Title: Single residue changes to the histone core catalyze neofunctionalization and impose

fitness trade-offs

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Abstract: Histones are among the most conserved proteins in the eukaryotic genome, and their function is thought to be largely invariant across species. Here, we tested this assumption, examining over a billion years of the essential histone H2A.Z's evolution in a single synthetic host. We identify single residue substitutions within the H2A.Z core domain that led to its neofunctionalization. Such H2A.Z neomorphs are distinct by their ability to directly interact with the transcription apparatus, rewiring gene expression genome-wide by tuning transcription processivity. Our results reveal that even changes of single residues within the histones core domain can transform their function, catalysing the rapid emergence of phenotypic diversity by directly imposing both fitness opportunities and costs. We propose that the entire histone sequence has the potential to evolve new regulatory relationships, providing a framework to understand the mechanistic underpinnings of disease-associated histone mutations.

Main Text

Histone proteins are nearly invariant across eukaryotes,[1] constrained by their central position in genome biology from DNA packaging[2] and repair[3] to transcription.[4-6] Indicative of this, histone mutation at the scale of even single residues is costly: so-called oncohistone mutations are potent drivers of human disease,[7-10] and species barriers among histone proteins can arise with only a handful of changes.[11] Yet, diverse histone forms have evolved,[1,12] and are central to regulating fundamental biological processes such as development,[13,14] suggesting changes in histones sequence also afford adaptive opportunities. In this frame, it remains unknown how histones can navigate their constraints to acquire new functions with only small sequence changes, and what forces balance such changes. We examined over a billion years of the essential histone H2A.Z's evolution using the fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* as a synthetic chassis.[11,15-17] Single substitutions within the histone core domain loop 2 (L2) region were sufficient to drive emergent transcriptional properties, in turn reshaping the cell's response to abiotic stress. Such neomorphic H2A.Zs often acquired a protein–protein interaction between the L2 and transcription elongation factor Spt6, driving its recruitment to chromatin and increasing polymerase processivity *in vivo*. Together, our findings demonstrate how histones can, through even single residue changes, acquire new functions. Further, they highlight the potential for neofunctionalization within the histone core domain. These molecular insights offer a window into the events driving chromatin's evolution and identify potential new avenues of investigation to understand the molecular pathology of the thousands of oncohistone mutations[10] yet to be characterized.

Diverse H2A.Zs from Extant Eukaryotes Encode Emergent Functions

To investigate the mechanisms by which histones can acquire new functions, we focused on the essential histone H2A.Z. H2A.Z is among the most conserved histone proteins encoded

by eukaryotic genomes,[1] where it has been linked to transcription regulation.[18-20] We first

constructed a database of H2A.Z sequences from the EukProt database[21] (Extended Data Figs.

1, 2a, & 3; Table S1; Data File S1; Methods). As previously suggested from analyses of smaller

datasets,[1,22] we found that H2A.Z forms a monophyletic clade that spans eukaryotic diversity

(Extended Data Figs. 2b & 3a). Importantly, we found H2A.Z orthologs in deep-branching

clades like Metamonada that were previously thought to lack H2A.Z (Extended Data Fig. 2b).[23]

Thus, the phylogenetic distribution points to H2A.Z being present in the last eukaryotic

common ancestor (LECA), whilst being broadly retained throughout the evolution of

eukaryotes.

We selected nine H2A.Z sequences from across the phylogenetic tree (Fig. 1a; Extended

Data Figs. 2b & 4a, Data File S2), chosen to maximize the number of eukaryotic supergroups

represented and their total sequence diversity. Although they span more than a billion years of

evolution, representative H2A.Zs were ~65–90% identical in their core domain (excluding the

highly divergent N- and C-terminal tail regions; Extended Data Fig. 4b), highlighting their high

degree of conservation.

To test whether transcription is impacted by sequence diversity in these nine

representative H2A.Z proteins, we generated yeast lines replacing the sole endogenous H2A.Z

gene (*pht1*) with one of these orthologs (Fig. 1b). We then assessed global transcriptome

changes using strand-specific mRNA-seq using WT and an H2A.Z deletion mutant (*pht1Δ*) as

references. Whereas *pht1Δ* cells exhibited modest transcriptional changes, affecting ~10% of

detected transcripts (Extended Data Fig. 4c), H2A.Z replacement lines showed changes in ~12–

23% of detected transcripts when compared with WT (Extended Data Fig. 4c). Further,

principal component analysis of their transcriptomes revealed that transcriptomes of H2A.Z

replacement lines were distinct from both WT and *pht1Δ* (Fig. 1c). These data indicate that

H2A.Zs from different species are not graded loss-of-function alleles, rather giving rise to

sequence-specific emergent transcriptional states.

We next asked how transcriptional variation in H2A.Z from different species impacts

phenotype. To do this, we assessed the growth of H2A.Z replacement lines under stress

conditions targeting metabolism (rapamycin[24]), protein folding (low-dose guanidinium

hydrochloride[25]), cell wall biogenesis (the anti-fungal drug clotrimazole[26]), fermentation

(ethanol[27]), or chromatin and genome function (doxorubicin,[28] formamide[29], and caffeine[30])

(Fig. 1d). Surprisingly, H2A.Z replacement lines generally grew more slowly than *pht1Δ* cells

(Fig. 1d; Extended Data Fig. 5a–c), with sequence divergence from *S. pombe* Pht1 strongly

inversely correlating with growth (Fig. 1e, Extended Data Fig. 5d). By contrast, we saw no

strong correlation between the level of H2A.Z expression and growth (Extended Data Fig. 5d–

e), indicating that these effects were not attributable to differential expression of H2A.Z.

Together, these data link primary sequence variation in H2A.Z from different species to

emergent functional variation, suggesting they are neomorphs.

Single Residue H2A.Z Core Domain L2 Substitutions Are Sufficient for Neofunctionalization

We next asked which H2A.Z sequence changes could drive neofunctionalization. Recent

reports have suggested that the histone core domain, particularly the solvent-accessible[31] M6

region surrounding the loop 2 (L2) is essential for H2A.Z function.[32,33] Consistent with this,

we found that the L2 alone was sufficient to complement *pht1Δ* (Extended Data Fig. 6a–e),

and it was among the most conserved regions in H2A.Z across all sequences in our dataset

(Fig. 2a; Extended Data Fig. 3). Further, L2 sequence divergence relative to WT *S. pombe* Pht1

was the best correlated with the transcriptional changes observed in full-length H2A.Z

replacement experiments ($\rho = 0.63$, $p < 10^{-3}$, Fig. 2b; Extended Data Fig. 6f), suggesting it

alone is a strong predictor of neofunctionalization of H2A.Z impact on transcriptomes.

To test whether H2A.Z L2 sequence variation was sufficient to propel

neofunctionalization, we first constructed a transcription reporter for H2A.Z using the uracil

biosynthesis gene *ura4* (Extended Data Fig. 7a–d). In this assay, the amount of transcription

of *ura4* is directly related to the amount of growth in media lacking uracil (Fig. 2c), allowing

rapid genetic interrogation of the importance of each individual residue in the L2. We thus

tested whether individual substitutions within the L2s from representative species (Extended

Data Fig. 4a) were sufficient to change expression of the reporter relative to either WT or *pht1Δ*

cells (Fig. 2d). Whereas *pht1Δ* cells had modestly increased reporter expression (Fig. 2e), L2

point variants were generally stronger. Indeed, half of L2 substitutions exhibited a strong

increase (by ~1.3–1.5 fold) or decrease (by ~2 fold) in reporter expression (Fig. 2e).

Importantly, Pht1 L2 variants did not have general fitness defects (Extended Data Fig. 7e).

Further, Pht1 L2 variant incorporation into chromatin was required for them to impact to

transcription because, in absence of the H2A.Z-depositing Swr1 complex (*swc2Δ*

background[34,35]), all differences in L2 variants relative to WT, except for L83M, were

abrogated (Extended Data Fig. 7f). Finally, we checked whether Pht1 L2 variants were

sensitive or resistant to the transcription inhibitor MPA.[36] In this assay, Pht1 L2 variants were

either sensitive (L83M) or robust (*pht1Δ*, L83N, K86Q, and L83F) to treatment (Extended Data

Fig. 7g), supporting their impact on transcription in reporter assays. Together, these data

establish that even single-residue H2A.Z L2 variants can generate transcriptional states distinct

from either WT or *pht1Δ* and are therefore transcriptional neomorphs.

Having established a genetic link between L2 neomorphs and transcription, we next

examined their genomic impact. Consistent with results of our reporter assays, differential

expression analysis of gene body-located nascent transcripts in WT and *pht1Δ* lines, a measure

of active transcription obtained by qPRO-seq,[37,38] showed a modest increase in transcription in

pht1Δ cells (Fig. 2f). Further, the strongest mutants in our reporter assays exhibited ~50%

greater increase in transcription than in *pht1Δ* (Fig. 2f). Interestingly, the single neomorph that did not concur with our reporter assays, L83M, nevertheless had decreased *ura4* mRNA levels (Extended Data Fig. 7c), and was the only tested variant to impact nucleosome stability (Extended Data Fig. 7h), suggesting it acts indirectly on transcription. To measure the impact of enrichment of the diverse forms of Pht1 we used ChIP-seq to obtain their genomic profiles. Whereas overall levels of Pht1 were similar across L2 neomorphs, we did note a loss of TSS enrichment in all neomorphs (Extended Data Fig. 8a). However, such changes were not correlated with transcriptional output genome-wide (Extended Data Fig. 8b). Taken with L2 neomorphs being genetically downstream of their deposition by Swr1-C (Extended Data Fig. 7f), these observations suggest that changes to Pht1 genomic distribution are downstream of their impact on transcription. Together, these data establish that sequence variation in the core L2 region of H2A.Z is sufficient to transform its transcriptional impact on the genome.

H2A.Z Neomorphs Rewire Its Interaction with The Transcription Apparatus

We next investigated whether the impact of H2A.Z neomorphs on the transcription apparatus was direct. In the context of the nucleosome, the L2 region of H2A.Z is solvent accessible,[39] suggesting it could form protein–protein interactions. From our qPRO-seq analysis, we observed the strongest effects specifically on transcription elongation, as indicated both by the large increase in gene body nascent transcripts relative to WT (Fig. 2f) and resistance to the inhibitor MPA, which preferentially inhibits transcription elongation[36] (Extended Data Fig. 7g). Taking these together, we wondered whether L2 neomorphs might gain an interactor involved in transcription elongation. Previous reports have established an antagonistic relationship between H2A.Z[40] and the transcription elongation factor Spt6, which both regulates transcription processivity.[41,42] We wondered whether L2 neomorphs might modify this relationship. To ascertain whether this is a possibility, we first performed an

unbiased AlphaFold2 Multimer[43] interaction screen for WT and single-residue variants of the

L2 core motif from our database of H2A.Z sequences (Extended Data Fig. 3, Data File S1)

against the *S. pombe* nuclear proteome.[44,45] We then examined which predicted interactions

varied with L2 sequence (Extended Data Fig. 9a–b). Spt6 emerged as amongst the highest

variance interactors in this dataset (Extended Data Fig. 9c; Supplementary Table S3, S4), often

gaining a strong interaction score relative to WT Pht1. Further, it was the only potential

interactor that combined highly robust folding models across multiple simulations (Extended

Data Fig. 9d) and predicted structures closely matching experimentally derived structures

(Extended Data Fig. 9e).

164   To test these *in silico* predictions, we first established an *in vitro* pulldown assay using

recombinantly expressed and purified Spt6, finding an interaction between H2A.Z and Spt6

was possible either with full-length Pht1 (Extended Data Fig. 9f–h), or a peptide corresponding

only to the L2 (Fig. 3a–b). To test whether L2 sequence variation could impact the Spt6–L2

interaction, we next synthesized selected H2A.Z L2s from different species in our test set

(Extended Data Fig. 4a), as well as a pair of the two most extreme single-residue neomorphs

from our transcription assays (Fig. 2d–e) and assayed their binding to Spt6 (Fig. 3a–b).

Variation in Pht1 L2 sequence was sufficient to influence the amount bound to Spt6 (Fig. 3b).

These data establish that the L2 region alone is sufficient to account for the interaction of Pht1

with Spt6.

174   We next investigated the consequences of the interaction between L2 neomorphs and

Spt6 on transcription elongation *in vivo*. To do this, we performed ChIP-seq against Spt6 in

either WT or L2 neomorphs (Fig. 3c), comparing the results to transcriptional output as

measured by qPRO-seq. Generally, *pht1* mutants lead to increased Spt6 levels genome wide

(Fig. 3c–g; Extended Data Fig. 10a, except L83G), with Spt6 levels increasing moderately in

pht1Δ cells relative to WT (Fig. 3d–e), and extremely in L2 neomorphs (Fig. 3f–g; Extended

Data Fig. 10a). Given Spt6's link to stimulating RNAPII processivity,[41,42] we next asked

whether increased Spt6 enrichment in chromatin was associated with increased processivity.

To do this, we used qPRO-seq data to calculate the ratio of nascent transcripts at the end of a

gene relative to those near the transcription start site (TSS), a metric known as the completion

score that reflects changes in RNAPII processivity.[41] Increased Spt6 levels associated with *pht1*

mutants generally positively correlated with higher transcription completion scores (Fig. 3h;

Extended Data Fig. 10b), and there was an essentially perfect correlation between the global

increase in Spt6 levels for a given L2 neomorph and global processivity increases ($\rho = 1$, $p <$

0.02; Fig. 3i). Together, these results establish a direct link between L2 neomorphs acquisition

of a protein–protein interaction with Spt6, its recruitment to chromatin, and transcription

stimulation.

L2 Neomorphs Balance Phenotypic Opportunities and Costs Through Transcriptional

Regulation

Finally, we considered why, despite apparent regulatory potential, L2 neomorphs are

only rarely found in naturally occurring sequences. To do this, we expanded our analysis

beyond natural variation by performing deep scanning mutagenesis[48] of the 7-residue H2A.Z

L2 core motif. Briefly, we generated a library of all 133 possible single residue substitutions

using a scarless CRISPR-based strategy[49] (Fig. 4a). Remarkably, this yielded a wide range of

transcriptional states (Fig. 4b; Extended Data Fig. 11a), with each position within the L2 having

a unique profile (Fig. 4c). Indeed, although many positions could lead to similar transcriptional

output, it was rare that the same amino acid substitution led to the same outcome at different

positions. For example, whereas arginine was activating at position L83, it was repressive at

position K86. The only exception was proline, which had a position-independent stimulating

effect (Extended Data Fig. 12a). Together these results establish that both position and amino

acid identity in the L2 are integrated to define a broad spectrum of transcriptional outputs.

Although many activities are in principle possible, we wondered whether nature retains

certain variants over others. We identified only 12 L2 neomorphs that occur in nature

(Hamming distance=1 relative to WT *S. pombe* Pht1; Data File S1), as well as a pair of

oncohistone mutants (Fig. 4b).[10] Whereas oncohistone mutants were neutral-to-activating side

of the distribution, natural L2 sequences were notably depleted from this side of the distribution

($p < 0.01$; Extended Data Fig 11b–c). This led us to ask why activating variants, which we

found were associated with gaining a direct protein–protein interaction with transcription, were

not favoured in natural sequences. Although phenotypically neutral under defined conditions

(Extended Data Fig. 7e), we found that transcriptionally-activating neomorphs had a growth

advantage under nutrient-replete media (YES) conditions ($\rho = 0.69$, $p < 10^{-5}$; Fig. 4d–e).

Notably, such metabolic conditions parallel those experienced by early-stage tumour growth.[50]

By contrast, either a mild heat,[51] RNA metabolism,[29] or ethanol stress eliminated or even

reversed this relationship ($\rho = -0.68$, $p < 10^{-6}$; Fig. 4d,f–h). Thus, whereas under relatively

favourable conditions, L2 neomorphs acquiring a direct connection to transcription offers a

strong phenotypic advantage, under stressful conditions, this relationship is neutral or even

detrimental. Together, these data suggest that L2 neomorphs can drive neofunctionalization of

histones and influence organismal fitness in different environmental conditions.

Discussion

Here we describe how the essential histone H2A.Z neofunctionalizes, providing

evidence that one of the fundamental mechanisms by which histones can acquire new functions

is by establishing protein–protein interactions between the histone core domain and the

transcriptional apparatus. Examining naturally occurring sequences in a synthetic system, we

find that even single amino acid substitutions within the 7-amino-acid long histone core domain

loop 2 (L2) of H2A.Z is a powerful source of new regulatory potential. Indeed, H2A.Z L2

neomorphs often gain an interaction with transcription elongation factor Spt6, driving its

recruitment to chromatin and increase transcription processivity. Finally, we detail the

consequences of the L2 neomorph–Spt6 regulatory relationship, demonstrating that it presents

both phenotypic opportunities, affording phenotypic advantage under favourable conditions,

but also imposing a cost in stressful environments. Together, our results provide a mechanism

whereby a single residue change in a conserved protein can rewire global gene expression and

precipitate phenotypic diversification.

The core histone fold domain has long been known to be important for the interaction

with DNA and the stability and structure of the nucleosome.[20,52-59] Our findings reveal an

additional layer of potential regulation by highlighting an expanded landscape of protein–

protein interactions between the histone core and the transcription apparatus. We show that

even the smallest possible unit of change to amino acid sequence can lead to a complete change

in a histone's function. This highlights the evolutionary power of ultra-conserved proteins for

functional innovation, suggesting that functional and phenotypic change do not always require

large-scale changes to achieve emergent activities. In this frame, we anticipate that histones,

and by extension nucleosomes, encode a diverse repertoire of regulatory mechanisms that yet

await description.

Finally, our results posit a new framework to understand oncohistone mutations

associated with various cancers.[10] Although there have already been efforts to understand the

mechanistic basis of oncohistones,[60-62] thousands remain uncharacterized.[10] We find that many

independent mutants converge on similar mechanisms, it highlights the possibility that,

whereas most oncohistone mutants are associated with specific types of cancers, patients, and

even tumors, they may converge on similar mechanisms. Our results outline an experimental

approach whereby gain-of-function, emergent effects of such mutants can be identified and

dissected, opening the door to new potential therapeutic avenues.

Methods

Histone Dataset Construction

To investigate H2A.Z sequence diversity across eukaryotes, we sought to identify

H2A.Z orthologs using a phylogenetic approach. First, to identify proteins homologous to a

specific core histone (i.e. to H2A rather than H2B, H3, or H4), we used HHMer[63] to build

specific HMM models (command = hmmbuild --amino) for each of the four core histones from

curated histone sequences in HistoneDB 2.0.[64] The resulting models retrieve all except one

histone variant in HistoneDB (H2A.P from *Heterocephalus glaber,* annotated as 'Huntingtin-

interacting protein M') and hit the wrong core histone in only three instances. This suggests

that the models are both sensitive and specific and can be used to discriminate different core

histones from each other with reasonably accuracy. We therefore proceeded to search for hits

against each model (hmmsearch –noali) in the EukProt protein database (v2, accessed on 01-

12-2020),[21] retaining only hits with an E-value < 0.001. With this filter, the probability that a

given histone is hit by more than one core histone-specific HMM is relatively low (Extended

Data Fig. 1a).

To determine whether separate HMM models for each H2A *variant* could be used to

identify H2A *variants* by homologous search alone, we build models in the same manner as

above (using curated H2A variants from HistoneDB) and then searched EukProt and

HistoneDB 2.0. Variant HMM models hit the correct HistoneDB H2A variant in most

instances, but a given variant is often also hit by additional variant models (Extended Data Fig.

1b). Even though E-values can be used to identify the correct variant in most instances

(Extended Data Fig. 1c), we consider this level of specificity insufficient for robust

identification of H2A variants and therefore proceeded with homologs identified by the initial

H2A HMM as the starting point for tree building. Histones also hit by another core histone

HMM were only retained if the H2A model returned the best E-value.

Tree Building

To facilitate tree building, we only retained putative H2A orthologs shorter than 400 amino acids and only considered H2As from species with hits against all four core histone HMMs (568 out of 742 species). Some species, including metazoa and plants, encode many more H2A paralogs than others. To balance the dataset, we retained a maximum of five species per supergroup, eliminating species semi-randomly (prioritising coverage of different Eukprot lineages). The resulting dataset contains 839 putative H2As from 127 species (Extended Data Fig. 3).

These putative H2A sequences were aligned using MAFFT (command= mafft --localpair --maxiterate 1000)[65]. ModelTest-NG[66] was used to determine the best fit model of evolution to be used for tree building (WAG+G4), which was done using RAxML-NG (command = raxml-ng --msa --model WAG+G4 --seed 2)[67]. Sequences associated with long branches (Extended Data Fig. 3a) were manually inspected but not removed as their presence does not affect conclusions. Trees were plotted using iTOL.[68]

Yeast Culture, Strain Manipulation, and Phenotypic Assays

All strains used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table S5. Yeast (*S. pombe* 972 *h*-) were cultured under standard conditions (32 ºC). Unless otherwise stated, media used were either EMM2 (Edinburgh Minimal Media)[69] or YES (Yeast Extract with Supplements).[70]

S. pombe strains were manipulated either using one-step PCR-based HR mutagenesis[71] or the SpEDIT CRISPR editing platform.[49] For both, heat-shock was used to transform chemically-competent parent strains.[72] Donor templates for homologous recombination were prepared using either Gibson assembly[73] using reagents supplied by the IMP Molecular Biology Service combined with site directed mutagenesis, or by direct synthesis from

commercial vendors (IDT, Genscript). For commercially synthesized HR templates, sequences were codon optimized according to *S. pombe* codon usage using Benchling (https://benchling.com). In all experiments, WT control transformations were performed such that synonymous mutations were introduced to delete CRISPR gRNA target sites. All manipulations were verified by PCR genotyping and where appropriate sequencing of the relevant locus.

To construct the *ura4*-based reporter, a construct (PZH_352) consisting of homology to the 5′ of the *ura4*-D18 locus,[74] the selectable marker kanMX6,[71] a 1 kb fragment corresponding to the weak promoter of *Arabidopsis thaliana ACT2* amplified from gDNA extracted from col-0, and the *S. pombe ura4*+ gene were assembled by Gibson. The *ura4-D18* locus was then replaced with the reporter via one-step PCR followed by homologous recombination.[71] Correct integration was verified by PCR genotyping, as was accumulation of Pht1 over the reporter region by ChIP-seq (Extended Data Fig. 7b).

Phenotypic assays in this study were performed using a plate-based bulk growth assay. OD_{600} was monitored in 384-well plates (Nunc) continuously under the stress conditions indicated in figure legends at the standard growth temperature with shaking. Saturated cultures were sub-cultured 100-fold, and all assays were performed in either EMM complete, EMM without uracil (EMM-Ura), or YES. Data collection was performed on a BioTek Epoch2. Area under the curve (AUC) was calculated from these growth curves in R using the Growthcurver package (https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/growthcurver/vignettes/Growthcurver-vignette.html). All subsequent data analysis was done in R.

Antibody Generation, Protein Purification, and Analysis

A polyclonal antibody was raised in rabbit against *S. pombe* H2A.Z (Pht1) using a C-terminal-tail targeting peptide chosen based on predicted immunogenicity, and that it avoided

the sequence domains of interest in the present study. Briefly, polyclonal serum was commercially produced (Eurogentec) using the peptide N-CLIRTKEKYPEEEEII-C. Antibodies were affinity purified using the same peptide. Briefly, SulfoLink agarose gel (Pierce Cat. No. 20401) was equilibrated in coupling buffer (50 mM Tris pH 8.5, 5 mM EDTA) before incubating with peptide for 90 min at RT. Afterwards, β-Mercapthoethanol was added and beads were incubated for 15 min at RT. Coupled beads were then washed three times in coupling buffer before adding serum diluted with 2 volumes of PBS with 0.2% tween-20. Beads and serum were then incubated together for three hours at RT with rotation. Beads were then collected in a disposable column and washed 6 times with PBS with 0.2% tween-20. To elute antibody, 750 µl of 0.1 M Glycine was added, incubated for 1 min, then allowed to flow through. Eluates were immediately quenched with 250 µl of 1 M K_2HPO_4. Elution was repeated nine additional times for a total of 10 fractions. Antibody-containing fractions were detected using Nanodrop spectrophotometer, pooling the highest concentration eluates. Antibodies were verified using *S. pombe* H2A.Z knockout strains (*pht1Δ*) for both Western blot and ChIP applications (Extended Data Fig. 7a), and aliquoted antibodies were stored at -70 ºC.

Generally, recombinant proteins were produced by the Vienna BioCenter Core Facilities Protein Technologies Facility using constructs commercially synthesized (Genscript) in *Escherichia coli* BL21(DE3). *S. pombe* Hta1 and Pht1 were produced as full-length N-terminal GST fusions (PZH_668 and PZH_669). For *S. pombe* Spt6 a truncated version corresponding to residues 282–1159 (PZH_670) was produced as a 14xHis tagged fusion. Chimeric Spt6-*Hs*DLD (PZH_785) was produced by replacing the DLD of *S. pombe* Spt6 (residues 933–1061) with *E. coli* codon-optimized *Homo sapiens* Spt6 DLD (residues 1010–1130) via Gibson assembly.

Expression of recombinant proteins was performed by autoinduction in TB media with 1.5% lactose and 50 µg/ml kanamycin for 24 hrs at 25 ºC with shaking. Cells were lysed by

sonication (Sonics VCX-750, 24-element or single-element microprobe: 3 mm, amplitude:

50%, time: 1 min, pulse-on: 1 s, pulse-off: 2 s) in the following buffer: 50 mM Tris-HCl pH

8.0, 500 mM NaCl, 5 mM DTT, Benzonase (2 µl per ml of Lysis buffer), 2 mM MgCl2, 0.2%

(v/v) NP-40 and cOmplete protease inhibitor tablets (Roche, 1 tablet per 25 ml of lysis buffer).

S. pombe Pht1 and Hta1 were purified by glutathione affinity chromatography. Each

supernatant was mixed with 100 µl of Glutathione Sepharose 4 FF (Cytiva Cat. No. 17513203,

previously equilibrated with binding buffer A (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 500 mM NaCl and 5

mM DTT) for 2h at 4 °C in a tube rotator. The beads were washed with 3 ml of binding buffer

A. The protein was eluted with 400 µl of elution buffer A (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 500 mM

NaCl, 5 mM DTT and 10 mM reduced Glutathione). For GST-Hta1, the GST-elution was

dialyzed against SP S buffer (25 mM HEPES pH 7.4, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 5% glycerol)

for 18h in the cold room with constant mixing to adjust the conductivity for loading it onto

1mL HiTrap SP FF (Cytiva Cat. No. 17515701) column, pre-equilibrated with SP S buffer, at

a flow rate of 1 ml/min. The column was then washed with SP S buffer until UV returned to

baseline and the protein was eluted in a gradient to 50% of SP E buffer (25 mM HEPES pH

7.4, 1 M NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 5% glycerol) over 50 mL. Eluates were pooled and concentrated

to a final volume of 1.5 mL using Vivaspin 20 MWCO 30 kDa (Sartorius Cat. No. VS2021).

Concentrated pool eluates were then loaded onto a Superdex 200 16/60 (Cytiva Cat. No.

28989335) at a flow rate of 1 ml per minute previously equilibrated with SEC buffer (50 mM

Tris pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 5% glycerol), where full-length protein eluted in the

void volume.

For *S. pombe* Spt6 and Spt6-*Hs*DLD, purification was performed using immobilized

metal affinity chromatography. Each supernatant was mixed with 500 µl of *Ni Sepharose 6 FF*

(Cytiva Cat. No. 17531806, previously equilibrated with binding buffer B (50 mM Tris-HCl

pH 8.0, 500 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT and 20 mM imidazole)) for 2 hr at 4 °C in a tube rotator.

The beads were washed with 1.5 ml of binding buffer B and with 1.5 ml of wash buffer B (50

mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 500 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 80 mM imidazole). The protein was eluted

with 400 µl of elution buffer B (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 500 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 500 mM

imidazole). All samples were dialysed against 1 l of dialysis buffer (25 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0,

150 mM NaCl and 1 mM DTT) at 4 °C overnight. The dialysed samples were centrifuged at 4

°C and 21000xg for 5 min.

SDS-PAGE separation was performed using self-cast gels using standard methods.

Gels were stained using colloidal blue reagents (MBS Blue) provided by the Molecular Biology

Service. For Western blots, proteins were transferred using a standard wet protocol to a 0.2 µm

nitrocellulose membrane (Cytiva Cat. No. 10600004), blocking in 5% non-fat dry milk

(Maresi) dissolved in TBS[T]. Anti-Pht1 antibody was used at 1:1000 diluted in blocking buffer

and detected using chemiluminescence following incubation with anti-rabbit HRP conjugates

(Biorad Cat. No. 1706515), which were diluted 1:10,000 in blocking buffer. Imaging of gels

and Western blots was performed using a Thermo Fisher iBright 1500 imaging system.

Thermal Stability Assay of In Vitro *Assembled Nucleosomes*

Recombinant histones (both WT and mutants) were expressed in *E. coli* BL21 (DE3),

except H4, which was expressed with *E. coli* JM109 (DE3). The nucleosome was reconstituted

with purified histone octamer and the 145 bp DNA fragment containing Widom 601 sequence[75]

by the salt dialysis method, as described previously.[76] The reconstituted nucleosomes were

further purified by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, using Prep Cell apparatus (Bio-Rad).

Thermal stability assays were performed as described previously.[55,77] The nucleosome

containing the 145 base-pair Widom 601 DNA was mixed with $1\times$ Protein Thermal Shift Dye

(ThermoFisher), in 18 mM Tris–HCl (pH7.5) buffer containing 100 mM NaCl, 4.5% glycerol,

and 0.9 mM DTT. The fluorescence signals of the Protein Thermal Shift Dye were detected

with a StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR unit (Applied Biosystems), with a temperature gradient

from 26 to 95°C, in steps of 1°C/min. The fluorescence intensity was normalized as follows:

[F(T) – F(26°C)/[F(95°C) – F(26°C)]. F(T) indicates the fluorescence intensity at a particular

temperature.

In Vitro *Pulldown Experiments*

Recombinantly expressed and purified proteins were bound to 10 µl Ni-NTA (Qiagen

Cat. No. 30210) resin previously equilibrated in pulldown buffer (50 mM Tris pH 8, 150 mM

NaCl, 2.5 mM DTT, 0.1% tween-20). Bait proteins were then bound to the prepared resins for

1 hr at RT. For *S. pombe* Hta1 and Pht1 experiments, 10 µg was used. For *S. pombe* Spt6, 25-

50 µg was used. For peptide experiments, a vast excess (50 µg) of biotinylated peptide was

used. The resins were then washed 4 times with pulldown buffer, then the prey protein was

added, incubating for 2 hrs at RT. Beads were then washed 4 times, then proteins were eluted

from the beads by boiling in SDS-PAGE running buffer. Proteins were then separated on an

SDS-PAGE gel and analyzed by either colloidal blue staining or Western blot as indicated

above, using a streptavidin-HRP conjugate (Invitrogen Ca. No. S911) for detection.

mRNA Sequencing Library Preparation and Analysis

Total RNA was extracted from yeast strains grown to mid-exponential phase (OD_{600}

~0.5) using a standard hot acid phenol protocol. Libraries were then prepared by polyA-tail

enrichment using the NEBNext Ultra II Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (NEB

Cat. No. E7760L) with the polyA selection module (NEB Cat. No. E7490L). Size selection

steps and final library cleanup were performed using the NA clean-up bead solution provided

by the VBC core facilities, which is adapted from DeAngelis et al. 1995[78] using carboxylate-

modified Sera-Mag Speed beads (Cytiva). Library quality control was performed using the

Advanced Analytical Fragment Analyzer using the HS NGS fragment analysis kit (Agilent Cat.

No. DNF-474) as well as qPCR using reagents produced by the Molecular Biology Service in

conjunction with commercial DNA standards (Roche Cat. No KK4903). Data was collected on

a Thermo Scientific QuantStudio5 instrument.

Prepared libraries were sequenced on either an Illumina NextSeq2000 or NovaSeq S4

at the Vienna BioCenter Core Facilities Next Generation Sequencing Core using paired-end

mode. Quality control of the data was performed using FastQC (Babraham Institute).

Transcript-level quantification against the *S. pombe ASM294v2 reference genome* available

from ENSEMBLv55 was performed using Kallisto.[79] Differential expression analysis was

performed using DESeq2[80] in R, where all subsequent data manipulation was performed.

PRO-seq Library Generation and Analysis

We performed a variant of PRO-seq, qPRO-seq, as recently published,[37] with

modifications[38] to make it compatible with *S. pombe*. *S. pombe* cells were grown in 10 ml YES

media to OD_{600} ~0.4–0.5. Cells were then harvested by centrifugation at 400 x *g* for 5 min at 4

ºC. Cells were then resuspended in 10 ml of ice-cold PBS, spun down once more, then

resuspended in 10 ml ice-cold yeast permeabilization buffer (0.5% Sarkosyl, 0.5 mM DTT,

Roche cOmplete protease inhibitor cocktail, 4U/ml Invitrogen RiboLock RNAse Inhibitor).

After 20 min incubation on ice, cells were once again collected by gentle centrifugation, then

resuspended in 50 µl storage buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 25% (v/v) glycerol, 5 mM

$MgCl_2$, 0.1 mM EDTA, 5 mM DTT).

A 2X run-on reaction master mix (40 mM Tris pH 7.7, 64 mM MgCl2, 1 mM DTT,

400 mM KCl, 40 µM Biotin-11-CTP, 40 µM Biotin-11-UTP, 40 µM ATP, 40 µM GTP, 1%

sarkosyl) was prepared and preheated to 30 ºC. To each aliquot of permeabilized cells, 50 µl

of master mix and 1 µl of RNAse inhibitor were added, then mixed by gently pipetting with

wide-bore pipet tips before immediately incubating at 30 ℃ for 5 min. To ensure precise

timing, samples were done in batches staggered by 30–60 sec. Using the Norgen RNA

Extraction Kit (Cat. No. 37500), 350 µL of RL buffer were added to each sample and then

vortexed. 240 µl of absolute ethanol were added, then the entire well-mixed solution was

applied to the RNA extraction column. The column was spun at 3500 x g for 1 min at 25 ℃,

then washed once with 400 µl of wash solution A. This step was repeated a second time, then

the column was dried by spinning at high speed for 2 min. RNA was eluted twice in 50 µl of

DEPC-treated MonoQ water, the two fractions were pooled and then briefly denatured at 65

℃ for 30 sec. After snap cooling on ice, 25 µl of ice cold 1 M NaOH were added to each

sample, which was then incubated for 10 min on ice. Finally, samples were quenched with 125

µl of cold 1 M Tris-HCl pH 6.8, then cleaned up using a standard ethanol precipitation

overnight. Samples were resuspended in a small volume of DEPC water (6 µl).

Meanwhile, 10 µl per sample of Dynabeads MyOne Streptavidin C1 beads (Thermo

Fisher Cat. No. 65001) were prepared by washing once with bead preparation buffer (0.1 M

NaOH, 50 mM NaCl), then once in bead binding buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 300 mM

NaCl, 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100, 1 mM EDTA, RNAse inhibitors), then resuspended in 25 µl

bead binding buffer.

3' RNA adapter ligation was performed by adding 1 µl 10 µM oligo VRA3 to the

resuspended RNA, boiling at 65 ℃ for 30 sec, then snap cooling on ice. Ligation reactions

were then prepared with T4 RNA Ligase using the provided instructions. After incubating

reactions at 25 ℃ for 1 hr, ligated RNA was bound to the 25 µl previously prepared streptavidin

beads by adding 55 µl bead binding buffer and the entire ligation reaction. Samples were

incubated for 20 min at 25 ℃, then washed once with 500 µl high salt wash buffer (50 mM

Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 2 M NaCl, 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100, 1 mM EDTA, 2 µl/10 ml Ribolock

RNAse inhibitor), transferring beads to a clean tube. Beads were then washed once more in the

new tube with low salt wash buffer (5 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100, 1 mM

EDTA, 2 µl/10 ml Ribolock RNAse inhibitor), then resuspended in 20 µl T4 PNK reaction mix

(1X T4 PNK Buffer, 1 mM ATP, 1 µl T4 PNK, 1 µl RiboLock RNAse inhibitor). Samples

were then incubate at 37 ºC for 30 min, then the beads were collected by magnet and

resuspended in 20 µl ThermoPol reaction mix (1X ThermoPol buffer, 1 µl RppH, 1 µl

RiboLock RNAse inhibitor), then incubated at 37 ºC for 1 hr. Beads were once again collected

by magnet, then the 5' RNA adaptor (REV5) was ligated using T4 RNA ligase, setting up the

reaction using the provided manual and incubating at 25 ºC for 1 hr. Beads were then washed

once with high salt wash buffer, transferring to a clean tube, then once with low salt buffer,

before being resuspended in 300 µl of TRIzol reagent (Ambion). Samples were vortexed for

20 sec, then incubated on ice for 3 min before adding 60 µl of chloroform, vortexing for 15

sec, then incubating on ice for a further 3 min. Samples were then spun at 20,000 x g for 8 min

at 4 ºC, then the upper ~180 µl aqueous phase was transferred to a clean tube and precipitated

using a standard ethanol precipitation.

Finally, pellets were resuspended in 13.5 µl reverse transcription resuspension mix (8.5

µl DEPC water, 4 µl 10 µM primer RP1, 1 µl 10 mM dNTPs), denaturing at 65 ºC for 5 min,

snap cooling on ice. Reverse transcription was then performed using Maxima H Minus RT

(Thermo Fisher Cat. No. EP0753) by adding 6.5 µl RT master mix (4 µl 5X RT buffer, 1 µl

DEPC water, 0.5 µl RiboLick RNAse inhibitor, 1 µl Maxima H Minus RT), then cycling as

follows: 50 ºC for 30 min, 65 ºC for 15 min, 85 ºC for 5 min. 2.5 µl of indexed RPI-n primer

(10 µM) were then added to each RT reaction, then PCR was performed as a 100 µl reaction

using the Q5 polymerase (NEB) with the included high GC content enhancer. Samples were

then PCR-amplified to the beginning of the logarithmic phase, as determined using a small-

scale qPCR reaction run in parallel (typically less than 20 cycles).

Libraries were sequenced as described previously at the Vienna BioCenter Core

Facilities Next Generation Sequencing Core as previously. The data analysis was performed

by adapting available pipelines.[37] Briefly, we created a Nextflow container

(https://github.com/Gregor-Mendel-Institute/PROalign) to perform all QC, alignment, and

read processing steps, generating strand-specific bigwig files that were subsequently analyzed

in R.

ChIP-seq and -qPCR

S. pombe strains (100 ml) were grown to mid-exponential phase (OD_{600} ~0.4-0.5) in

YES, fixed with 1% formaldehyde for 10 min, quenched with 125 mM glycine for 10 min, then

collected by centrifugation. Cells were washed once with ice-cold PBS, then resuspended in

lysis buffer (50 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 7.5, 140 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.1% sodium

deoxycholate, 1% Triton X-100, 1X Roche Complete Protease Inhibitors), and then lysed using

acid-washed glass beads in a Precellys for 4x20 sec maximum speed, 1 min on ice between

rounds. Lysate was then separated from the beads and then chromatin was sheared to a

predominant final DNA length of ~150-200 bp in a Covaris E220 ultrasonicator, and then

clarified of unlysed cells and debris by centrifugation twice at $16,000 \times g$ for 10 min. Prepared

chromatin was then frozen at -70 ℃ pending use.

Chromatin aliquots were thawed on ice, then normalized based on starting culture

density using additional lysis buffer for dilution. 10% of normalized and diluted chromatin

were reserved as input controls. Anti-H2A.Z (Pht1) or anti-Myc 9E10 antibody (1µg) was then

added to each culture and samples were incubated overnight at 4 ℃ with inversion. 25 µl of

Protein A Dynabeads (Thermo Fisher Cat. No. 10001D) per sample were prepared by washing

twice with PBS with 0.1% tween-20, once with lysis buffer, then resuspending in 100 µl of

lysis buffer. Prepared beads were then combined with overnight chromatin samples, and

incubated for 4 hrs at 4 ℃ with inversion. Beads were then collected using the magnet and

washed twice with lysis buffer, twice with high salt lysis buffer (50 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 7.5,

500 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.1% sodium deoxycholate, 1% Triton X-100), twice using

lithium wash buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8, 250 mM LiCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.5% NP-40, 0.5%

sodium deoxycholate), and once with TE. Beads were then resuspended in 100 µl of elution

buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8, 10 mM EDTA, 0.8% SDS) and transferred to PCR strips.

Samples were then boiled for 10 min at 95 ℃, then 65 ℃ overnight in a thermocycler. The

next morning, proteinase K was added (final concentration 0.2 mg/mL) and incubated at 55 °C

for 2 h. Samples were then cleaned up using a commercial kit (Zymo Research Cat. No.

D5201). DNA concentration was measured by Nanodrop spectrophotometer. To verify the

H2A.Z antibody, ChIP-qPCR was set a 100-fold dilution of samples was used in a 15 µl

reaction using a 2X SYBR-green master mix provided by the IMP Molecular Biology Service.

For the *ura4$^+$* locus, primers ZH_1908 (5'-GCAGGTCACAGTCATGAAGCCA-3') and

ZH_1909 (5'-GGATTTTTCATCCCCTCAGCTCTAGC-3') were used.

For library preparations, all samples, including input, were processed using the

NEBNext Ultra II library preparation kit for Illumina (NEB Cat. No. E7645L) using custom

synthesized barcoded sequencing adapters provided by the Vienna BioCenter Core Facilities

Next Generation Sequencing Facility. Following quality control by Agilent Fragment Analyzer

and quantification by RT-qPCR using a Kapa Library Quantification Kit (Roche Cat. No.

KK4903), libraries were sequenced at the Next Generation Sequencing Facility on an Illumina

NovaSeq X. Alignments, quality control, and initial processing were performed using the nf-

core/chipseq pipeline (https://github.com/nf-core/chipseq) with default parameters. Input-

normalized bigWig files were subsequently generated using Deeptools (v3.3.1).[81]

Quantification and Statistical Analysis

Unless otherwise noted, all statistical analyses were performed in R (v4.4.2) using the

RStudio IDE (2024.12.0+467) on Darwin 24.3 (64-bit) under macOS 15.3.1. All statistical tests

used are stated in corresponding figure legends. Quantification of sequence distances was

performed using CLC Main Workbench 10 (Qiagen). AlphaFold2 Multimer[43] analyses were

performed using ColabFold[82] on the CLIP cluster (https://clip.science).

Data Availability

Datasets from phylogenetic analyses are provided as supplementary data files. PRO-

seq pipeline and scripts used for data analysis are available as a container on Github

(https://github.com/Gregor-Mendel-Institute/PROalign), and all other scripts used in analysis

are available upon request to the lead contact. NGS data are deposited in GEO under accession

numbers: PRO-seq (GSE265749), mRNA-seq (GSE265775), and ChIP-seq (GSE279717,

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Materials and Correspondence: For material request (e.g. strains), please contact the lead

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FIGURES AND FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Diverse H2A.Zs from Extant Eukaryotes Encode Emergent Functions. a,

Supergroup diversity of chosen lineages for synthetic replacement experiments detailed in (b).

For each supergroup, representative species is written below. **b,** Experimental scheme

describing the replacement of endogenous *S. pombe pht1* by representative H2A.Zs taken from

the H2A phylogeny (Extended Data Fig. 2b, 3a). **c,** Principal component analysis (PCA) for

the top 500 variable genes from mRNA-seq data generated for H2A.Z replacement lines. **d,**

Growth phenotypes for H2A.Z replacement lines in various stress conditions, annotated with

the sequence distance of each H2A.Z from that of *S. pombe* Pht1 (which has a sequence

distance of zero). Plotted values are the mean of four biological replicates. Growth is quantified

as the area under the curve (AUC) from respective growth curves. H2A.Zs are annotated with

their sequence distance relative to *S. pombe* Pht1, with zero being Pht1 and larger numbers

indicating greater divergence. **e,** Example Spearman's correlations between the growth from **c**

with sequence distance of each H2A.Z relative to WT *S. pombe*.

Figure 2. Single Residue H2A.Z Core Domain L2 Substitutions Are Sufficient for

Neofunctionalization. a, Mean pairwise sequence identity of H2A.Z and H2A.X residues

across eukaryotes, averaged using a 3-amino acid sliding window. The L2 region is highlighted

in grey on the histone secondary structure, with the core domain we identify indicated. Dashed

lines indicate the N- and C-terminal tails that were not included in this analysis due to variable

length and resulting gappy alignment. **b**, Spearman's correlation analysis between the sequence

divergence from *S. pombe* Pht1 L2 and principal component 1 from mRNA-seq analysis from

Fig. 1b. In this analysis, the *S. pombe* Pht1 sequence corresponds to a value of zero, with a

larger number corresponding to a greater divergence. See also Extended Data Fig. 5e. **c,**

Experimental scheme explaining the *ura4$^+$* reporter gene. **d,** Experimental scheme describing

the generation of H2A.Z point mutants. **e,** WT-normalized growth of H2A.Z point mutant

strains bearing the transcriptional reporter from **c** in EMM-Uracil. The median of WT is

represented with a dashed line. Each Tukey boxplot represents 12 biological replicates,

adjusted *p*-values (p_{adj}) are calculated using a two-way ANOVA followed by a post-hoc Tukey

test. **e,** Differential count analysis for gene body qPRO-seq signal calculated using DESeq2.

Red line, diagonal (Y=X) line drawn to aid in interpretation. Statistically significant ($p_{adj}<0.1$)

changes are indicated in blue.

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Figure 3. H2A.Z Neomorphs Rewire Its Interaction with The Transcription Apparatus.

a, Experimental scheme showing the pulldown in **b** of biotinylated peptides corresponding to

either WT or L2 neomorphs against WT *S. pombe* 14xHis-Spt6(282-1159) immobilized on Ni-

NTA resin. Detection was done by streptavidin-HRP conjugate. Representative of five

experiments, each with similar results. Hta1 L2 and Pht1 docking domain (DD) are included

as positive and negative controls, respectively. **c,** Example ChIP-seq tracks for Pht1, Pht1

neomorph, and WT-Spt6 in the indicated Pht1 mutant background. Plotted is the $\log_2$

transformed, input-normalized signal. **d–g,** Analysis of genome-wide Spt6 levels within gene

bodies for indicated *pht1* mutants. Plotted is the mean input-normalized Spt6 signal for at least

two biological replicates either as a mean profile for **d & f** or histogram with the reference

value for WT indicated by a dashed line in **e & g**. Adjusted *p*-values are from a post-hoc Tukey

test of a 2-way ANOVA. **h,** Transcription completion scores calculated using the indicated

formula from qPRO-seq data in the respective mutants, expressed as the change relative to WT.

Adjusted *p*-value from a post-hoc Tukey test of a 2-way ANOVA. **i,** Correlation analysis of

the average change in transcription completion score relative to WT with respect to the change

in Spt6 levels, also with respect to WT, for the indicated Pht1 neomorphs. Correlation

coefficient is Spearman's rho, and average values for each mutant are bounded by the 95%

confidence interval.

Figure 4. L2 Neomorphs Balance Phenotypic Opportunities and Costs Through

Transcriptional Regulation. a, Schematic of CRISPR strategy for deep scanning mutagenesis

of the endogenous Pht1 L2. **b,** Histogram for the mean *ura4* reporter expression for all L2

neomorphs. Histogram is based on the mean of 6 biological replicates, and bins including either

L2 sequence variants (at Hamming Distance = 1 relative to WT S. pombe Pht1 L2) or known

oncohistone variants[10] labeled above. **c,** Violin plots for the data from **b** broken down by

individual positions within the L2. **d,** Growth relative to WT for Pht1 L2 neomorphs in *S.*

pombe across four conditions. Growth is calculated as the area under the growth curve for 6

biological replicates. **e–h,** Spearman's correlation analysis for mutants from **d** with their

transcriptional reporter output from **b**.

Extended Data Figure 1. Validation of HMM Models Used to Annotate Histone Variants.

a, Specificity of core histone HMMs queried against histones in EukProt. **b,** Specificity of

H2A variant HMM models queried against histones in EukProt. **c,** H2A variant HMMs do not

reliably identify the right H2A variant, even if assigning variant identify based on the lowest

E-value.

Extended Data Figure 2. Overview of H2A Dataset. a, Overview of histones identified by

different core histone HMMs in the context of eukaryotic phylogeny. Number of representative

genomes and their data source are also indicated. **b,** Number of H2As and presence/absence

of specific variants (H2A.Z, H2A.X, divergent H2A.Z, as mentioned in the main text) across

eukaryotic phylogeny. Numbers reflect the distribution in the final filtered dataset. The

cladogram of major eukaryotic lineages and information on data sources are taken from

EukProt. H2A.Z from the list of species in the far-right column were chosen for further

investigation.

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Extended Data Figure 3. H2A/Z Molecular Phylogeny. a, Unrooted protein phylogeny of

H2A (see Methods for reconstruction details). H2A.Z, as defined by the presence of a

'DEELD' motif within its docking domain, are colored in green. 'Divergent' H2A.Zs branch

as a sister to the major H2A.Z clade and carry at least one substitution in the DEELD motif. **b**,

Principal component analysis (PCA) on H2A sequences displayed in **a**, annotated by variant

identity.

Extended Data Figure 4. Additional Analysis of Pht1 Replacement Line Sequence and

Transcriptomes. a, Alignment of representative H2A.Z sequences taken from our phylogeny,

with key residues and relevant literature noted. **b,** Pairwise percent identity of representative

H2A.Zs, excluding N- and C-terminal tail regions. **c,** Differential expression analysis of

mRNA-seq data for each species's H2A.Z replacement line against WT *S. pombe*. Number of

differentially expressed genes (p_{adj}<0.1, out of 5134 coding genes) is indicated for each panel.

Extended Data Figure 5. Additional Phenotypic Data and Analysis for Full-Length Pht1

Replacement Lines. a–c, Example growth curves related to **Fig. 1c** for selected phenotypes

and strains. Curves are the mean of 4 biological replicates and are coloured according to the

evolutionary distance of the H2A.Z from a given species. **d,** Example Spearman's correlation

analysis of sequence distance relative to WT *S. pombe* Pht1 relative to Pht1 mRNA levels from

Fig. 1b for each of the 9 full-length H2A.Z replacement lines. **e,** Further Spearman's

correlations for the phenotypes of H2A.Z replacement lines from **Fig. 2b** with themselves, as

well as either their sequence distance from WT *S. pombe* or their expression.

Extended Data Figure 6. Domain Analysis of Pht1. a, Alignment of *S. pombe* H2A and

H2A.Z identifying the five regions. **b**, Mean growth (AUC) for four biological replicates in

each indicated condition, which are as in Fig. 1B for S. pombe strains encoding H2A/H2A.Z

chimeras according to the regions defined in **a**. **c–e,** Example growth curves related to the

heatmap from **b**. Plotted is the mean of 4 biological replicates for the indicated strain, and the

conditions are as in **Fig. 1c**. **d,** Additional Spearman's correlation analyses of mRNA-seq data

from **Fig. 1b** against the sequence distance for each complemented H2A.Z in the indicated

regions from **a**.

Extended Data Figure 7. Controls Pertaining to Transcription Measurements. a, ChIP-

qPCR data for *ura4* reporter in either WT and *pht1Δ* cells. Plotted are data from three

independent ChIP experiments and are the average of 4 technical replicates. Accompanying

western blot to validate the selectivity of the Pht1 antibody, performed against acid extracts of

WT, *pht1Δ*, and *pht1+*, whereby *pht1* was knocked back into the *pht1Δ* background. **b,** Pht1

ChIP-seq profiles for WT, Pht1 L83M, and L83F for the *ura4* reporter locus. **c,** RT-qPCR

analysis for indicated strains against *ura4+* mRNA. Quantification performed using *S. pombe*

act1 as a reference. **d,** growth of *ura4* reporter strains with the Pht1 L2 replaced at the

endogenous locus for the L2 for the indicated species. Plotted are at least 10 biological

replicates, and *p*-values are calculated with a Wilcoxon test relative to WT *S. pombe*. **e,** Growth

of H2A.Z point mutant strains in complete growth medium (EMM). Plotted are four biological

replicates, with their mean and standard error. **f,** *ura4* reporter assay for L2 point mutants from

Fig. 4C in a *swc2Δ* background. Plotted are at least 5 biological replicates with their mean and

standard error. **g,** Growth of indicated *S. pombe* Pht1 mutants in the presence of 12.5 µM

mycophenolic acid (MPA) expressed as the ratio of their paired growth in the absence of the

drug. Data are nine biological replicates and the experiment was repeated three times with

similar results. Boxplots represent the median bounded by quartiles. Adjusted *p*-values (p_{adj})

are calculated using a two-way ANOVA followed by a post-hoc Tukey test. **h,** Thermal

stability assays[55] for H2A.Z L2 neomorphs. Plotted is the mean of three independent

experiments bounded by the standard deviation for the derivative of fluorescence intensity.

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Extended Data Figure 8. Genomic Profiles of Pht1 L2 Neomorphs. a, Example ChIP-seq

profiles for Pht1 L2 neomorphs and WT across all transcribed genes referenced to the

transcription start site (TSS). Profile is the mean of $\log_2$-transformed, input normalized signal.

b, Spearman's correlation analysis for Pht1 levels genome-wide against transcription as

measured by gene-body nascent transcript counts from qPRO-seq for both WT and Pht1 L2

neomorphs.

a

H2A.Z Mutant

- A80
- D82
- K81
- K84
- K86
- L83
- V85
- WT

IPTM
0.8
0.7
0.6
0.5

A80K L83N L83Q D82G L83F L83Y V85G V85Q V85A V85M V85L A80S K86N K86Q K84R pht1 K81R L83M

b IPTM Variance Across All Pht1 L2 Variants

Count

Spt6

IPTM Variance

c AlphaFold2 Predicted Structure

Death-Like Domain (DLD)

Spt6

Pht1 L2

d

| Rank 1 | Rank 2 | Rank 3 |
| Rank 4 | Rank 5 |

PAE
30
20
10
0

Spt6   H2A.Z

e

Comparison: 3PSF   Comparison: 7SXE

Spt6

RMSD: 1.071 Å   RMSD: 1.203 Å

Comparison: 1F66   Comparison: 4M6B

H2A.Z

RMSD: 0.997 Å   RMSD: 0.938 Å

f

GST Pht1   14x His
GST Hta1   Spt6

Nickel Resin

g

14xHis-Spt6 GST-Pht1 GST-Hta1 GST | Nickel Resin GST Pht1 Hta1

kDa

14xHis-Spt6
GST-Pht1
GST-Hta1

h

14xHis-Spt6 GST-H2A GST-H2A.Z GST | His PD H2A H2A.Z GST

kDa

14xHis-Spt6
GST-Pht1
GST-Hta1

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Extended Data Figure 9. *In Vitro* and *In Silico* Evidence for L2 Neomorph Mechanisms.

a, AlphaFold2 predicted interaction scores (IPTM) for the top-500 predicted H2A.Z-

interacting proteins in *S. pombe* across all tested H2A.Z L2 mutants, as well as H2A and WT

H2A.Z. **b,** IPTM variance calculations based on the data from (a), with Spt6 highlighted with

an arrow. **c,** Example AlphaFold2-predicted structure for the interaction between Pht1 and

Spt6. **d,** AlphaFold2 predicted error alignment (PAE) for the five replicate models of WT *S.*

pombe Pht1 against *S. pombe* Spt6. **e,** Comparison of AlphaFold2 predicted *S. pombe* Spt6

structure to either the crystal structure of *S. cerevisiae* (PDB 3PSF) or Cryo-EM structure of

Pichia pastoris Spt6 (7XSE), as well as predicted Pht1 L2 against the structure of either *H.*

sapiens H2A.Z.1 (PDB 1F66) or *S. cerevisiae* Htz1 (PDB 4M6B). **f,** experimental scheme for

in vitro pulldown experiments for recombinantly expressed and purified 14xHis-Spt6(282–

1159) against Pht1 (H2A.Z). In this assay, Hta1 (H2A) serves as a positive control, and GST a

negative control. **g**, SDS-PAGE analysis of *in vitro* pulldown under physiological salt (150

mM NaCl) and **h** under stringent (300 mM NaCl) washing conditions. Detection was

performed with colloidal coomasie staining, and was repeated three times with similar results.

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1019 **Extended Data Figure 10. Genomic Analysis for Additional Pht1 L2 Neomorphs. a,**

1020 Analysis of Spt6 levels in indicated Pht1 L2 mutants relative to WT as in **Fig. 4g & h**. Adjusted

1021 *p*-values are calculated as a post-hoc Tukey test of a 2-way ANOVA. **b,** Transcription

1022 completion score analysis as in **Fig. 4i**, but for additional Pht1 L2 neomorphs. Adjusted *p*-

1023 values calculated as in **c**.

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Extended Data Figure 11. Deep Scanning Mutagenesis of Pht1 L2. a, heatmap depicting

each possible substitution for each position within the 7-residue L2 core motif coloured

according to transcription of the *ura4* reporter relative to WT. Data are the mean of 8 biological

replicates. **b–c,** analysis of L2 variants according to whether or not they are present in H2A.Z

sequence database at a Hamming distance of 1 relative to WT *S. pombe*. **c,** control simulation

for the relatively small number of variants found in nature. 12 variants were randomly selected

from the total 133 possible variants 100 times, and their variance calculated as compared to the

actual experimentally observed data (red dot). Only one simulation had a lower variance than

that observed in the actual data.

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Supplementary Data Files and Tables:

Data Tables S1. (separate file) Pan-H2A dataset annotations, related to Supplementary Data

File S1.

Data Table S2. (separate file) AlphaFold2 multimer IPTM vs. PTM predictions for *S. pombe*

Pht1 L2 neomorphs against *S. pombe* nuclear proteins.

Data Table S3. (separate file) AlphaFold2 multimer IPTM vs. PTM predictions for H2A.Z

L2 mutants against *S. pombe* nuclear proteins.

Data Table S4. (separate file) Analysis of AlphaFold2 multimer predictions from Data Table

S3, with Spt6 highlighted.

Data Table S5. **(separate file)** *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* strains used in this study.

Data S1. (separate file)

Pan-H2A sequence database used in this study.

Data S2. (separate file)

Representative H2A.Z sequences used in this study.