in the case of *swi6*-K but not in the

case of *grc3*-V70M.

We envisioned that an alternative approach to detect the molecular basis for defective

maintenance in Swi6-K cells would be to identify other residues in Swi6 that could suppress this

defect. These compensatory mutations could potentially restore protein interactions that are lost

in Swi6-K cells. To identify such mutations, we utilized a PCR based targeted saturation

mutagenesis approach as previously described (**Supplementary Figure 1a**) to generate a

library of variants in residues that are proximal to Swi6-K (residues: 268-277, 279-302). This

screen revealed substitutions at D283 to histidine (H), threonine (T), serine (S), arginine (R),

and glutamic acid (E) that could rescue the maintenance defect in the Swi6-K background,

indicated by red or sectored colonies on YE+tet plates (**Supplementary Figure 11b**). This

residue, D283, falls within a region of Swi6 involved in binding to the histone chaperone

complex, FACT[87]. Collectively, our observations suggest that the Swi6-K maintenance defect is

likely mediated by changes in protein interactions, correlated with decreased rixosome binding.

DISCUSSION

HP1 proteins have a conserved architecture yet are functionally versatile[32]. We

hypothesized that regions which exhibit high sequence variability within the otherwise

conserved chromoshadow domain (CSD) could contribute towards HP1 proteins acquiring novel

functional properties. To test this hypothesis, we used a targeted mutagenesis screen of the

Swi6-CSD to identify new variants that exhibit enhanced heterochromatin maintenance. We

have demonstrated that substitutions associated with a single amino-acid residue, Thr 278,

within the Swi6-CSD can influence the maintenance of an ectopic heterochromatin domain while

preserving Swi6 dimerization, nucleosome binding, and transcriptional silencing. Our findings

support a model where sequence variation outside the dimerization interface can enable Swi6,

and possibly other HP1 proteins, to acquire new functional attributes. Hence, the plasticity of

HP1 proteins arises not from changes to conserved sites but from alterations within auxiliary

regions that preserve overall protein architecture. *In silico* modeling of Epe1, Sgo1, and Grc3,

with the Swi6-CSD dimer reveals minimal differences in how the PxVxL motif (or PxVxL variant

motifs) bind to the Swi6-CSD dimer interface[44,89]. In contrast, our predictions show significant

divergence in motifs that may interact with the Thr 278-containing beta-sheet interface

(**Supplementary Figures 3c, 3e, and 9c**). Although further validation is required to understand

the structural implications of our generated models, our studies potentially reveal a new

interface in an HP1 protein that determines protein binding specificity.

Although structural studies to support our AF-M models are currently unavailable, NMR

measurements have identified interactions between peptides of Clr3, Sgo1, and histone H2B

with the Swi6-CSD dimer[40,58]. These data also identified potential interactions involving Thr 278

and other neighboring residues within Swi6[40,58]. Therefore, our experimental findings are

consistent with a model where Thr 278 can function as a specificity determinant, thus enabling

Swi6 to differentiate between protein interactors, all of which share a PxVxL-like motif and bind

to a common Swi6-CSD interface. The importance of Thr 278 in altering Swi6 function is also

underscored by a screen for G0 suppressors, which previously identified Swi6 T278K (or Swi6-

K) as a mutation that promotes the survival of fission yeast cells following quiescence[90]. Hence,

the interface we identified likely contributes to heterochromatin maintenance in G2 cells but may

have other classes of interactors that depend on Swi6 during quiescence.

Previous studies identified HP1 mutations associated with the N-terminal chromodomain

(CD) which affects H3K9me binding and oligomerization or the C-terminal chromoshadow

domain (CSD) mutants that disrupt dimerization[44,71,75,78,91,92]. Since dimerization is crucial for

HP1-dependent protein-protein interactions, it is nearly impossible to introduce mutations within

the dimerization interface without compromising its overall structure and function. The variants

we identified in our study map to an auxiliary surface outside the CSD dimerization interface.

This enables selective tuning of protein-protein interactions without disrupting overall Swi6

function, especially in the context of heterochromatin establishment. While we have shown how

the Epe1-rixosome-Swi6 axis is sensitive to substitutions within the auxiliary beta sheet binding

interface, other studies have shown that the histone chaperone complex FACT, which directly

binds to Swi6, is insensitive to mutations within this interface. In agreement with our proteomics

data, Thr 278 substitutions (Swi6 T278K and T278A) do not alter the interaction between Swi6

and Spt16[87]. Furthermore, recent work has shown that the Drosophila HP1 protein Rhino

utilizes its chromodomain to interact with the transcription factor Kipferl[93]. Moreover, mutations

affecting Kipferl binding do not affect H3K9me recognition, suggesting this interface can also

potentially be exploited for evolving new protein-protein interactions[94].

We aligned HP1 sequences across the *Schizosaccharomyces* lineage (*S.cryophilus,*

S.japonicus, S.octosporus, and *S.osmophilus*) and found minimal sequence variation within the

auxiliary beta-sheet region across Swi6 orthologs (**Supplementary Figure 12**). However,

sequence conservation within this region significantly declines when comparing Swi6 to Chp2 or

HP1 proteins from other organisms[44,53]. Hence, in addition to variations within PxVxL motif

binding, we propose that the auxiliary beta sheet we identified can further contribute to

functional divergence between HP1 proteins[46]. The lineage and variant-specific conservation of

this region have important consequences for envisioning what the "ground state" of

heterochromatin systems might be in different organisms. Most substitutions, apart from the

original Thr 278 residue, led to the persistent gain of epigenetic inheritance, and a subset of

charged amino acid substitutions led to a persistent loss of epigenetic inheritance (**Figure 1b-c**).

Both extreme scenarios' consequences are absolute, with heterochromatin being inflexible and

not regulatable. Therefore, our findings suggest Thr 278 and other proximal amino acid residues

within the beta-sheet interface in Swi6 and other HP1 proteins contribute to epigenetic plasticity

wherein cells can invoke memory depending on changes in their physiology or environment.

Consistent with this model, there are proposed mechanisms for regulating Swi6 protein

interactions that may contribute to epigenetic plasticity. Notably, heterochromatin maintenance

in *S. pombe* is responsive to environmental changes, which can be regulated by altering Epe1

availability in cells. Epe1 expression is sensitive to glucose availability, cAMP levels, stress, and

ubiquitination[95-99]. Furthermore, post-translational modifications of Swi6, such as

phosphorylation, can alter the balance of interactions between the histone deacetylase Clr3 and

H3K9 demethylase Epe1. The loss of Swi6 phosphorylation leads to increased Epe1

interactions and decreased heterochromatin silencing[70].

The divergent phenotypes associated with Swi6-Y and Swi6-K present an interesting

case study for how minimal changes within an HP1 protein, where protein architecture is

preserved, can serve as drivers of functional innovation. It is evident from our biochemistry and

mass spectrometry data that these divergent effects are not due to differences in protein

structure (Swi6-Y and Swi6-K form stable dimers), nucleosome binding (site-specific

perturbations do not affect H3K9me binding), or interactions with Epe1. Furthermore, both

variants exhibit increased chromatin occupancy *in vivo* yet produce opposite effects on

epigenetic inheritance. Our findings demonstrate that simply increasing Swi6 occupancy on

chromatin is insufficient to induce epigenetic inheritance. Instead, the primary deciding factor for

epigenetic inheritance in *S. pombe* is the extent to which H3K9me bound Swi6 efficiently

interacts with components of the rixosome complex and recruits them to heterochromatin[21,68].

We have previously shown that substitution mutations, which are thought to affect Epe1

catalytic activity, lead to a loss of a direct interaction between Epe1 and Swi6[66]. The trade-off in

protein-protein interactions that we observed in the case of Swi6-Y lends additional support to a

model where Epe1 regulates epigenetic inheritance by attenuating the interaction between Swi6

and heterochromatin maintenance enhancers such as the rixosome (**Figure 6**). Our findings

suggest that the molecular basis for the loss of maintenance in the case of Swi6-K is likely also

mediated by changes in protein-protein interactions. We can rescue the maintenance defect

observed in Swi6-K two ways: through D283 compensatory mutations or by tethering Clr3 at the

ectopic locus (**Supplementary Figure 11**). Given D283 has been previously implicated in FACT

complex binding, our findings suggest these compensatory D283 (H,T, R, S and E) substitutions

may lead to a gain in FACT binding[87]. Additionally, Clr3 tethering has been shown to bypass

essential factors in heterochromatin inheritance, including the rescue of reduced H3K9me

density, increased histone turnover, and impaired heterochromatin positioning at the nuclear

Figure 6. Model for Swi6-CSD-mediated epigenetic inheritance capacity. The CSD amino acid composition in Swi6-WT permits binding to effector proteins that inhibit (Epe1) and promote (Clr3 and rixosome) heterochromatin, leading to restriction of heterochromatin maintenance at the ectopic locus. Upon Swi6-Y mutation, the Epe1 interaction is lost and the rixosome interaction is upregulated, leading to enhanced heterochromatin maintenance. Upon Swi6-K mutation, the Epe1 interaction is lost but the rixosome interaction is not upregulated, leading to defective heterochromatin maintenance. Swi6-Y and Swi6-K are more chromatin-bound than Swi6-WT, indicating the chromatin landscape is altered. The rixosome is recruited to heterochromatin directly by Swi6 for heterochromatin RNA clearance. Chromatin-associated transcripts are processed for subsequent degradation, allowing for Clr4-mediated read-write heterochromatin inheritance. Therefore, our findings support a model where Swi6-mediated effector recruitment, specifically Epe1 and the rixosome, influences epigenetic inheritance of heterochromatin.

periphery[85]. Therefore, the increased recruitment of "maintenance factors" such as Clr3 or FACT

can rescue the defective maintenance in Swi6-K cells. Despite Clr3 having multifaceted rescue

effects on heterochromatin, we could not restore maintenance in a *grc3* V70M background by

tethering Clr3 (**Supplementary Figure 11a**). Therefore, unlike many other essential

maintenance regulators, the requirement for the rixosome cannot be bypassed by Clr3 during

heterochromatin maintenance, which strongly suggests that the rixosome acts downstream of

Clr3-mediated histone deacetylation.

553   Our observations support a model where the basic unit of epigenetic inheritance must

involve multiprotein, Swi6-dependent complexes that assemble using H3K9me chromatin as a

template[24]. This model is consistent both with the Swi6-Y variant having increased chromatin

occupancy and increased interactions with heterochromatin maintenance enhancers such as

the rixosome. We envision that the stable association of Swi6 before and after DNA replication

could have a crucial role in ensuring that epigenetic states remain stable and heritable across

multiple generations. It is possible to envision a scenario where Swi6 binds to H3K9me

heterochromatin, and the protein-protein interaction network that emerges from this binding

makes its inheritance unique and distinct from euchromatin[6].

METHODS

Strains

All mutation, deletion, and tagging strains were generated using published standard protocols, which include PCR-based gene targeting, the SpEDIT CRISPR/Cas9 system, or by a cross followed by random spore analysis[100-102]. All strains used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

Site-directed saturation mutagenesis library generation

The site-directed saturation mutagenesis is adapted from[103]. Primers were designed to contain an "NNN" degenerate sequence at every codon position within the Swi6 coding sequence and were commercially synthesized. A Swi6 plasmid template was generated using topoisomerase-based cloning. The insert sequence was generated by PCR from genomic DNA and included the Swi6 coding sequence with 500-bp flanking homology segments. The library was generated by three-step PCR. The first PCR reaction introduces the degenerate codons, the second extends the truncated PCR products from step 1, and the third adds the necessary homology for recombination at the endogenous Swi6 locus. The library was transformed into a strain where the endogenous Swi6-CSD is deleted with a ura4-kan selection marker. Positive transformants were selected by growth on FOA and loss of G418 resistance. Red or pink colonies on YE (establishment) were subsequently tested on YE+tet (maintenance). Colonies that show maintenance were considered library hits, and the Swi6 mutation was mapped using Sanger sequencing.

Expression and Purification of Recombinant Protein

Swi6 expression and purification approach was adapted based on an earlier study[79]. Swi6 coding sequence was cloned into N-terminal 6XHis-tag–containing pET vectors, and mutants were generated using site-directed mutagenesis. All Swi6 proteins were purified from BL21(DE3)-RIPL *E. coli* cells. Cells were grown at 37°C to OD 0.5 to 0.8 in LB media with ampicillin (100 µg/ml), induced with 0.4 mM isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG), and

were grown for 16 hours at 18°C. Cells were harvested and resuspended in lysis buffer [1×

phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) buffer (pH 7.3), 300 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 0.1% Igepal CA-

630, 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), aprotonin (1 μg/ml), pepstatin A, and

leupeptin] and sonicated. Cell debris was removed by centrifugation at 25,000g for 35 min. Cell

lysates were incubated with HisPur NiNTA resin (Thermo Fisher Scientific) at 4°C for at least 2

hours. The resin was washed with lysis buffer, and protein was eluted [20 mM Hepes (pH 7.5),

100 mM KCl, 10% glycerol, and 500 mM imidazole] and incubated with the corresponding

protease (Ulp1 or TEV) overnight at 4°C. After cleavage of 6XHis-tag, the products were further

isolated by anion exchange chromatography using a HiTRAP Q HP column (Cytiva) and size

exclusion chromatography using a Superdex200 10/300 (Cytiva) column. Proteins were

dialyzed into storage buffer [20 mM Hepes, 100 mM KCl, 10% glycerol, and 1 mM dithiothreitol

(DTT)]. Protein concentrations were determined using ultraviolet (UV) absorption measurements

at 280 nm and molecular weights (MWs) and extinction coefficients computationally determined

for Swi6-WT (MW = 37,292.6 g/mol, ε = 41,035 M^{-1} cm^{-1}), Swi6-L315E (MW = 37,308.6 g/mol, ε

= 41,035 M^{-1} cm^{-1}), Swi6-T278Y (MW = 37,354.7 g/mol, ε = 42,525 M^{-1} cm^{-1}), and Swi6-T278K

(MW = 37,319.7 g/mol, ε = 41,035 M^{-1} cm^{-1}) using the Expasy ProtParam tool. Protein was

further equalized using SDS-PAGE densitometry quantification. Epe1 was purified as described

previously [66]. MBP-His-TEV-Epe1 was cloned into a pFastBac vector (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

and used for Bacmid generation. Low-titer baculoviruses were produced by transfecting Bacmid

into Sf21 cells using Cellfectin II reagent (Gibco). Full-length *S. pombe* Epe1 protein (wild-type

and mutant) was expressed in Hi5 cells infected by high titer baculovirus, amplified from Sf21

cells. After 44 h of infection, Hi5 cells were harvested and lysed in buffer A (30 mM Tris-HCl (pH

8.0), 500 mM NaCl, 5 mM EDTA, 5 mM β-mercaptoethanol with protease inhibitor cocktails)

using Emulsiflex-C3 (Avestin). The cleared cell lysate was applied to Amylose resin (New

England Biolabs), followed by washing with buffer A and elution with buffer A containing 10 mM

maltose. Proteins were further purified using a Superdex 200 (GE Healthcare) size exclusion

column. The protein was concentrated in a storage buffer containing 30 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0),

500 mM NaCl, 30% glycerol, and 1 mM TCEP.

Total protein extraction from *S. pombe*

To detect protein expression in strains containing Swi6 mutants and tagged proteins, protein

extracts were prepared using Trichloroacetic Acid (TCA) precipitation. Strains were grown in

liquid yeast extract supplemented with adenine (YEA) for 16 hours at 32°C, and 7 ODs worth of

cells were harvested. Cell pellets were washed with 1 mL of ice-cold water and resuspended in

150 µL of YEX Buffer (1.85 M NaOH, 7.5% beta-mercaptoethanol). After 10 minutes of

incubation on ice, protein precipitation was performed by adding 150 µL of 50% TCA (~3 N) and

mixing by inversion. The extracts were then incubated for 10 minutes on ice, pelleted by

centrifugation, and excess TCA was carefully removed. The protein extracts were resuspended

in 2X SDS sample buffer (125 mM Tris-Base pH 6.8, 8M urea, 5% SDS, 20% glycerol, 5%

BME) and centrifuged for 5 minutes to clear cell debris. Samples were analyzed by western

blotting, as described below.

Western Blotting

Protein samples were resolved by gel electrophoresis on 4–20% Mini-PROTEAN® TGX

Stain-Free™ Protein Gels. Immunoblotting was performed using the BioRad Trans-Blot Turbo

Transfer System, and transfer was performed at 2.5A and 25V for 7 minutes onto 0.2 µm

Nitrocellulose. Membranes were blocked using 5% non-fat dry milk in Tris-buffered saline pH

7.5 with 0.1% Tween-20 (TBST) for 1 hour. The membrane was then incubated with the primary

antibody at an optimized concentration overnight at 4°C. Following incubation, the membrane

was washed 3 times with TBST and incubated with the appropriate secondary antibody for 1

hour at room temperature. After the incubation, the membrane was washed 3 times with TBST

and incubated with SuperSignal West Pico/Femto PLUS Chemiluminescent Substrate. The

membrane was imaged for chemiluminescence on a Bio-Rad ChemiDoc. For quantitative Swi6

western, an Alexa Fluor 647 conjugated secondary antibody (A-21246, Invitrogen) was used

and imaged using the Alexa Fluor 647 filter on a BioRad ChemiDoc.

Coimmunoprecipitation to detect Epe1-Swi6 interaction

CoIP experiments were performed as described previously[66]. 1.5 L of fission yeast cells

were grown in YEA medium at 32°C to an OD_{600} = 3.5 and harvested by centrifugation. The cell

pellets were washed with 10 ml TBS pH 7.5, resuspended in 1.5 ml lysis buffer (30 mM HEPES

pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, 0.25% Triton X-100, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM DTT), and the cell suspension

was snap-frozen into liquid nitrogen drop-wise and cryogenically ground using a SPEX 6875D

Freezer Mill. The frozen cell powder was stored at -80°C, thawed at room temperature, and

resuspended in an additional 10 ml of lysis buffer with a protease inhibitor cocktail and 1 mM

PMSF. Cell lysates were subjected to two rounds of centrifugation at 18000 rpm for 5 and 30

mins in a JA-25.50 rotor (Beckman). Protein levels were normalized for coimmunoprecipitation

and immunoblot analysis using a Bradford Assay. Protein G Magnetic Beads were pre-

incubated with V5 antibody (A01724, Genscript) for 4 h and crosslinked with 10 volumes of

crosslinking buffer containing 20 mM DMP (3 mg DMP/ml of 0.2 M Boric Acid pH 9) for 30 min

at room temperature by rotating. Crosslinking was quenched by washing twice and incubated

with 0.2 M ethanolamine pH 8 for 2 h at room temperature. The cell lysates were then incubated

with antibody crosslinked beads for 3 h at 4°C. Beads were washed thrice in 1 ml lysis buffer for

5 mins each, then eluted with 500 μl of 10 mM ammonium hydroxide. The ammonium hydroxide

was evaporated using a speed vac (SPC-100H) for 5 h and resuspended in SDS sample buffer.

Samples were resolved using SDS–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and

transferred to PVDF membranes. Immunoblotting was performed by blocking the PVDF

membrane in Tris-buffered saline (TBS) pH 7.5 with 0.1% Tween-20 (TBST) containing 5% non-

fat dry milk and subsequently probed with desired primary antibodies and secondary antibodies.

Blots were developed by enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) method and detected using a

Bio-Rad ChemiDoc Imaging System.

***In vitro* binding assay to detect Epe1-Swi6 interaction**

In vitro binding assays were performed by immobilizing recombinant 3X FLAG-Swi6 on

25 µl of FLAG M2 beads, which were incubated with three different concentrations of

recombinant MBP-Epe1 fusion proteins in 600 µl binding buffer containing 20 mM HEPES pH

7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 10% glycerol, 0.25% Triton -X 100, 1 mM DTT. Reactions were

incubated at 4°C for 2 h and washed three times in 1 ml washing buffer (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5,

150 mM NaCl, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 10% glycerol, 0.25% Triton -X 100, 1 mM DTT) for 5 min each, then

30µl of SDS sample buffer was added followed by incubation at 95°C for 5 min. Proteins were

separated through SDS-PAGE and transferred to a PVDF membrane followed by incubation

with anti-MBP monoclonal antibody (E8032S, NEB) and M2 Flag antibody (A8592, Sigma).

Western blot data for *in vitro* binding assays were analyzed using ImageJ software. The

exposure times for the interaction assays were chosen and differed in each experiment to

capture differences in the interaction between Epe1 and Swi6 depending on the assay

conditions. Assays performed on different blots cannot be compared, but samples loaded on the

same blot can be readily compared.

Tandem-mass tag affinity purification mass spec

Protein levels were normalized between the triplicate samples by silver stain. Dried

eluates were sent to the Thermo Fisher Center for Multiplexed Proteomics at Harvard Medical

School for further processing and analysis. Dried samples were resuspended in 20 mM EPPS,

pH 8.5. Samples were reduced with TCEP, alkylated with iodoacetamide, and further reduced

with DTT. Proteins were extracted with SP3 beads. Samples were digested overnight at room

temperature with Lys-C, followed by digestion with trypsin for 6 hours at 37˚C. Protein samples

were labeled with TMTPro reagents, and complete labeling was confirmed. All samples were

pooled and desalted by stage-tip. Peptides were analyzed on an Orbitrap Eclipse Mass

Spectrometer. MS2 spectra were searched using the COMET algorithm against an *S. pombe*

Uniprot composite database (downloaded in 2023) containing its reversed complement and

known contaminants. For proteome, Peptide spectral matches were filtered to a 1% false

discovery rate (FDR) using the target-decoy strategy combined with linear discriminant analysis.

The proteins were filtered to a <1% FDR and quantified only from peptides with a summed SN

threshold of >120.

Silencing Assays

Cells were grown in 3 ml of yeast extract containing adenine (YEA) at 32°C overnight.

Cells were washed twice in water and then resuspended to a concentration of `~10^7 cells/ml.

Ten-fold serial dilutions (~5μL) were plated on YE plates to evaluate establishment and

YE+AHT to evaluate maintenance. Plates were incubated for 2-3 days before the results were

cataloged.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP)

For H3K9me2 and H3K9me3 ChIP, 30 ml of cells were grown to late log phase (OD_{600}-

1.8-2.2) in yeast extract supplemented with adenine (YEA) or YEA containing tetracycline (2.5

μg/ml) and fixed with 1% formaldehyde for 15 min at room temperature (RT). For TAP ChIP, 25

ml of cells were grown to late log phase (OD_{600}-1.8-2.2) in yeast extract supplemented with

adenine (YEA) or YEA containing tetracycline (2.5 μg/ml) and then grown for 2 hrs at 18°C.

Cells were crosslinked with 1.5 mM ethylene glycol bis(succinimidyl succinate) (EGS) for 30 min

at RT and then 1% formaldehyde for 30 min. 130 mM glycine was added to quench the reaction

and incubated for 5 min at RT. The cells were harvested by centrifugation and washed with TBS

(50 mM Tris, pH 7.6, 500 mM NaCl). Cell pellets were resuspended in 300 μL lysis buffer (50

mM HEPES-KOH, pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, 1mM EDTA, 1% Triton X-100, 0.1% SDS, and

protease inhibitors) to which 500 μL 0.5 mm glass beads were added. Cell lysis was carried out

by bead beating using Omni Bead Ruptor at 3000 rpm x 30sec x 10 cycles. Tubes were

punctured, and the flow-through was collected in a new tube by centrifugation, which was

subjected to sonication to obtain fragment sizes of roughly 100-500 bp long. After sonication,

the extract was centrifuged for 15 min at 13000 rpm at 4°C. The soluble chromatin was

transferred to a fresh tube and normalized for protein concentration by Bradford assay. For each

normalized sample, 25 µL lysate was saved as input, to which 225 µL of 1xTE/1% SDS were

added (TE: 50 mM Tris pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA). Protein A Dynabeads were preincubated with

H3K9me2 antibody (Abcam, ab1220) or H3K9me3 antibody (39161, Active Motif). For each

immunoprecipitation, we used 2 µg H3K9me2 antibody (Abcam, ab1220) and 2 µg H3K9me3

antibody (39161, Active Motif). For TAP ChIP, Dynabeads Pan Mouse IgG (Invitrogen, 11042)

were used. Samples were incubated for 3h at 4°C. The beads were collected on magnetic

stands and washed 3 times with 1 mL lysis buffer and once with 1 mL TE. For eluting bound

chromatin, 100 µL elution buffer I (50 mM Tris pH 8.0, 10 mM EDTA, 1% SDS) was added, and

the samples were incubated at 65°C for 5 min. The eluate was collected and incubated with 150

µL 1xTE/0.67% SDS in the same way. Input and immunoprecipitated samples were incubated

overnight at 65°C to reverse crosslink. 60 µg glycogen, 100 µg proteinase K (Roche), 44 µL of

5M LiCl, and 250 µL of 1xTE were added to each sample, and incubation was continued at

55°C for 1h. Phenol/chloroform extraction was carried out for all the samples, followed by

ethanol precipitation. Immuno-precipitated DNA was resuspended in 100 µL of 10 mM Tris pH

7.5 and 50 mM NaCl. ChIP experiments were analyzed using quantitative PCR with Taq

polymerase and SYBR Green using a CFX Opus 384 Real-Time PCR System. PCR primers are

listed in Supplementary Table 2.

ChIP-Seq library preparation and processing

ChIP-seq libraries were prepared and processed as described previously[25]. Libraries

were constructed using the manufacturer's guidelines in the NEBNext® Ultra™ II FS DNA

Library Prep Kit for Illumina, using 1ng of starting material. Barcoded libraries were pooled and

sequenced with next-generation sequencing. First, raw reads were demultiplexed by barcode.

Then, the sequences were trimmed with Trimmomatic, aligned with BWA, and normalized by

reads per million [104,105]. The reads were visualized with IGV.

RNA extraction

10 mL of cells were grown to late log phase (OD_{600}-1.8-2.2) in yeast extract

supplemented with adenine. Cells were resuspended in 750 μL TES buffer (0.01 M Tris pH7.5,

0.01 M EDTA, 0.5% SDS). Immediately, 750 μL of acidic phenol-chloroform was added and

vortexed for 2 minutes. Samples were incubated at 65°C for 40 minutes while vortexing for 20

seconds every ten minutes. The aqueous phase was separated by centrifuging in Phase Lock

tubes for 5 minutes at 13000 rpm at 4°C. The aqueous phase was transferred to new tubes, and

ethanol precipitated. After extraction, RNA was treated with DNase. Then, the RNA was cleaned

using RNeasy Mini kits (Qiagen). cDNA was prepared using oligodT and SuperScript III

Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen). The cDNA was then used for qPCR with SYBR Green and

Taq polymerase on a CFX OPUS 384 Real-Time PCR System. RNA levels were quantified

using ΔC_T compared to tubulin (tub1) RNA levels. PCR primers are listed in Supplementary

Table 2.

Mass Photometry

All mass photometry experiments were performed using full-length recombinant Swi6

protein at the Center for Macromolecular Interactions at Harvard Medical School using a Refeyn

TwoMP instrument. Before taking measurements, the instrument was calibrated using a protein

standard containing 10 nM β-amylase (Sigma Aldrich A8781) and 3 nM Thyroglobulin (Sigma-

Aldrich 609310). Swi6 proteins were diluted to 100 nM in 20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 100 mM KCl

immediately before taking measurements. For each measurement, the objective was focused

using 20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 100 mM KCl, and the corresponding volume of 100 nM Swi6 was

added to the droplet to achieve the desired final concentration (2.5-20 nM). Sample data was

collected immediately. Figures and Gaussian fits of the resulting data were generated using the

Refeyn DiscoverMP software. Apparent dimerization constants (K_{dim}) were determined by

relative molecular abundance of the monomer and dimer populations at known Swi6

concentrations[77,106].

AlphaFold2-multimer (AF-M) structural prediction

769 AlphaFold2 Multimer was used to predict protein-protein interactions using the Cosmic[2]

770 Science Gateway server[74,107]. In all cases, we obtained 5 models with 3 recycles, and all

771 structures were unrelaxed. Protein structures were plotted using Chimera[108]. We further

772 analyzed our structures using a published pipeline to determine interface statistics from

773 predicted multimer structural models[109]. This pipeline identifies all interchain interactions within 8

774 angstroms across all five models. The pipeline also provides several metrics to score the

775 confidence of the predicted multimer interfaces accounting for the consistency of interactions

776 and pLDDT scores across all models (**Supplementary Figures 4f, 5f, 6f, 10f**).

777 *S. pombe* **live-cell imaging**

778 Yeast strains containing a copy of PAmCherry-Swi6 or a PAmCherry-Swi6 mutant under

779 the control of the native Swi6 promoter were grown in standard complete YES media (US

780 Biological, catalog no. Y2060) containing the full complement of yeast amino acids and

781 incubated overnight at 32°C. This initial culture was diluted and incubated at 25°C with shaking

782 to reach an optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600}) of ~0.5. To maintain cells in an exponential phase

783 and eliminate extranuclear vacuole formation, the culture was maintained at OD_{600} ~0.5 for 2

784 days, diluting at ~12-hour intervals. To prepare agarose pads for imaging, cells were pipetted

785 onto a pad of 2% agarose prepared in YES media with 0.1 mM *N*-propyl gallate (Sigma-Aldrich,

786 catalog no. P-3130) and 1% gelatin (Millipore, catalog no. 04055) as additives to reduce

787 phototoxicity during imaging. *S. pombe* cells were imaged at room temperature with a 100x 1.40

788 numerical aperture (NA) oil-immersion objective in an Olympus IX-71 inverted microscope. First,

789 the fluorescent background was decreased by exposure to 488 nm light (Coherent Sapphire,

790 200 W/cm^2 for 20 to 40 s). A 406-nm laser (Coherent Cube, 405-100; 102 W/cm^2) was used for

791 photoactivation (200-ms activation time), and a 561-nm laser (Coherent Sapphire, 561-50; 163

792 W/cm^2) was used for imaging. Images were acquired at 40-ms exposure time per frame. The

793 fluorescence emission was filtered with a Semrock LL02-561-12.5 long-pass filter and a Chroma

ZT488/561rpc 488/561 dichroic mirror to eliminate the 561 nm excitation source and imaged

using a 512 × 512-pixel Photometrics Evolve EMCCD camera.

Single-molecule trajectory analysis

Recorded Swi6-PAmCherry single-molecule positions were detected and localized with

two-dimensional Gaussian fitting with home-built MATLAB software as previously described and

connected into trajectories using the Hungarian algorithm[110-112]. These single-molecule trajectory

datasets were analyzed by a nonparametric Bayesian framework to reveal heterogeneous

dynamics [80]. This SMAUG algorithm uses nonparametric Bayesian statistics and Gibbs

sampling to identify the number of distinct mobility states in the single molecule tracking dataset

in an iterative manner. It also infers parameters, including weight fraction and average apparent

diffusion coefficient for each mobility state, assuming a Brownian motion model. To ensure that

even rare events were captured, we collected more than 10,000 steps in our single-molecule

tracking dataset for each measured strain, and we ran the algorithm over >10,000 iterations to

achieve a thoroughly mixed state space. The state number and associated parameters were

updated in each iteration of the SMAUG algorithm and saved after convergence. The final

estimation shows the data after convergence for iterations with the most frequent state number.

Each mobility state is assigned a distinct color, and for each saved iteration, the average

diffusion coefficient of that state is plotted against the weight fraction. The distributions of

estimates over the iterations give the uncertainty in the determination of the parameters. For

measurement of static molecules in fixed *S. pombe* cells, SMAUG converges to a single state

with D_{avg} = 0.0041 ± 0.0003 μm^2/s. The average localization error for single-molecule

localizations in this fixed-cell imaging is 32.6 nm. To benchmark against a model that overcomes

potential overfitting of the Bayesian model, we also applied the DPSP package to acquire the

posterior occupancy distribution for diffusion coefficients of Swi6 and variants [81]. The DPSP

package uses a Dirichlet process mixture model to acquire the posterior probability distribution

for each dataset. The same trajectory datasets used in SMAUG analysis were stored in csv

format and analyzed with the Python package DPSP under default parameter settings and

corresponding pixel size and frame interval (https://github.com/alecheckert/dpsp).

Nucleosome Electrophoretic Mobility Shift Assays (EMSAs)

Samples were prepared by varying concentrations of Swi6 while keeping substrate

concentration, i.e. 10 nM mononucleosomes (H3K9me0 and H3K9me3, Epicypher catalog nos.

16-0006 and 16-0315-20) constant in binding buffer [20 mM Hepes (pH 7.5), 4 mM tris, 80 mM

KCl, 0.1% Igepal CA-630, 0.2 mM EDTA, 2 mM DTT, and 10% glycerol]. Samples were

incubated at 30°C for 45 min. A 0.5x tris-borate EDTA 6% acrylamide:bis-acrylamide 37.5:1 gel

was pre-run at RT for at least 1 hour at 75 V. Reactions were loaded on the gel and ran under

the same conditions for 3 hours. Gels were poststained for 2 hours with polyacrylamide gel

electrophoresis (PAGE) GelRed DNA stain (Biotium) and imaged using a Typhoon Imager. The

unbound nucleosome band was quantified using ImageJ, and binding curves were fit using

nonlinear regression (Prism 9).

DATA AVAILABILITY

Sequencing data has been deposited in GEO under accession code GSE248428. The mass

spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via

the PRIDE partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD047651[113,114]. Source data are

provided with this paper.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

A.A. and K.R. developed the concept, designed the study, interpreted the findings, and prepared

the manuscript. A.A., M.S., A. Larkin, G.R., Z.C., and A. Levashkevich. performed experimental

studies and analysis. B.K. contributed to experimental studies. M.S., A. Larkin, G.R., Z.C., A.

Levashkevich, and J.S.B. provided technical support, conceptual advice, and edited the

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